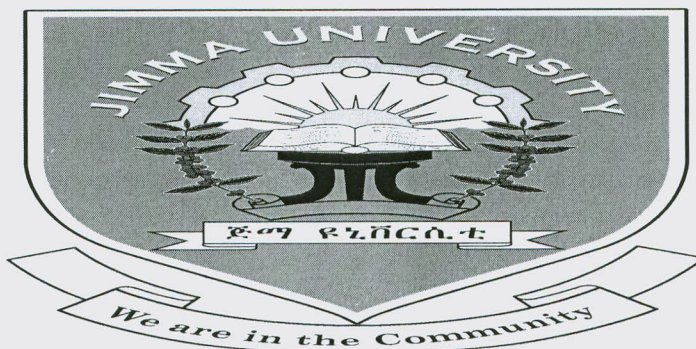


ACC-43655
C-1

PE
1120
.D47
2013



0043655/00/

JIMMA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND LAW
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE
(POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM)

**AN ASSESSMENT OF TEACHERS' PRACTICE IN TEACHING
READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSES: GRADE
9 AND 10 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF JORGO NOLE AND
ULA BABU HIGH SCHOOLS IN FOCUS**

**BY:
DEREJE BEKUMA**



**JUNE, 2013
JIMMA, ETHIOPIA**

PE
1120
.D47
2013
Doc.

**AN ASSESSMENT OF TEACHERS' PRACTICE IN TEACHING READING
COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSES: GRADE 9 AND 10
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF JORGO NOLE AND ULA BABU HIGH
SCHOOLS IN FOCUS**

BY: DEREJE BEKUMA

ADVISOR: TENA SHALE (PhD)

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE
AND LITERATURE (GRADUATE PROGRAM)**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF ARTS IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
(TEF)**

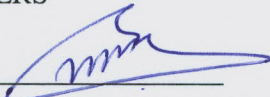
**JUNE, 2013
JIMMA, ETHIOPIA**

JIMMA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND LAW
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE
(POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM)

AN ASSESSMENT OF TEACHERS' PRACTICE IN TEACHING READING
COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSES: GRADE 9 AND 10 ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF JORGO NOLE AND ULA BABU HIGH SCHOOLS IN
FOCUS

BY: DEREJE BEKUMA

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

Tena Shale  27/10/05 ~~EC~~

Advisor

Signature

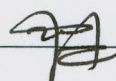
Date

Examiner (External)

Signature

Date

Getachew Seyoum



19/06/013

Examiner (Internal)

Signature

Date

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

Acknowledgements

I am very grateful to my advisor Dr. Tena Shale for his constructive comments, professional advice and invaluable comments throughout the course of the study.

Moreover, I want to thank all Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu High School English language teachers who helped me filling the questionnaire, taking part in interview and who allowed me to observe their classroom presentation, and those students who took part in the study through filling questionnaires.

I am also very grateful to my father Ato Bekuma Gurmessa for his financial support for the success of the study.

The last, but not the least, I want to appreciate my friends who directly or indirectly contributed for the success of my research work.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	v
Abstract	vi
CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the study	1
1.2. Statement of the problem	3
1.3. Objectives of the Study	5
1.3.1. General Objectives	5
1.3.2. Specific Objectives:	5
1.4. Significance of the study	6
1.5. Scope of the Study	6
1.6. Limitations of the study	6
1.7. Acronyms	6
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	7
2.1. Definition of Reading	7
2.2. Definitions of Strategies	7
2.3. Oxford's Classification of Learning Strategies	8
2.3.1. Direct strategies	8
2.3.1.1. Cognitive Strategies	9
2.3.1.2. Compensation Strategies	9
2.3.1.3. Memory strategy	9
2.3.2. Indirect learning strategies	10
2.3.2.1. Metacognitive Strategies	10
2.3.2.2. Affective Strategies	11
2.3.2.3. Social Strategy	11

2.4. The Importance of Strategies in the Learning Process	12
2.5. Reading Comprehension.....	12
2.6. Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies	13
2.7. The Role of Strategy Instruction.....	13
2.8. Issues Teachers should Consider for Teaching Reading	14
2.9. Reading Strategies Training Activities	15
2.10. Reading for Meaning	17
2.11. Effective Reading Strategies.....	17
2.12. Reading Strategy Instruction.....	23
2.13. Stages of Reading	23
2.14. Types of Reading	25
2.14.1. Perceptive reading.....	25
2.14.2. Selective reading.....	25
2.14.3. Interactive reading	25
2.14.4. Extensive reading.....	26
2.15. Approaches to Reading.....	26
2.15.1. Bottom -up Model.....	26
2.15.2. Top-down Model	27
2.15.3. Interactive Model.....	27
2.16. Characteristics of Good Readers.....	28
2.17. A Model Comprehension Instruction	29

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY and RESEARCH DESIGN ...32

3.1. Research Design.....	32
3.2. Study Population.....	32
3.3. Sampling Techniques.....	32
3.4. Data Collection Instruments	33
3.4.1. Questionnaire	33
3.4.2. Observation	34

3.4.3. Interview	34
3.4.4. Content Analysis	34
3.5. Data Analysis and Procedure	35
3.6. Research Procedures	35
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	37
4.1. Analysis of Teachers' and Students' Questionnaire and Classroom observation.....	37
4.1.1. Strategies Related to Pre-Reading Activities	37
4.1.2. Strategies Related to While-reading activities	46
4.1.3. Strategies Related to Post-Reading Activities.....	54
4.1.4. Analysis of Teachers' Interview.....	61
4.1.5. Content Analysis.....	63
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	66
5.1. Conclusions.....	66
5.2. Recommendations.....	68
REFERENCES	69
APPENDIX A: Teachers' Questionnaire	73
APPENDIX B: Students' Questionnaire.....	78
APPENDIX C Students Questionnaire Translated to L1	80
APPENDIX D: Observation Checklist.....	85
APPENDIX E: The Summary of Observation Checklist	86
APPENDIX F: Teachers' Interview Questions.....	90
Appendix G: Content Analysis Checklist	91

List of Tables

Tables	Pages
Table 1: Teachers' and students responses concerning pre-reading strategies.....	37
Table 2: Teachers' and students' responses concerning while reading strategies.....	46
Table 3: Teachers' and students' responses concerning post reading strategies.....	54

Abstract

The main objective of this study was to investigate teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu High Schools. The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods. The respondents of the study were sixteen Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu High schools English language teachers who were taken using availability sampling and twenty-four grade 9 students who were sampled from both schools by random sampling technique using lottery method to cross check the teachers' responses. In order to collect data, teachers' and students' questionnaire, classroom observation, teachers' interview and content analysis were used. To analyze the data quantitatively descriptive statistics like frequency, percentage and mean were used while observation, interview and content analysis were analyzed qualitatively. Chi-square was employed to indicate if there was significant difference between teachers' and students' responses to the questionnaires provided. The findings of the study indicated that teachers hardly engage their students in reading comprehension strategies practice except a few strategies. In addition, the result shows that there are very few strategies favored by teachers. The study suggests that English language teachers should give special attention to reading comprehension strategy instruction.

0043655 /see/

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION



1.1. Background of the Study

Ever since the teaching and learning of languages started, scholars in the field have been striving to come up with appropriate and effective ways of teaching and learning both first and second as well as foreign languages. English is one of these foreign languages/ second language that are widely taught in schools around the world (Brewster 1992, as cited in Mesfin, 2008).

In Ethiopia also the beginning of teaching and learning English as a foreign language dates back to the emergence of modern education in the country in 1908. In those days, it was used as a medium of instruction starting from grade three and later on it has been used at high school level and above. Since then, English has been taught as one of the major subjects at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The new Education and Training Policy of 1994 states that English should be given as a subject starting from grade one onwards and the policy has also given due emphasis to the use of English as a medium of instruction in the secondary and tertiary levels. To this end, the practice of the English language skills has become increasingly more important in language education (Mesfin, 2008).

Apart from these nationally consistent practices, different regions have adopted different regional policies and attitudes towards English in their education system; some of the regions have made English to be a medium of instruction from grade 7, some from grade 8 and some from grade 9 (Amlaku, 2008).

Therefore, the practice reading skill is one of the most important issues in academic achievement for students of English as Foreign Language. It is obvious that in Ethiopian secondary and tertiary levels, English is the medium of instruction. Thus, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999, as cited in Gilani, Ismail and Gilakjani 2012) argue that it is essential for EFL instructors to be familiar with reading strategies and expose their students to the various kinds so that students know how and when to utilize them.

Atkins (1996) indicates that many writers assert reading is the most important skill for second or foreign language learning in academic context and that in High School and Colleges or tertiary levels in Ethiopia, where English is used as the medium of instruction, reading is the most important of the four skills. This is basically because the students' eventual academic success or failure depends to a large degree on their ability to comprehend the textbooks and notes they receive in different subjects they study. Amlaku (2008) states that English in Ethiopia is a medium of instruction from secondary school through higher education but the learners' proficiency remains always poor and the effectiveness of English language teaching remains always questionable, despite the efforts being undertaken by the Ethiopian government and concerned institutions.

Aydogdu (2007) stresses that reading as a receptive language skill, is vital for language learning. It is the most common way of acquiring information. Individuals usually learn by reading printed materials or electronic resources. Reading is an active skill since the reader applies many skills and strategies while he/she is reading. This is to mean, reading skill cannot be confined to being just a decoding process of making sense of letters. Reading skill is tremendously important in promoting learning and acquiring information; however, students may face numerous problems at the comprehension level. The researcher as an English language teacher witnesses that most of the students of high schools are not good at comprehending texts. This was what initiated the researcher to conduct the study.

Currently, in the context of our country, English language is being given as a subject beginning from elementary to high school level with classes meeting four times a week for 40' per lesson. In higher education, it is also given for different purposes adjusted as supplementary (common) courses as well as an independent field. Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu high schools are one of the Ethiopian high schools where English is given as a foreign language. As it is true in many parts of our country, English language is limited to classroom situation in the areas where the present study will be conducted. Students have no exposure to practice reading comprehension strategies out side the classroom. As it is discussed above, students of Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu high schools are not good at comprehending texts. They do not know when and how to use reading

strategies, they cannot understand the message of texts and these all may cause low language proficiency. This might have been because of lack of reading comprehension strategy instruction.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Grabe and Stoller (2002) stated that of the four basic language skills, reading can be regarded as especially important because reading is assumed to be the central means for learning new information. According to Mei-yun (1988, as cited in Aydogdo, 2007), some problems students have in reading are as follows:

1. Reading word by word, relying too heavily on their visual information, generally impedes their reading speed and hampers their comprehension.
2. Focusing too much attention on form at the expense of meaning.
3. Paying too much attention to details, with the result that they often miss the main ideas and see only the trees instead of the forest.
4. A small reading vocabulary and heavy reliance on the use of the dictionary for word meaning.
5. Limited background knowledge (p.23).

Mei-yun explains that these problems could be resulting from poor instruction of reading strategies on how to read more effectively. Teaching effective reading involves teaching the sub-skills of reading. He classifies the sub-skills (strategies) of reading as follows: Word attack skills (using context clues and using structural information), reading in meaningful units, scanning, skimming, prediction, recognizing organizational patterns, distinguishing general statements from specific details, inference and conclusion, evaluation and appreciation.

Brown (2000) stated that reading comprehension is primarily a matter of developing appropriate and efficient comprehension strategies. Biancarosa and Snow (2006) stated that when teachers explain and model a single comprehension strategy or multiple strategies, as well as provide guidance and independent practice with feedback until students begin to use the strategy independently, the reading level of middle and high school students improves.

As shown above, reading strategy instruction is the base for reading comprehension. Unless students practice reading strategies, it might be difficult to comprehend the theme of written

materials. Presley, Beard EL, Dinary & Brown (1992) stated that research into reading has found that effective readers are aware of the strategies they use and that they use strategies flexibly and efficiently. They argue that when dealing with a reading lesson, students often experience lack of reading strategies which are essential for them to overcome the challenges in the classroom. Block (1986, as cited in Gilani, Ismail and Gilakjani, 2012) expressed that reading strategies are important as they help readers to achieve their reading goals and achieve good results in reading. As such students or readers who don't use any strategies in reading usually face difficulties in reading comprehension. Ben-David (2002, as cited in Gilani, Ismail and Gilakjani, 2012) stated that readers often encounter problems in reading text and have difficulties in understanding the meaning of the context but reading strategies help them in learning foreign language and reading comprehension.

Likewise, Block (1992, as cited in Gilani, Ismail and Gilakjani, 2012) argued that learners need to be explicitly taught how to properly use reading strategies to monitor their reading comprehension. Eskey and Grabe (1995, as cited in Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik, 2008) also argued that it is the teacher who must introduce and provide practice in using reading strategies for copying with texts. Good teachers use many strategies to enhance students' reading comprehension.

Researches from abroad like "Reading strategy use, self-efficacy and EFL reading comprehension" by Shang (2010) found out that students experienced difficulty in using reading comprehension strategy. "An empirical study of reading self-efficacy and the use of reading strategies in the Chinese EFL context", by Li and Wang (2010) are some examples.

Among the local studies conducted in the area of reading skills, Alamirew, (2001); Mesfin; (2008) and Dereje, (2008) are some examples. Alamirew (2001) concluded that poor language background students have accounts for them to have negative reactions towards different aspects of reading texts and exercises. Mesfin (2008) also indicated that the practices of teaching reading English in grade 4 of Addis Ababa government schools are traditional where current techniques and procedures of teaching and learning English as a foreign language have not been used. In addition to these, Dereje (2008) indicated that teachers hardly emphasize on the usefulness of

effort in promoting students' reading skills and engagement; and students engaged in reading by their effort. As far as the researcher's knowledge is concerned, there are only few local researches conducted on the area of reading strategy. Girma (1994) conducted a study on "A preliminary investigation into the reading strategies of AAU first year students." In his findings indicated that most of the subjects have low awareness of reading strategies that may facilitate more successful reading.

However, the purpose of this study was, therefore, to investigate whether and how far teachers let their students practice and teach reading comprehension strategies in ESL/EFL classroom with reference to two particular Secondary High Schools. Therefore, the study is designed to answer the following research questions:

1. Do teachers give instructions on how to use reading comprehension strategies?
2. What reading strategies are commonly offered to students in EFL classes?
3. What is/ are the reading strategy/ strategies favored by the teachers?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objectives:

The study is intended to investigate the current practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies by teachers at Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu High schools grade 9 and 10 EFL classes.

1.3.2. The study specifically aims:

- To assess whether teachers teach reading comprehension strategies or not.
- To identify whether teachers incorporate pre, while and post reading strategies in their reading classes.
- To identify what reading strategies are commonly offered to students in EFL classes.

1.4. Significance of the study

As pointed out above, this study undertakes to look into the teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies. So, the findings from this study would be significant for language



teachers to reconsider the function of teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL/ESL classes and promote students' reading strategy use. Finally, researchers who are interested in this area may use the findings as a base for further investigation.

1.5. Scope of the Study

The study is limited to the assessment of teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL/ESL classes. It was conducted in Oromia region, West wollega zone, Nole Kaba Woreda in two high schools in 2005/2013 academic year.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

It would be better to increase the number of the subjects and include other High Schools in this study. However, the study was limited to teachers of two high schools. Therefore, because of the small size of subjects, the findings of the study cannot be generalized. In addition, some of the teachers were not cooperative enough to fill the questionnaires and to be observed during data collection.

1.7. Acronyms

EFL: English as a Foreign language

ESL: English as a Second Language

RS: Reading Strategies

RSI: Reading Strategies Instruction

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with a brief review of related literature concerning the topic of the study. Theories regarding reading, learning strategies and strategies to teach reading comprehension are discussed.

2.1. Definition of Reading

Different scholars have defined reading in various ways and all the definitions seem to have the same or similar concepts. Grabe and Stoller (2002) define reading as the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately. On the other hand, Payne and Whittkar (2006) define reading as a fundamental aspect of academic work. It is likely to be the major way to gather information. One of the ways to develop the ability to think about and describe the world in terms of a particular approach is through reading. Reading will provide an understanding of the academic discipline being studied. Reading opens up the possibility of gaining access to and an understanding of the thinking of all the people who have developed models and theories or written about a particular discipline or subject. Similarly, Doff (2002) defines that reading involves looking at sentences and words recognizing them and understanding; it is a process of making sense of written language.

Robb (1996) defines that reading is like a conversation between two people. It's a dialogue between reader and author. Good readers bring their knowledge and experiences to an author's words to help them understand and recall the text. Good readers, like good conversationalists, are able to use the information to arrive at a deeper understanding of something. They don't merely recall what they read, they comprehend it.

2.2. Definitions of Strategies

Learning strategies are defined as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations," (Oxford,1990,p.9). When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active,

conscious, and purposeful self regulation of learning. Brown (2000) expresses that strategies are specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned, designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. They are contextualized “battle plans” that might vary from moment to moment, or day to day. Strategies vary with in an individual. That is each of us has a number of possible ways to solve a particular problem, and we choose several sequences for a given problem.

2.3. Oxford’s Classification of Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) categorized language learning strategies in to two broad categories. These are direct and indirect strategies. Direct and indirect strategies support each other. Oxford expressed these categories in the following ways:

The first major class, direct strategies for dealing with the new language; is like the performer in a stage play, working with the language it self in a variety of specific tasks and situations. The direct class is composed of memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language, and compensation strategies for using the language despite knowledge gaps.

The second major strategy class, indirect strategies for general management of learning, can be linked to the director of the play. This class is made up of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions, and social strategies for learning with others.

2.3.1. Direct Strategies

According to oxford (1990) direct strategies are divided into three subcategories: cognitive, compensation and memory strategies.

2.3.1.1. Cognitive Strategies

Oxford stated that cognitive strategies enable learners to mentally process the language to receive and send messages through analysis and reasoning. However, if learners overuse cognitive strategies, they may easily make mistakes when they generalize the rules they have learned without questioning them or when they transfer expressions from their mother tongue to the target language.

2.3.1.2. Compensation Strategies

Oxford (1990) illustrated that compensation strategies help learners to understand or produce the target language despite some limitations in knowledge. She further explained that when learners come across an unknown word, they use guessing, in other words, inferencing as a strategy. Oxford depicted that this involves making sense of a text by using clues in the text to guess meaning of unknown words, using knowledge of affixation, and checking in a dictionary to establish a word's meaning for themselves. If the learner is equipped with these strategies, he/she will not expect the teacher to spoon feed him all the time.

2.3.1.3. Memory Strategy

They are usually used to link the verbal with the visual. This is useful for four reasons:

- ❖ The mind's capacity for storage of visual information exceeds its capacity for verbal material.
- ❖ The most efficiently packaged chunks of information are transferred to long-term memory through visual images
- ❖ Visual images might be the most effective mean to aid recall of verbal material.
- ❖ Visual learning is preferred by a large proportion of learners.

(Oxford, 1990, p.40)

2.3.2. Indirect Learning Strategies

Indirect strategies consist of three subcategories as well: metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

As Oxford (1990) all these strategies are called 'indirect' strategies because they support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. The indirect strategies work in tandem with the direct strategies. Indirect strategies are useful in virtually all language learning skills.

2.3.2.1. Metaconitive Strategies

Oxford (1990) expressed that metacognitives strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. She further divides this strategy into three strategy sets: centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning and evaluating your learning. Oxford explained that metaconitive strategies are essential for successful language learning. That is language learners are often overwhelmed by too much "newness": unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, and seemingly inexplicable social customs. With all this novelty, many learners lose their focus, which can only be regained by the conscious use of metacognitive strategies such as paying attention and over viewing/linking with already familiar material. Other metacognitive strategies, like organizing, setting goals and objectives, considering the purpose and planning for a language task, help learners to arrange and plan their language learning in an efficient, effective way. Anderson (2003) hypothesizes that the metacognitive strategies play a more significant role because once a learner understands how to regulate his/her own learning through the use of strategies; language acquisition should proceed at a faster rate. He further explains that metacognitive strategy is the ability to make your thinking visible; the ability to reflect on what you know and do and what you do not know and do not do. Metacognition results in evaluation of your thinking that may result in making specific changes in how you learn. It simply thinking back on an event, describing what happened and how you felt about it. Anderson mentioned the relation between metacognitive strategies and reading in the following ways:

(1) preparing and planning for effective reading, (2) deciding when to use particular reading strategies, (3) knowing how to monitor reading strategy use, (4), learning how to orchestrate various reading strategies, and (5) evaluating reading strategy use. Metacognition is not any one of the five elements in isolation. Each of these five metacognitive skills interacts with each other. Metacognition is not a linear process moving from preparing and planning to evaluate. More than one metacognitive process may be happening at a time during a learning task. It is the blending of all five into a kaleidoscopic view that may be the most accurate representation of metacognition (p.10)

2.3.2.2. Affective Strategies

Oxford (1990) stated that affective strategies refer to emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. It is impossible to overstate the importance of the affective factors influencing language learning. Language learners can gain control over these factors through affective strategies. She explains the main sets of affective strategies are lowering your anxiety, encouraging your self and taking your emotional temperature. It also encompasses such concepts as self-esteem, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, culture shock, inhibition, risk taking and tolerance for ambiguity. Oxford depicted that the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning successes or failure. That is good language learners are often those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning.

2.3.2.3. Social Strategy

Oxford (1990) also indicated that language is a form of social behavior; it is communication, and communication occurs between and among people. Thus, learning a language involves other people, and appropriating social strategies are very important in this process. Oxford further explained that one of the most basic social interactions is asking questions, an action from which learners gain great benefit. That is asking questions help learners get closer to the intended meaning and thus aids their understanding. It also helps learners encourage their conversation partners to provide larger quantities of input in the target language and indicates interest and involvement. In addition to asking questions, cooperating in general with peers and with more proficient users of the target language is imperative for language learners.

2.4. The Importance of Strategies in the Learning Process:

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

- allow learners to become more self-directed
- expand the role of teachers
- support learning both directly and indirectly
- are often conscious and can be taught (p.9)

2.5. Reading Comprehension

According to McCormick (2007, as cited in Powers, 2011), reading comprehension refers to understanding text. If the reader comprehends the text it allows the reader to understand what the author is trying to explain. Elish-piper (2010, as cited in Powers, 2011) reading comprehension involves literal comprehension and higher level comprehension. Literal comprehension refers to answering a question that can be found directly in the text. Teachers refer to this as recall of information. This is an important strategy because students need to be able to determine where to look for information and find it within the text. High level comprehension involves being able to think about the text at a higher level which involves more than just recall facts. According to Israel (2007, as cited in Poewrs, 2011), the behavior that good readers use helps them construct meaning while reading, make evaluations of text, and make connections with prior knowledge and experiences.

2.6. Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies

Reading, which is a receptive language skill, is vital for language learning. Reading is the most common way of acquiring information. Individuals usually learn by reading printed material or electronic resources. Reading in a foreign language is also important since information technology has made global information sharing easier and the common language for international communication is usually English. Teaching reading has always been a goal for language teachers, especially at the beginning of the 20th century. Because of being a receptive skill, it is sometimes considered as a passive skill. However, reading is an active skill since the reader applies many skills and strategies while he is reading. Reading skill can not be confined to being just a decoding process of making sense of letters. Just recognizing letters and associating them with sounds does not prove successful reading. Comprehension of words, phrases and sentences may not always make us get the exact message of the author. Recognizing the relation between two sentences and recognizing the grammatical links between sentences (coherence and cohesion) are also important for reading comprehension. So teaching reading comprehension strategies in a foreign language calls for integrating many processes (Aydogdu, 2007).

2.7. The Role of Strategy Instruction

L2 learners need to learn how to use effective reading strategies to achieve their desired goals. Teaching readers how to use strategies is to be a prime consideration in the reading classroom; it provides a good rationale for integrating explicit instruction of language learning strategies into the classroom curriculum. Nunan (1996) makes clear that language classrooms should have a dual focus, not only teaching language content but also on developing learning processes as well. The primary purpose of instruction is to raise learners' awareness of strategies and then allow each to select appropriate strategies to accomplish their learning goals. Janzen (2001) states that in order to improve reading, teachers should embed the following features in the course syllabus: (1) explicit discussion of what reading strategies are, along with where, when, and how to use them; (2) teacher modeling of strategic reading behavior; (3) students reading and thinking aloud while practicing targeted strategies; (4) classroom discussion. These features are essential in developing strategic readers. In addition, the reader should understand how to apply a given strategy to other readings, and how to apply it in combination with other strategies.

2.8. Issues Teachers should Consider for Teaching Reading

According to Mei-Yun (1988, as cited in Aydogdu, 2007), teachers should consider the following points for teaching reading skill:

1. Reading is an active skill and it involves using many skills and strategies. Teachers should focus on different sub-skills of reading in their classes.
2. Learners already have some L1 reading competences. The strengths of the students in L1 reading could be transferred to reading in a foreign language.
3. The teachers should encourage their students for extensive reading in or outside the school
4. The reading texts should arouse interest in learners. The texts about which learners already have background information should be chosen. The language level of the texts should fit the learner's language level.
5. Using authentic texts is beneficial for learners since they contain rich vocabulary and cultural items. However, simplified texts can also be used when language level of the learners is not enough to comprehend authentic texts and when the focus is on a specific set of vocabulary and grammar items. Mei-Yun claims that learners learn to read best when simplified and authentic texts are used in balance.
6. Teachers should use different texts concentrating on different reading sub-skills. Some texts require inferencing and some may require recognizing organizational clues.
7. The comprehension tasks and activities should be chosen carefully. Difficult texts could be made easier by using easier activities and easy texts could be made more difficult by using difficult comprehension activities (p.24).

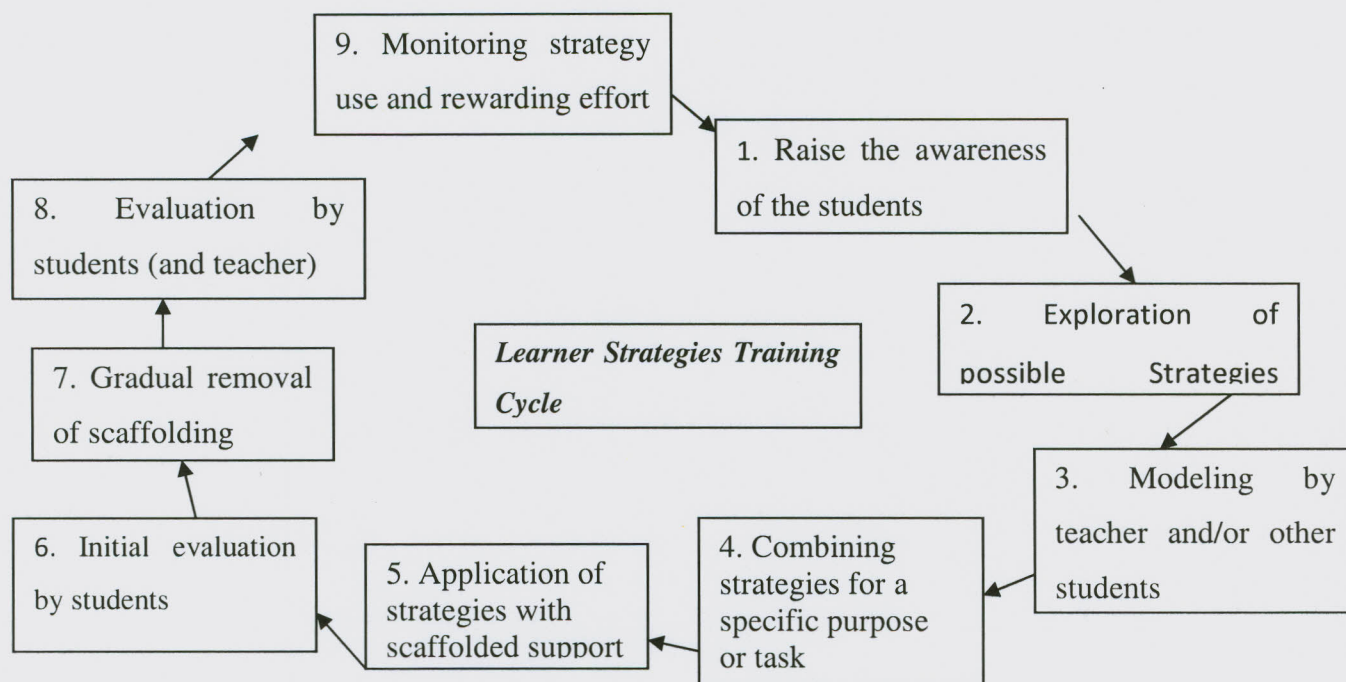
2.9. Reading Strategies Training Activities

Oxford (1990) elaborated that learning strategies are easier to teach and modify through strategy training. Oxford more illustrated that strategy training helps guide learners to become more conscious of strategy use and more adapt at employing appropriate strategies; strategy training is most effective when students learn why and when specific strategies are important, how to use these strategies and how to transfer them to new situations. She recommends that as a strategy trainer, the language teacher helps each student to gain self awareness of how he or she learns, as well as to develop the means to maximize all learning experiences. Shang (2010) states that findings demonstrate a contribution made to students' strategic awareness and the importance of explicitly teaching students multiple reading comprehension strategies. In other words, informed instruction in the classroom could enhance awareness and comprehension skills. To train students to use and transfer reading strategies to new tasks, a number of studies have suggested that reading strategy training needs to be conducted in conjunction with the regular course of instruction over an extended period of time, and teachers rather than researchers should be the deliverers of learning strategy instruction to equip readers with necessary reading skills.

There are suggested steps to be followed when conducting reading comprehension strategy instruction (training). Yang (1995, as cited in Shang, 2010), summarizes these general steps as follows:

1. Diagnosis: Developing students' awareness toward different strategies; identifying and assessing students' current language strategies through observations, questionnaires, interviews, diaries, self-report surveys, think-aloud procedures, etc.
2. Preparation: Explaining the concept and importance of learning strategies; providing students with knowledge about language learning strategies and information on motivation and beliefs, etc.
3. Instruction: Providing direct and informed instructions on learning strategies through explanation, modeling, practice, and integration; and providing different practice opportunities with various learning tasks.
4. Evaluation: Helping students evaluate their own strategy use; evaluating the whole strategy training and revising the training component if necessary (p. 24).

In a model proposed by Macaro (2001, as cited in Mehrpour, Sadighiand and Bagheri, 2012, p.110) nine steps should be considered in instructing reading strategies



Doff (1997) states that we usually have a purpose in reading: there is something we want to find out, some information we want to check or clarify, some opinion we want to match against our own etc. Similarly, Nuttall (1998) clarifies that the reasons and purposes of reading a text differ from person to person because of their different opinions, backgrounds and experiences and schemata. Thus, the same text may be a source of diverse interests depending on the person concerned. Grabe and Stoller (2002) also argue that when we begin to read, we actually have a number of initial decisions to make and we usually make these decisions very quickly. For example, when we pick up a news paper, we usually read a front page with some combination of search processing, general reading comprehension and skimming, but also we read with a goal to finish the news paper rapidly.

2.10. Reading for Meaning

It is necessary, and at the same time important to decide why students are made to read either for developing language or for improving the understanding power of meaning a text conveys. Nuttall (1996) extends that students need to learn how to read for meaning because language improvement is a natural by-product of reading. As Nuttall mentions there are four consecutive categories of meaning. These are:

a) Conceptual Meaning: This kind of meaning is embedded in 'a word'. Every lexical item embodies a concept simple or complex, and the whole books are written on complex concepts.

b) Propositional Meaning: The meaning 'a sentence' can have of its own is a propositional meaning. A single word does not inherit this type of meaning because "we cannot affirm it, deny it, and question it. For example 'playing' as a single word in isolation may have conceptual but not propositional meaning. If it is used in a proposition, such as, Boys are playing in the field, it will be possible to deny it (the sentence or proposition), doubt it, question it and so on. Thus the word ('playing') becomes propositionally meaningful.

c) Contextual Meaning: Contextual meaning occurs when 'a sentence' or 'proposition' or even a word is used in a context. The use indicates the writer's intention of and reason for using it. The value of its using in a text becomes explicit from the relationship between it and the other sentences or elements before and after it in the same text. For an effective reading it is crucial to interpret contextual meaning.

d) Pragmatic Meaning: It is the meaning which a sentence has only as a part of the interaction between writer and reader. It reflects the writer's feelings, attitude, purpose, tone and so on. Pragmatic meaning is the product of the unified whole text, and it offers variations in interpreting the meaning because of the fact that every reader comes to the text with his/her individual concepts and experiences that largely affect the meaning of the text.

2.11. Effective Reading Strategies

Brown (2000) explains that efficient reading consists of clearly identifying the purpose in reading something. Brown stresses that by doing so the reader knows what he/she is looking for and can weed out potential distracting information. Whenever teachers teach a reading technique, they have to make sure that students know their purpose in reading something.

Duke and Pearson (2002, pp.6-12) elaborate effective teaching reading strategies as follows:

a) Prediction: Making prediction when reading a text entails activities that come with different labels: activating prior knowledge, previewing, and over viewing. What all these variants have in common is encouraging students to use their existing knowledge to facilitate their understanding of new ideas encountered in text. Explicit attempts to get students to engage in prediction behaviors have proved successful in increasing interest in and memory for stories.

b) Think-aloud: Another proven instructional technique for improving comprehension is think-aloud. As its name implies, think-aloud involves making one's thoughts audible and, usually, public saying what you are thinking while you are performing a task, in this case, reading. Think-aloud has been shown to improve students' comprehension both when students themselves engage in the practice during reading and also when teachers routinely think aloud while reading to students.

c) Visual representations of text: There is an old saying that a picture is worth a thousand words. When it comes to comprehension, this saying might be paraphrased, "a visual display helps readers understand, organize, and remember some of those thousand words." Visual representations of text help a reader see the information again. A graphic "re-presentation" allow readers to see relationships, understand organization, connect ideas, and make abstract ideas concrete.

d) Summarization: Pearson and Duke (2002) elaborated that teaching students to summarize what they read is another way to improve their overall comprehension of text as many students require instruction and practice in summarizing before they are able to produce good oral and written summaries of text. They further explained that interestingly research suggests instruction and practice in summarizing not only improves students' ability to summarize text, but also their overall comprehension of text content. Thus, instruction in summarization can be considered to meet dual purposes: to improve students' ability to summarize text and to improve their ability to comprehend text and recall.

e) Questions/questioning: Duke and Pearson (2002) stated that no comprehension activity has a longer or more pervasive tradition than asking students questions about their reading whether this occurs before, during, or after the reading. They explained that much is known about the effect of asking different types of questions on students' understanding and recall of text, with the overall finding that students' understanding and recall can be readily shaped by the types of questions to which they become accustomed. Thus, if students receive a steady diet of factual detail questions, they tend, in future encounters with text, to focus their efforts on factual details. They further explained that when students often experience questions that require them to connect information in the text to their knowledge base, they will tend to focus on this more integrative behavior in the future.

f) Scanning

Reading to search for simple or specific information is a common reading ability. As Grabe and Stoller (2002) claim, in reading to search, we typically scan the text for a specific piece of information or a specific word. We search to find key information or either an address or phone number. Scanning involves quickly looking through a text, or surveying it, in order to find specific information. Jordan (1997) also suggests when skimming and scanning, students should be looking at the heavy information words, i.e. content words. Brown (2000) explains scanning as quickly searching for some particular piece or pieces of information in a text. The purpose of scanning is to extract specific information without reading through the whole text.

g) Skimming

Brown (2000) states that skimming consist of quickly running one's eyes across a whole text for its gist. Skimming gives readers the advantage of being able to predict the purpose of the passage, the main topic or message, and possibly some of the developing or supporting ideas. This gives them a head start as they embark on more focused reading. You can train students to skim passages by giving them, say, thirty seconds to look through a few pages of material, close their books, and then tell you what they learned.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) say that reading to skim is a common part of many reading strategies and a useful skill. It involves a combination of strategies for guessing where important information might be in the text and then basic reading comprehension skills on those segments

of the text until a general idea is formed. Jordan (1997) says that skimming involves the quick reading of a text, not every word, in order to understand the gist or main points of a passage.

Grabe (2009) describe that we skim when we want to determine what a text is about and whether or not we want to spend more time reading it. We skim when we want to work through many texts and want to make decisions about which texts to focus more attention on. We skim when we are under intense time pressure and need to reach some decisions about the usefulness of information in a text.

h) Use Semantic Mapping or Clustering

Brown (2000) stresses readers can be overwhelmed by a long string of ideas or events. The strategy semantic mapping helps the reader to provide some order. Making such semantic maps can be done individually, but they make for a productive group work technique as students collectively induce order and hierarchy to a passage.

I. Guess When You Aren't Sure

Brown (2000) recommended that guessing is extremely broad category. Learners can use guessing to their advantage to:

- guess the meaning of a word
- guess a grammatical relationship (e.g. a pronoun reference)
- guess a discourse relationship
- infer implied meaning (between lines)
- guess about a cluster reference
- guess content messages (p.309).

Brown orders that teachers do not have to encourage learners to become haphazard readers. They should utilize all their skills and put forth as much effort as possible to be on target with their hypotheses. The key to successful guessing is to make it reasonably accurate. You can help learners to become accurate guessers by encouraging them to use effective comprehension strategies in which they fill gaps in their competence by intelligent attempts to use whatever clues are available to them.

Jordan (1997) describes some of the reading strategies utilized in reading as follows: prediction, skimming (reading quickly), drawing inferences and conclusion, deducing unknown words, understanding text organization and linguistic/semantic aspects, relationship between and within sentences (e.g. cohesion, recognizing discourse or semantic markers and their function.) Bratmeir (2002, as cited in Thu Nga, 2008) summarizes that reading strategies involve as skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating the main ideas from supporting ideas.

Ad-Heisat (2009) mentions that some reading strategies employed by teachers are pre-reading strategies, while reading and post-reading strategies. With sufficient practice, pre-reading strategies assist students to overcome the common urge to begin reading a text closely right away. These strategies prepare the student for actual reading by activating both linguistic and content schemata. Teacher intervention through instructions is seen as a necessary thing at any of these stages to build background knowledge that students lack by teaching it. While-reading strategies can improve the student's ability especially in the areas of speaking and reading. The while-reading strategies will help them cope with problematic and greyer areas of the text, such as identifying the main ideas of a text. Some examples of while reading strategies are guessing word meanings by using context clues, word formation clues or cognates, scanning and skimming for specific pieces of information, predicting text content, identifying topic sentences that contain the main idea of the paragraph, recognizing connecting ideas via connectors and making conclusions and drawing inferences. Due to the fact that students need different strategies to acquire the proficiency level, while-reading strategies are sometimes difficult to teach and learn so they are considered as challenging strategies. On the other hand, post-reading strategies help students deepen their understanding of the content, build further connections, and expand their prior knowledge of the subject matter. Some examples of post-reading strategies include rereading, evaluating text purpose, confirming predictions, summarizing, reflecting, questioning and connecting materials to one's own life.

Hyland (1995, as cited in Karbalaeei, 2010), identifies that there are many reading strategies employed by successful language learners such as being able to organize information, use

contextual clues and learn how to chunk language. Successful language learners know how to use these strategies efficiently. Hyland further explains that the purposes of reading strategies are to have general knowledge, get specific detail, find the main ideas or themes, learn, remember, summarize and do research. Pani (2004) describes that learners need to be trained to use these strategies to be competent readers. Hosenfeld (1997, as cited in Pang, 2008), points out some examples of good reading strategies are (a) keeping the meaning of the text in mind, (b) reading in broad phrases, (c) skipping inessential words, (d) guessing from context the meaning of unknown words, (e) having a good self-concept as a reader, (f) reading the title and making inferences from it, and (g) continuing if unsuccessful at decoding a word or phrase.

Furthermore, reading strategies can consist of evaluating content, such as agreeing or disagreeing, making an association with prior knowledge or experience, asking and answering questions, looking at the key words, using sentence structure analysis such as determining the subject, verb or object of the sentence, skipping and rereading Almasi (2003, as cited in Nga, 2008). Clearly, not all strategies are of equal effectiveness due to the different types of reading texts and tasks, and reading strategy use by each reader. Brown (1990, as cited in Thu Nga, 2008) provides strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively:

- ❖ Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.
- ❖ Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension, using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure, using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary and content.
- ❖ Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.
- ❖ Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.
- ❖ Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a selection to check comprehension by restarting the information and ideas in the text (p.16).

Anderson (1999) introduces six strategies for consideration when teaching reading: (a) activate prior knowledge (b) cultivate vocabulary (c) teach for comprehension (d) increase reading rate (e) verify reading strategies (f) evaluate progress. Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation. Finally, these strategies appear to be effective since they help language learners enhance the reading ability.

2.12. Reading Strategy Instruction

Bereiter and Bird (1985, as cited in May, 2010) argue that many studies conducted on reading instruction and reading strategies have stressed the effectiveness of RS and the role they play in promoting reading comprehension, and what always led students to don't comprehend texts and be poor readers is the reason that they don't possess knowledge about strategies. Also, they indicated that RSI with a focus on comprehension monitoring, is very effective to help learners overcome their difficulties in reading. Readers will become effective strategy users, through the appropriate application of explicit modeling in reading instruction made by teachers. Readers will be good strategic users through explicit reading instruction, and they will better understand how to use these strategies appropriately. Beckman (2002, as cited in May, 2010) argues that every teacher is involved to describe to the learners the strategy and its purpose, modeling its use and explain how to perform it, giving feedback, promoting the students' ability to use the strategy and encouraging the continuity of using it in the different situation

2.13. Stages of Reading

Grabe (1991, as cited in Rosa, 1999), suggests that the instructional outcome of interactive models of reading is the outcome in terms of a three-phase approach: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading. Zewiers (2010) expresses that if we can get students to build the habit of actively processing text in all three stages, comprehension will improve. Comprehension increases drastically when students develop their pre and post reading habits, which are teachable and need to be taught. We must provide plenty of support during all three stages especially in the rereading stages. Students should rarely "go in cold" to a reading assignment without some kind

of brain warm-up or content preview. Zewiers clarifies the activities teachers go through and the strategies to be used when teaching stages. These are:

During pre-reading activities do the following:

- Introduce focal lesson concepts, important words and terms.
- Provide motivational hooks for reading
- Make connections to prior lesson content, activities and readings.

During reading activities do the following

- Coach students through various stages of reading text
- Model and build reading strategies so they become habits
- Help students to organize and retain the information
- Help build on going assessments of strategy use and comprehension
- Allow for student centered and collaboration learning

During post reading activities do the following

- Model different ways of summarizing and synthesizing information
- Help to organize and retain information
- Allow the students to apply to their own lives
- Help students to reflect on the reading and bring closure to the pre reading and post reading activities.

Brown (2000) recommends that the teacher has to divide his/her techniques in to pre-reading, while reading and after reading phases when teaching reading. Brown argues that as it is tempting at intermediate and advanced levels to tell students “Okay now, class, read the next two pages silently.” No introduction, no hints on any thing special to do while reading, and nary a thought about something to follow the silent reading period. He expresses that a good rubric to keep in mind for teaching reading is the following three part frame work:

- a. Before you read: spend some time introducing a topic, encouraging skimming, scanning, predicting and activating schemata. Students can bring the best of their knowledge and skills to a text when they have been given a chance to ‘ease into’ the passage.

- b. While you read: not all reading is simply extensive or global reading. There may be certain facts or rhetorical devices that students should take note of while they read. Give students a sense of purpose for reading rather than just reading because you ordered it.
- c. After you read: comprehension questions are just one form of activity appropriate for post-reading. Also consider vocabulary study, identifying the author's purpose, discussing the author's line of reasoning, examining grammatical structures, or steering toward a follow-up writing exercise (p.315).

2.14. Types of Reading

When dealing with types of reading, Brown (2004) divides it into four kinds. The four types of reading are perceptive, selective, interactive and extensive reading. The strategies discussed in this paper are applied in different types of reading.

2.14.1. Perceptive Reading: perceptive reading task involve attending to the components of larger stretches of discourse: letters, words, punctuation and other graphic symbols. Bottom-up processing is implied.

2.14.2. Selective Reading: this category is largely an artifact of assessment formats. In order to ascertain one's reading recognition of lexical, grammatical or discourse features of language within a very short stretch of language, certain typical tasks are used: picture cued tasks, matching, true /false ,multiple choice, etc. A combination of bottom-up and top-down processing may be used.

2.14.3. Interactive Reading: included among interactive reading types are stretches of languages of several paragraphs to one page or more in which the reader must, in psycholinguistic sense, interact with the text. That is, reading is a process of negotiating meaning; the reader brings to the text a set of schemata for understanding it, and intake is the product of that interaction. Typical genres that tend themselves to interactive reading are anecdotes, short narratives, descriptions, excerpts from long texts, questionnaires, memos, announcements, directions, and the like. The focus of an interactive task is to identify relevant features (lexical, symbolic, grammatical and discourse) within texts of moderately

short length with objective of retaining the information that is processed. Top down processing is typical of such tasks, although some instances of bottom-up performance may be necessary.

2.14.4. **Extensive Reading:** extensive reading as discussed in Brown, applies to texts of more than a page, up to and including professional articles, essays, technical reports, short stories and books. It should be noted that reading research commonly refers to "extensive reading" as longer stretches of discourse, such as long articles and books that are usually read outside a classroom hour. Top-down processing is assumed for most extensive reading tasks (pp.189-190).

2.15. Approaches of Reading (Models of Reading)

Ahmadi and Hairul (2012, as cited in Gilan and Ismail and Gilakjani, 2012) identify that there are three models of reading: the bottom-up model which emphasizes on the contexts, the top-down model which emphasizes on the readers, and the interactive model which emphasizes that the reading process is guided by an interaction between the text information and the reader's previous knowledge. The following sections discuss each of the models in more details.

2.15.1. Bottom -up Model: Nunan (1991, as cited in Thu Nga, 2009), the bottom-up model reading was viewed as the process of meaning interpretation in which the language is translated from one form of symbolic representation to another. It was also understood as the process of recognizing the printed letters and words and building up a meaning from the smallest textual units at the bottom (letter and words) to larger units at the top (phrases, clauses, inter sentential linkages). In other words, in the bottom-up model, the reader begins with the written text (the bottom) and constructs meaning from letters, words, phrases and sentences found within, and then process the text in a linear fashion. Clearly, in the view of this driven model, the reader seems to play a relatively passive role because the basis of bottom-up processing is the linguistic knowledge of the reader.

Eskey (2005, as cited in Hinkel, 2006) the bottom-up processing of reading involves a broad array of distinct cognitive sub skills, such as word recognition, spelling and phonological processing, and lexical recognition and access. The reader needs to gather visual information

from the written text (e.g., letters and words), identify the meanings of words, and then move forward to the processing of the structure and the meaning of larger syntactic units, such as phrases or sentences.

2.15.2. Top-down Model

Thu Nga (2009) illustrates this model as the process in which readers move from the top, the higher level of mental stages down to the text itself. This approach emphasizes the reconstruction of meaning rather than the decoding of form, the interaction between the reader and the text rather than the graphic forms of the printed pages. The reader proves his active role in the reading process by bringing to the interaction his/ her available knowledge of the subject, knowledge of and expectations about how language works, motivation, interest and attitudes towards the content of the text.

According to Ur (1996), reading means reading and understanding, and according to Anderson (1999), reading is not a passive process but an active fluent process which involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning.

2.15.3. Interactive Model

Eskey (1998) describes that interactive approach is the combination of top -down and bottom-up processing models. Top-down processing is the making of prediction about the text based on the prior experience or back ground knowledge, and then checking the text for confirmation or refutation of those predictions. Bottom-up processing is decoding individual linguistic units (phoneme, graphemes, words) and building textual meaning from the smallest units to the largest and then modifying preexisting background knowledge and current predictions on the basis of information encountered in the text.

Barnet (1989, as cited in Shang, 2010) describes that reading is an interactive process combining top-down and bottom-up processing. As a result, it is very important for students to use appropriate reading strategies to increase their comprehension. So that reading comprehension requires the integration and application of multiple strategies. These are memory, cognitive, comprehension, metcognitive, effective, social and test taking strategies.

Goodman (1970, as cited in Ajideh, 2006) states that theorists have developed interactive theories of reading which place great importance on the role of the reader and the knowledge s/he brings to bear on the text in the reading process.

Macaro (2001) elaborated that successful learners use a combination of top-down processing (thinking about the context of the text and the student's own 'world knowledge') and bottom-up processing (individual words and short phrases, analyzed both for meaning and for clues in the syntax).

2.16. Characteristics of Good Readers

Anderson (1999) argues that effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation. Duke and Pearson (2002) stated that teachers can help students acquire the strategies and processes used by good readers and that this improves their comprehension. A good comprehension instruction includes both explicit instructions in specific comprehension strategies and a great deal of time and opportunity for actual reading. It is not enough just to offer good reading instruction. Several important features of good reading instruction also need to be present. Otherwise, the comprehension instruction will not take hold and flourish. Instruction should be accompanied by lots of experience applying their knowledge and strategies during actual reading; experience reading real texts for real reasons .i.e. to become strong, flexible and devoted comprehenders of text, students need experience reading text with a clear and compelling purpose in mind.

Duke and Pearson (2002, p. 1) express what good readers do when they read as follows:

- From the outset they have clear goals in mind for their reading. They constantly evaluate whether the text, and their reading of it, is meeting their goals.
- Good readers typically look over the text before they read, noting such things as the structure of the text and text sections that might be most relevant to their reading goals.
- As they read, good readers frequently make predictions about what is to come.

- They read selectively, continually making decisions about their reading—what to read carefully, what to read quickly, what not to read, what to reread, and so on
- Good readers construct, revise, and question the meanings they make as they read.
- Good readers try to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words and concepts in the text, and they deal with inconsistencies or gaps as needed.
- They draw from, compare, and integrate their prior knowledge with material in the text.
- They think about the authors of the text, their style, beliefs, intentions, historical milieu, and so on.
- They monitor their understanding of the text, making adjustments in their reading as necessary.
- They evaluate the text's quality and value, and react to the text in a range of ways, both intellectually and emotionally.
- Good readers read different kinds of text differently.
- For good readers, text processing occurs not only during “reading” but also during short breaks taken during reading, even after the “reading” itself has commenced, even after the “reading” has ceased.
- Comprehension is a consuming, continuous, and complex activity, but one that, for good readers, is both satisfying and productive.

2.17. A Model Comprehension Instruction

Macaro (2001) argued that making the learners aware of the existence of strategies and exploring the range of available strategies is not going to bring about successful strategy use and, even more importantly, an appropriate combination of strategy use. Macaro further stated that learners may need to be shown explicitly and repeatedly the strategies which they can try in order to achieve better learning.

To enhance EFL learners' reading comprehension, O'Malley (1985, as cited in Shang, 2010) pointed out that there is a need for teachers to provide more structure in students' reading strategy instruction, so that students can apply the specific strategies for the reading tasks and be critically reflective. Duke and Pearson (2002, p.3) gave the following comprehension model:

- (1) an explicit description of strategy and when and how it should be used. E.g. predicting is making guesses about what will come next in the text you are reading. You should make predictions a lot when you read.
- (2) Teachers and students modeling of the strategy in action. "I am going to make predictions while I read this book. I will start with just the cover here. The title will give me more clues about the book; the title is Owl at Home. So this makes me think even more that this book is going to be about the owl."
- (3) Collaborative reading of the strategy in action. "I have made some good predictions so far in the book. From this part on I want you to make predictions. Each of us should stop and think about what might happen next."
- (4) Guided practice using strategy with gradual release of responsibility. Early on... "I have called the three of you together to work on making predictions while you read this and other books. After every few pages I will ask each of you to stop and make a prediction."
- (5) Independent use of the strategy. "It is time for silent reading. As you read today, remember what we have been working on making predictions while we read. Be sure to make predictions every two or three pages."

Duke and Pearson further explained the above model that throughout these five phases, neither the teacher nor the students lose sight of the need to coordinate or orchestrate comprehension strategies. Strategies are not to be used singly; good readers do not read a book and only make predictions. They further elaborated that although the above model foregrounds a particular strategy at a particular time, other strategies should also be referenced, modeled and encouraged throughout the process.

As it was already discussed in Macaro (2001), research suggests that the successful interpretation of written texts (reading comprehension) is dependent on a number of different strategies and the way these are combined to overcome difficulties in text. Macaro further explained that although

individual readers have their own preferred strategies for understanding a written text, it is in the number, frequency, deployment and combination of strategies that success is to be found as good readers attack the text as a holistic problem to be solved by coming at it from different angles.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter comprises the research design, study population, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, data analysis and procedures.

3.1. Research Design

The preparation of a research design for study helps in establishing directions in which to proceed and in knowing exactly what has to be done at every stage. The research design furnishes a clear idea as to the activities that are effective in helping to decide specific data needs. The research design helps in providing direction to the computation and interpretation process to arrive at solutions and recommendations (Singh, 2008).

Based on the above concept, this study employed a descriptive survey method on the assumption that it helps to examine Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu High schools English language teachers practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL/ELT classes. The method was selected because it is conducive to assess whether the teachers are teaching reading comprehension strategies or not. Thus, the researcher used both qualitative and quantitative research to compensate for the disadvantages that come from using only one type.

3.2. Study Population

The subjects of the study were high school English language teachers. To make the study manageable the researcher have taken samples from two high schools which are found in Oromia regional state, West Wollega Zone, Nole Kaba woreda.

3.3. Sampling Techniques

All English language teachers from the two high schools were taken based on availability sampling technique since the population was small in number. The schools of the study were selected based on convenient sampling technique for two reasons. These are the geographical location of the schools and the researches' familiarity with these areas.

Although the study focuses on teachers in particular, some students from both schools were included in the study to crosscheck teachers' responses. The researcher decided to exclude grade 10 students of both schools (Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu) from the sample for two reasons: they might have been busy working and covering portions since they take national exams not later than two months from the time of data collection. Ruane (2005) stresses that the most basic probability sample is the simple random sample because it helps the researcher construct a good sampling frame. Sigh (2006) also elaborates that a simple random sample is one in which each element of the population has an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample. Accordingly, grade 9 students of both schools (Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu) were included in the study by random sampling technique using lottery method. The schools have 23 grade 9 sections. Therefore, out of these sections, six from Jorgo Nole and two from Ula Babu Eight sections in general were randomly selected based on the number of sections they have. From these sections three students from each class were randomly sampled using lottery method. Then, twenty-four grade 9 students were the sample of the study.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

To obtain qualitative and quantitative data from the samples, questionnaire, observation and interview, and text book analysis were used.

3.4.1. Questionnaire

For this study, close ended questionnaires were administered to collect data from the respondents. As the teachers are English language teachers, it is not necessary to translate the questions into their L1; however, to avoid confusion questionnaires for students were translated to L1. Twenty-four likert scale items were administered both for teachers and students. In order to prepare the questionnaires, the researcher used the theoretical background review for the study and the experience he came across as a high school English language teacher.

3.4.2. Observation

Observation was conducted mainly to check what reading strategies teachers use as well as to identify whether teachers teach reading strategies or not. The observation conducted was structured employing a check list with which to rate the classroom performances and activities. Similar items were used with that of the questionnaires.

Thus, classroom observation was conducted in four sections twice each. In order to do so, a checklist of 22 items which focuses on teachers' classroom practice in line with teaching and making students practice reading comprehension strategies was set. The observation was tallied using yes/no. Therefore, the reading comprehension strategies that were used in reading classes were identified.

3.4.3. Interview

For this research purpose, semi-structured interview was used for its convenience to the research as Nunan (1992) stressed that the semi-structured interview has found favor with many researchers for its flexibility. Nunan explains the advantages as: first it gives the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview. Second it gives the interviewer a great deal of flexibility.

Accordingly, a semi-structured interview was concurrently administered to collect information from four teachers who were randomly selected by using lottery method from the sixteen English language teachers of both schools. Open-ended and closed ended items were used followed by probing questions. Similar contents were used with that of questionnaire and observation to triangulate information.

3.4.4. Content Analysis

Questionnaire and observation were the prominent instruments of the study. Content analysis was used as a tool to assess whether the contents of the students' text books are suitable to teach reading comprehension strategies or not. Therefore, sample reading lessons that were taught (grade 9 unit 5 reading sections) during the observation lessons were analyzed by using checklist (see Appendix G).

3.5. Data Organization and Analysis

A questionnaire was administered to sixteen English language teachers and to crosscheck the information that was obtained through teachers, a questionnaire in L1 was administered to twenty-four grade 9 students sampled from eight sections. The questionnaires were analyzed using descriptive statistic techniques that is by employing five likert scales ranging from 'always' to 'never' about how often teachers make their students practice reading comprehension strategies. Therefore, the analysis was done by giving value 'always=5', 'usually=4' 'sometimes=3', 'rarely=2' and 'never=1'.

Similarly, the items with '5' mean score would imply the most practiced strategies by the respondents and the items with mean score '1' would be the least practiced strategies.

In order to determine the significant difference, the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS version 16) was used. Accordingly, chi-square was employed to indicate if there was significant difference between teachers' and students' responses to the questionnaires provided. Dornyei (2007) stated that significant is measured by a probability coefficient (p), which range from 0 to +1. He made clear that in social science we typically consider a result significant if $p < 0.05$. Thus, 4 degree of freedom at $p < 0.05$, 9.49 critical value was considered to establish level of statistical differences between the responses given by teachers and students.

The researcher used check-lists to gather information through observation and made a tick while each practice occurred by using yes/no and it was analyzed quantitatively. As far as the interview was concerned, important organization was made with English language teachers and the data was also analyzed qualitatively; grade 9 English text book unit 5 reading sections were analyzed by using checklist.

3.6. Research Procedures

The study was carried out at different stages. First, the detail review of literature was made to develop the theoretical background of the study. Next to this, data collection instruments were developed and data were concurrently collected. After the completion of data collection by

means of the above tools, the information gathered was edited, coded, classified, tabulated and computed as frequency, percentage and mean, and discussed accordingly

The researcher used check-lists to gather information through observation and made a tick while each practice occurred by using yes/no. Interview and content analysis were also analyzed qualitatively. Lastly, conclusions and recommendations were drawn.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISSCUSSIONS

This chapter deals with the analysis and discussions of data obtained through teachers' and the students' questionnaires, classroom observation, interview and text book analysis.

4.1. Analysis of Teachers' and Students' Questionnaire, and Investigators' Classroom Observation

4.1.1. Strategies Related to Pre-reading Activities

Table 1: Teachers' and students' responses concerning pre-reading strategies

S. No	Item	Responses										χ^2 value	χ^2 sig level
		subjects	Frequency	Always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never	total	Mean			
1	Teachers teach students the importance of reading comprehension	T	f	2	3	2	6	3	16	2.7	2.441	0.655	
			%	12.5	18.7	12.5	38.5	18.75	100%				
		S	f	2	2	4	7	9	24	2.25			
			%	8.33	8.33	16.7	29.2	37.5	100%				
2	Teachers explicitly teach what reading strategies are, where, when and how to use them	T	f	1	2	4	6	3	16	2.5	1.892	0.756	
			%	6.25	12.5	25	37.5	18.75	100				
		S	f	2	1	6	7	8	24	2.25			
			%	8.33	4.16	25	29.2	33.33	100%				
3	Teachers introduce the purposes of the lessons before reading the text (passage)	T	f	7	4	5	-	-	16	4.1	13.422	0.009	
			%	43.75	25	31.25	-	-	100%				
		S	f	4	2	5	7	6	24	2.75			
			%	16.7	8.33	20.83	29.16	25	100%				

4	Teachers ask students to read the titles and predict what the text is about	T	f	3	10	2	1	-	16	3.9	16.992	0.002
			%	18.75	62.5	12.5	6.25	-	100%			
		S	f	4	3	2	1	14	24	1.8		
			%	16.66	12.5	8.33	4.16	58.33	100%			
5	Teachers teach students how to look at illustrations/pictures to help them relate to the	T	f	3	3	1	5	4	16	2.63	4.047	0.400
			%	18.75	18.75	6.25	31.25	25	100%			
		S	f	2	1	4	10	7	24	1.8		
			%	8.33	4.16	16.66	41.66	29.16	100%			
6	Teachers have the students quickly look over the text before reading	T	f	2	1	4	12	5	16	2.2	9.637	0.47
			%	8.33	4.16	16.7	50	20.8	100%			
		S	f	1	3	4	11	5	24	2.3		
			%	4.16	12.5	16.66	45.83	20.83	100%			
7	Teachers ask students warm-up questions related to the text before reading	T	f	4	8	3	1	-	16	3.88	18.756	0.001
			%	25	50	18.75	6.25	-	100%			
		S	f	2	3	1	5	13	24	2		
			%	8.33	12.5	4.16	20.83	54.16	100%			
8	Teachers ask students to relate the text/topic to their experience/background.	T	f	6	5	3	2	-	16	3.93	11.429	0.022
			%	38.5	31.2	18.75	12.5	-	100%			
		S	f	3	2	4	12	3	24	2.6		
			%	12.5	8.33	16.66	50	12.5	100%			

P<0.05

df=4

T= Teachers S= Students f= Frequency %= percentage

Regarding item1, 31.25% of the teachers replied that they always and usually teach the importance of reading comprehension strategies to their students; 12.5% of them said that they sometimes teach its importance while 57.2% of the respondents showed that they rarely and never teach the importance of reading compression strategies to their students. The mean value of teachers' response for this item which is 2.7 indicates that they sometimes teach the importance of reading comprehension strategies. With respect to students' response to this item, 16.66% of them replied that teachers always and usually teach them the importance of reading comprehension strategies, 16.66 sometimes; however, 66.7% of the respondents argued that teachers rarely and never do so. The mean value of students' response is 2.25, which incline to the idea that teachers rarely teach the importance of teaching reading comprehension strategies. The chi-square test depicted that there is no significant opinion difference between teachers' and students' response since the computed chi-square value, ($\chi^2=2.44$, $p>0.5$, that is 0.655). This is to mean that teachers do not teach the importance of reading comprehension strategies. This shows that students have not yet realized the importance of reading strategies in reading. But knowing the importance of reading strategy is very essential for students. In order to encourage students to use reading comprehension strategies, teachers should raise the awareness of their students by teaching its importance. Thus, the responses of both teachers and students to item 1 depicted that teachers fail to teach their students the importance of reading comprehension strategies.

As indicated in table 1, item 2 which focuses on explicit teaching of where, when and how to use reading comprehension strategies, 18.75% of the teachers reported that they always and usually teach explicitly, 25% some times and 56.25% of the respondents replied that they rarely and never explicitly teach where, when and how to use reading comprehension strategies. The mean score of teachers' response to this item is 2.5 which means sometimes. On the other hand, only 12.49% of the students said that their teachers always and usually teach them where, when and how to use reading comprehension strategies explicitly; 25% of them claimed that teachers sometimes do it whereas 62.53% of the students replied that their teachers rarely and never do so. The mean value of students' response to this item is 2.25 which is near to rarely. The result of the chi-square also shows that there is no significant difference between teachers' and students' responses ($\chi^2=1.892$, $p>0.05$, that is 0.756).

Therefore, teachers' and students' responses to this item in general indicated that the practices of explicit teaching of where, when and how to use reading comprehension strategies is rare in the actual classroom teaching. Regarding this item, Oxford (1990) argued that strategy instruction should be explicit that "how to" use the strategies. She explained that the goals of explicit strategy instructions are to help make language learning more meaningful and to learn and practice strategies that facilitate self-reliance. Strategy instruction should not be abstract and theoretical but it should be highly practical and useful for students. Therefore, it could be logical to conclude that teachers are not in a position to give instruction about the importance of reading comprehension strategies. Besides this, teaching students 'where' and 'when' to use strategies is very essential.

Regarding item 3, 68.75% of the teachers said that they always and usually introduce the purposes of the passage before reading the text while 31.25% of the respondents indicated that they sometimes introduce the purposes of the lesson to their students before reading the text. The mean value is 4.1 which shows that they always introduce the purposes. On the other hand, only 25% of the students reported that teachers always and usually introduce the purposes before reading; 20.83% replied some times while more than half of the students 54.16% of them argued that teachers rarely and never do so. Concerning this item, the classroom observation revealed that teachers do not introduce the purposes of the reading passage. The researcher observed from the actual classroom observations that teachers write the topic of the passage on the blackboard and assigns the students to silent reading followed by detail explanation of new words in the reading passage.

This means that as can be seen from the table, the majority of the teachers claimed that they introduce the purposes of reading passage most of the time. Contrary to this, the students' responses and the results from the actual classroom observation indicated that teachers do not introduce the purposes/objectives of reading passages before reading the text. In other words, there is significant difference between teachers and students responses for that the chi-square for this response is $\chi^2=13.422$, $p<0.05$ that is 0.009. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that

teachers assign their students to reading texts without providing the purposes/objectives of the reading passage.

Regarding this point, Brown (2000) explains that efficient reading consists of clearly identifying the purposes in reading something. He further states that by identifying the purposes, the reader knows what he/she is looking for and can weed out potential distracting information. Brown clearly indicates that whenever a teacher is teaching reading technique, he/she has to make sure students know their purposes in reading something.

Item 4 focused on finding out whether teachers let students look at titles to predict what the text is about. 18.75% of the teachers said that they let students read the titles of the passage to predict what the text is about and more than half (62.5%) of the teachers reported that they usually do so but only 18.75% of them responded that they engage their students in such kind of activity rarely and never at all. On the other hand, the responses given by the students contradict with that of the teachers'. That is, only 16.66% and 12.5 % of the students said that teachers respectively always and usually engage them in reading titles to predict from topics, 8.33% of them reported that their teachers sometimes do it while majority (62.49%) of the students confirmed that teachers rarely and never perform the activity in the real classroom presentation. Concerning this item, the mean value of the students' response is 1.8 which shows that the activity is rarely practiced in the real classroom. Likewise, the classroom observation revealed that almost all the teachers under observation did not encourage learners to look at topics to predict what the text is about. During the observation sessions, the researcher saw that teachers were directly assigning students to read the passage without any pre-reading activity. Concerning this item, the classroom observation depicted that students were not seen exercising this strategy as the teachers did not ask them to do so. Therefore, teachers were not observed implementing this strategy in classroom at all.

The teachers' responses to this item that means more than half of the respondents (62.5%) with the mean score of 3.9 (which indicates the activity is practiced nearly always) claim that they assign their students to see at topics in order to predict what the text is about. However, the data from students (1.8 mean score indicating the strategy is rarely exercised) contradicts with that of

teachers' response. In addition to this, the chi-square also indicates that there is significant difference between teachers and students responses in that $\chi^2=16.992$, $p< 0.05$ (that is 0.002).

Therefore, based on the data it is safe to conclude that teachers are not exposing their students to such an activity.

In relation to this concept, Oxford (1990) stated that prediction refers to the technique of using the readers' prior knowledge to guess the message of the text from the topics, key words, or constructions. She further explained that it is one of the most effective factors that motivate students to read and understand the meaning of the context.

Item 5 was designed to investigate whether teachers teach students how to look at illustrations/pictures to help students relate to the text. In relation to this item, 37.5% of the respondents replied that they always and usually teach students to relate pictures/illustrations to the text. While 6.25% of the respondents replied that they teach the strategy sometimes. However, 56.25% of the teachers responded that they rarely and never teach how to look at pictures in order to relate to the text. Likewise, the data obtained from the students, 12.49% of the respondents depicted that teachers teach this strategy always and usually; 16.66% stated that teachers sometimes let students practice this activity. However, 70.82% of the respondents argued that teachers rarely and never teach to use and how to use pictures/illustrations to think about the message of the text. There is similarity between the responses of teachers' and students' as the result of the chi-square also indicates that there is no opinion difference for that $\chi^2 = 4.047$, $p>0.05$ that is 0.400. This reveals that teachers are not accustomed to make their students practice this strategy in reading lesson presentation.

The classroom observation also depicted that in all of the observed classes teachers were never seen encouraging their students to apply this strategy. Even though majority of the reading sections that had been taught during classroom observations include pictures at the beginning of the reading passages, the teachers didn't draw the students' attention to these pictures. Therefore, teachers were never seen exposing their students to this strategy in the classroom. This implies

that the students did not get opportunity to practice the strategy. Generally, it is possible to conclude that teachers do not make the students deal with this strategy.

Item 6 was intended to assess whether teachers have students quickly look over the text before reading. With respect to this request, 12.49% of the teachers replied that they always and usually make students look over texts quickly before reading, 16.7% of the respondents depicted that they sometimes let their students practice this strategy, while the remaining 70.8% of the teachers rarely and never assign their students to do so. As it is indicated in the table, the mean value of teachers' response to this item is 2.2 which show nearly rarely. The data gathered from students revealed that the strategy hardly appears in the actual classroom presentation. This is to mean that only 16.66% of the students responded that teachers always and usually incorporate this strategy in reading lesson; and 16.66% of them said sometimes while 67.66% of the students claimed that teachers rarely and never do so. The mean value of students' response regarding this item is 2.3 which tend to rarely. The data as a general indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between teachers' and students responses since the result of chi-square ($\chi^2 = 9.637, p > 0.05$ that is 0.47). This is because teachers and students claimed that they never perform the activity in the reading lesson presentation.

Similar to the students' responses, the data obtained from classroom observation revealed that almost all teachers whose reading lesson presentations were observed never exposed the students to this strategy. That is, the researcher observed while the teachers assign their students to read the text without the application of this strategy.

As it is possible to infer from the table, the majority (70%) of the teachers admitted that they never and rarely teach and make their students practice this strategy. Likewise, more than half (67.66%) of the students and the classroom observation depicted that the teachers rarely and never expose the students to the above mentioned strategy. Therefore, as it is clearly shown in the teachers' and students' responses as well as the classroom observation, it is reasonable to conclude that the teachers are not encouraging their students to exercise the above mentioned strategy.

As can be seen from the above table, item 7 inquired whether the teachers ask students warm-up questions related to the text before reading. Accordingly, 75% of the respondents (teachers) argued that they always and usually ask warm-up questions before reading, while 18.75% and 6.25% of the teachers respectively said that they sometimes and rarely perform the activity. The mean value of teachers' response is 3.88 which indicate the activity is performed almost usually. On the other hand, the information obtained from students contradicts with that of teachers. That is, only 8.33% and 12.5% of the respondents stated that teachers respectively always and usually ask their students warm-up questions; and 4.16% of the respondents expressed that they sometimes do so. However, majority (54.16%) of the students responded that teachers do not do it at all. The mean value of students' response is 2 which also indicate the activity is only practiced rarely. The computed chi-square also shows that there is significant difference between teachers' and students' opinion since $\chi^2 = 18.756$ at $p < 0.05$ that is 0.001).

In addition to the students' response, the data obtained from classroom observation shows that there is no actual practice of this strategy in the classroom. That is the teachers had not raised any topic concerning warming the students up to initiate the students actively participate in doing tasks.

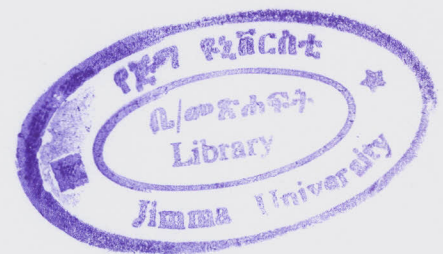
The result obtained from the above table as well as classroom observation demonstrates that teachers are not actually teaching and making their students practice pre-reading activities. Concerning this point, Brown (2000) recommends that teachers should spend some time introducing a topic, encouraging predicting and activating schemata. He further explains that students can bring the best of their knowledge and skills to a text when they have been given a chance to ease into the passage.

Item 8 was intended to request if teachers ask their students to relate the text/the topic to their experiences/backgrounds. Accordingly, majority (69.75%) of the teachers replied that they always and usually assign their students to relate the topic/text to their backgrounds and 18.75% of them reported that they sometimes do so, while only 12.5% stated that they rarely ask their students to practice this activity. The mean value which is 3.99 also proves that teachers engage their students in such an activity usually. However, the students' response disagrees with that of

0043655/1001

the teachers. That is, 20.83% of the students reported that teachers always and usually do so while 16.66% pointed out that they sometimes do it. Whereas, more than half (62.5%) of the students responded that teachers rarely and never assign their students to do such like activity. The result of chi-square also indicates that there is significant difference between teachers' and students' opinion as $\chi^2 = 11.429$, $P < 0.05$ that is 0.022). This clearly shows that teachers are not teaching as well as encouraging their students to bring their background knowledge/experience when dealing with reading passages. This is also supported by classroom observation that revealed the absence of this practice in the actual reading class presentation.

Therefore, even though the majority of the teachers tried to claim that they are dealing with this activity, the students' response and classroom observation revealed that the strategy is not applied.



4.1.2. Strategies Related to While-Reading Activities

Table 2: Teachers' and students' responses concerning while-reading strategies

S. No	Items	Responses										
		Subjects	Frequency and %	Always(5)	Usually (4)	Sometimes(3)	Rarely(2)	Never(1)	total	Mean	χ^2 value	χ^2 sig level
9	Teachers teach all the new vocabulary in the text.	T	f	7	6	2	1	-	16	4.1	4.293	0.368
			%	43.75	38.5	12.5	6.25	-	100			
		S	f	16	3	3	1	1	24	4.33		
			%	66.67	18.75	18.75	4.66	4.66	100			
10	Teachers teach students how to scan specific information	T	f	8	5	3	-	-	16	4.3	0.995	0.802
			%	50	31.25	18.75	-	-	100			
		S	f	10	7	6	1	-	24	3.2		
			%	41.66	29.16	25	4.16	-	100			
11	Teachers teach students how to skim the general idea of the text	T	f	11	4	1	-	-	16	4.38	1.173	0.759
			%	68.75	25	6.25	-	-	100			
		S	f	15	5	3	1	-	24	3.8		
			%	62.5	20.83	12.5	4.16	-	100			
12	Teachers teach students how to guess the meaning of unknown words.	T	f	12	4	-	-	-	16	4.75	29.524	0.00
			%	75	25	-	-	-	100			
		S	f	2	1	4	12	5	24	2.2		
			%	8.33	4.16	16.7	50	20.8	100			
13	Teachers ask students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words	T	f	1	9	6	-	-	16	3.7	17.3	0.00
			%	6.25	56.25	38.5	-	-	100			
		S	f	2	4	3	11	4	24	2.6		
			%	8.33	16.7	12.5	45.5	16.7	100			
14	Teachers teach how to distinguish general statements from specific details	T	f	2	7	4	2	1	16	3.25	10.913	0.28
			%	12.5	25	43.75	12.5	6.25	100			
		S	f	2	3	2	12	5	24	2.4		
			%	8.33	12.5	8.33	50	20.83	100			

15	Teachers teach semantic mapping or clustering strategy to provide some order	T	f	1	2	4	8	1	16	2.6	16.63 4	0.002
			%	6.25	12.5	25	50	6.5	100	7		
		S	f	-	3	1	4	16	24	1.6 2		
			%	-	18.75	6.25	66.6 6	16.6 6	100			
16	Teachers ask students to try to visualize what they read.	T	f	2	3	4	7	-	16	3	4.542	0.338
			%	12.5	18.75	25	43.7 5	-	100			
		S	f	1	2	5	12	4	24	2.3 3		
			%	4.16	8.33	20.83	50	16.6 6	100			
17	Teachers tell students to make guesses about upcoming information in the text	T	f	2	1	5	8	-	16	2.5 6	6.171	0.187
			%	12.5	6.25	31.25	50	-	100			
		S	f	-	2	5	13	4	24	1.7 9		
			%	-	8.33	20.83	54.1 6	16.6 6	100			

*P<0.05 df=4

Item 9 was intended to identify whether teachers teach all the new words in the reading passage or they use vocabulary teaching strategies. To this item, 43.75% and 38.5% of the teachers' respondents respectively said that they always and usually teach the new vocabularies in the reading passage, while 12.5% of the respondents teach sometimes and the remaining 6.25% argued that they rarely do so. Furthermore, the total mean value for this item is 4.1 which imply that all teachers teach new words in the reading passage with out applying strategies to guess the meaning of new words. In response to this item, 66.67% of the students said that their teachers always teach them all the new vocabularies in the reading passage while 18.75% pointed out that their teachers teach them all the new vocabularies in the reading passage usually, 18.75% claimed that teachers sometimes do so but the remaining 9.32% of the students replied that teachers rarely and never teach the meanings of new words based on dictionary meaning. When we consider the result of chi-square, it reveals that there is no significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses as ($\chi^2=4.293$, $p>0.05$ that is 0.368). This shows that teachers teach new words without applying vocabulary teaching strategies.

What the researcher observed from the actual classroom presentation is that almost all of the teachers under observation taught all new words in the reading passage. After students read the text once, teachers write all new words on the blackboard and explain its meaning one by one in detail. As a result, teachers take much time discussing the meaning of words without letting the students guess the new words using vocabulary learning strategies/techniques.

Therefore, based on the data obtained through teachers' and students' questionnaire as well as the classroom observation, it is possible to generalize that the way teachers teach vocabulary is not appropriate. Teachers should take into account the necessary vocabulary teaching strategies. With regard to this item, Brown (2000) points out some techniques/comprehension strategies by which teachers should teach new words/vocabularies. These are language based clues and non-linguistic clues. Language based clues include word analysis, word association and textual structure. On the other hand, non-linguistic clues include context, situation and other schemata.

Item 10 was intended to ask if teachers teach their students how to scan for specific information. Teachers responded to this question in the following manner: 50% of the teachers replied that they always teach the way to scan for specific information while 31.25% responded that they usually make the learners practice the strategy; but 18% of the respondents replied that they only sometimes let their students practice the strategy. Likewise, 70.82% of the students stated that their teachers always and usually teach them the way to exercise scanning for specific information and 25% complained that teachers sometimes do so. The remaining 4.16% disclosed that the strategy is never practiced in the actual classroom. The total mean value of the students' response is 3.2 which show that the activity is usually practiced. There is no statistically significant difference between teachers' and students' responses as the chi-square ($\chi^2=0.995$, $p>0.05$ that is 0.802). This could mean that teachers let their students practice this strategy.

The classroom observation also confirmed that teachers usually teach this strategy in classroom though there are some problems like wasting time practicing on specific items and discussing the items to be scanned in detail.

As can be inferred from Table 2, the teachers' and the students' responses to this item indicated that English language teachers always and usually teach, and engage their students in the practice of scanning strategy. This implies that based on the evidence gained through teachers' and students' questionnaire as well as classroom observations, it seems reasonable to conclude that teachers usually engage students in this kind of reading strategy.

Item 11 was designed to ask whether teachers teach skimming strategy to their students or not. Accordingly, 68.75% and 25% of the teachers respectively responded that they always and usually teach the strategy to their students while the remaining 6.25% of the respondents responded that they only deal with this strategy sometimes. As it is already indicated in Table 2, the total mean is 4.38 which show teachers always deal with this strategy. Likewise, the responses given by the students indicated similar idea. That is 62.5% of the students reported that teachers always let them practice the activity in the classroom. In addition, 20.83% of the respondents responded that the strategy is usually exercised while 12.5% of the students pointed out that the strategy appears sometimes in the actual classroom presentation. The remaining 4.16% disclosed that teachers rarely carry out this activity. As can be inferred from data, there is a similarity between teachers' and students' responses that teachers are usually dealing with this strategy. In other words, there is no statistically significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses as the chi-square result ($\chi^2 = 1.173$, $P > 0.05$ that is 0.759).

Regarding the same item, the data obtained from the classroom observation likewise reveals similar idea with that of teachers' and students' responses. Throughout the observed sections, the researcher observed that majority of the teachers had been providing the opportunity to the students in order to practice skimming strategy. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that teachers are teaching and encouraging their students in order to practice skimming strategy.

Item 12 is concerned with teaching how to guess the meaning of unknown words in the reading passage. 43.75% and 31.25% of the teachers answered that they respectively always and usually deal with the strategy while only 25% of the respondents replied that they teach it sometimes. The mean of this item is 4.1 which indicates that the activity occurs nearly always in reading

lesson presentation. However, the information that was provided by students contradicts with that of the teachers. Only 25.45% of the students responded that teachers teach this strategy always and usually while 16.7% said that teachers sometimes teach how to guess the meaning of unknown/new words. The majority (50% and 20.8%) of the students replied that their teachers respectively rarely and never apply the strategy in the classroom.

The result of the chi-square test also depicted that there is a significant difference between the respondents' responses since the computed chi-square value ($\chi^2=29.524$, $p<0.05$ that is 0.00). Therefore, there is contradiction between the responses of teachers and students. That is majority (75%) of the teachers claimed that they always and usually teach how to guess the meaning of new words and let their students practice this strategy. However, more than half (70.8%) of the students replied that their teachers rarely and never do so.

Similar to the students' responses, the result obtained from classroom observation also clearly demonstrated that almost all of the teachers do not engage their students in this activity. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that teachers never provided such an opportunity to their students.

Item 13 was designed to ask if teachers encourage students to practice guessing new words in reading comprehension. Accordingly, 6.25% and 56.25% of the teachers respectively said that they always and usually let their students practice guessing the meaning of new words while 38.5% of the respondents said that they sometimes encourage their students to be involved in the activity. The mean value of the teachers' response is 3.7 which indicate that teachers usually engage students in order to practice this strategy. When we come to the students' response, only 8.33% and 16.7% of them respectively replied that teachers always and usually draw students' attention to the practice of this strategy while 12.5% of them said that teachers engage them in the activity sometimes. However, 45.83% of the students disclosed that teachers rarely draw them to exercise the strategy and 16.7% of the respondents disclosed that teachers never expose them to such an activity. The result of the chi-square also indicates that there is a significant difference between teachers' and students' responses as $\chi^2 = 17.350$, which is > 9.484 , $p < 0.05$

that is 0.002. This shows that teachers do not make their students exercise vocabulary learning strategies.

The classroom observation also contradicts with that of teachers' responses. During the classroom observation, the researcher observed the teachers while they were teaching the meaning of words and sometimes translating into the students' L1 rather than assigning the students to guess the meaning of new words by using context clues (vocabulary learning strategies).

Even though majority of the teachers complained that they are dealing well with item 12 and 13, (about teaching how to guess and its practice) the result obtained from students response and classroom observation depicted that teachers rarely teach and help their students practice guessing strategy towards new words in reading comprehension. As a result, it is possible to conclude that the way teachers teach new words which set from reading passage is not appropriate. This, in turn, resulted in to the lacking of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom.

Concerning vocabulary learning strategies, Grabe (2009) explains that guessing words from context represents an important way for learners to cope with difficult texts. This scholar depicts that to help students develop guessing skill appropriately, students need to practice and analyze guessing from context in texts that they are reading, recognize clues that may be useful (discourse making words, punctuation, word-part, part of speech, examples and descriptions, and be encouraged by teachers to become more aware of new words).

Item 14 was intended to assess whether teachers teach how to distinguish general statements from specific details or not. Accordingly, 12.5% and 25% of teachers replied that they respectively teach how to identify general statements from specific details always and usually, 43.75% sometimes, 12.5% rarely and the remaining 6.25% reported that they never make their students practice the strategy. For this item, the mean value of teachers' response is 3.25 which incline to sometimes. The students' responses to the same item contrasts to the responses given by teachers. That is 8.33% and 12.5% of the students replied that their teachers teach this

strategy respectively always and usually, 8.33% sometimes while 50% of the students responded that teachers rarely encourage the application of this strategy in the actual classroom and the remaining 20.83% claimed that teachers never focus on such activity. Similar to students' response, classroom observation also indicates the rare performance of this strategy. That is, teachers were not observed teaching how to identify general statements from specific statements and they engage their students in such like activities. The chi-square result indicates that there is significant difference between teachers' and students' responses ($\chi^2=10.913$ which is, $P<0.05$ that is 0.028).

Therefore, this indicates that more than half of the teachers' reported as if they were sometimes teaching their students how to distinguish general statements (the statements that carry the main ideas of the text) from specific statements; however, the information obtained from students' response and classroom observation indicated that teachers rarely do so. Therefore, based on the students' responses and classroom observation it can be safely to generalize that teachers are not teaching how to identify general statements from specific statements, and students are not being encouraged to practice this activity.

Item 15 was designed to find out teachers practice regarding teaching semantic mapping/clustering strategy. As it can be seen from the table, 18.75% of the teachers replied that they always and usually teach/let their students practice the strategy, 25% sometimes and majority of the teachers (50%) expressed that they rarely do so and 6.5% of the teachers replied they never let their students practice the activity. Students' responses regarding this item was that 18.75% responded that their teachers usually teach them the strategy, while 66.66% and 16.66% respectively replied that they rarely and never perform the activity. The mean value of students' response is 1.62. This indicates the absence of teaching semantic mapping/ clustering strategy practice in the reading lesson presentation. The chi-square analysis also reveals that there is significant difference between teachers' and students responses as the chi-square ($\chi^2 = 16.634$, $p < 0.05$ that is 0.002). This means both group of respondents pointed out that teachers are not applying this strategy in the classroom. In the same way, classroom observation result also agrees with what teachers and students responded. Teachers were not seen applying this strategy

in the real classroom presentation. As a result, it is possible to conclude that the strategy is rarely practiced in the classroom.

Item 16 was intended to assess if teachers assign their students to visualize what they read. Accordingly, 12.5% and 18.75% of the teachers respectively replied that they always and usually assign their students to visualize what they read while 25% of them responded that they sometimes draw the attention of their students to practice this strategy. However, 43.75% of the teachers indicated that they rarely do so. The mean value of the teachers' response is 3 which incline to sometimes. In response to the same item, 4.16% and 8.33% of the students said that their teachers respectively always and usually assign them to practice visualizing what they read while 20.83% of them indicated that teachers sometimes engage them to do so. However, half (50%) of the respondents responded that teachers rarely assign them to visualize what they read, the remaining 16% disclosed that teachers never do so. The total mean of students' response to this item is 2.33 which indicate the practice is near to rare. The chi-square result $\chi^2=4.452$ $p>0.05$, that is 0.338 shows that there is no significant difference between teachers' and students' responses. This indicates that the application of the strategy is rare.

The classroom observation also indicated that the strategy was not applied in the reading classes. This means in the actual classroom observation, teachers were not seen while they were engaging their students in such activities.

As it can be inferred from the data, there is similarity between the teachers' and the students' responses that teachers rarely let their students practice this strategy. Likewise, the result of the classroom observation indicates similar idea. Therefore, it is possible to generalize that the activity is absent in the reading lessons presentation.

Item 17 was intended to investigate if teachers make their students guess/predict up-coming information in reading texts. As can be seen in the table, 12.5% and 6.25% of teachers revealed that they respectively always and usually assign their students the tasks of guessing what is next, 31.25% sometimes and the remaining 50% of the teachers responded that they rarely let their students practice this strategy. The mean value of teachers' response is 2.56 which indicates sometimes. In the same manner, 8.33% and 20.83% of the students responded that teachers respectively usually and sometimes encourage the application of the strategy in the classroom while 54.16% rarely 16.66 % never do so. The mean value (which is 1.79) of the students response indicates the activity is rarely practiced.

The chi-square result depicts that there is no significant difference between teachers' and students' responses as $\chi^2=6.171$, $p>0.05$ that is 0.187. This could mean that the teachers do not let their students predict up-coming information. Similar to the teachers' and students' responses, the classroom observation also reveals that there is almost no such practice in the real classroom presentations. As a result, it is possible to generalize that teachers do not involve their students much in the practice of this strategy.

4.1.3. Strategies related to Post-Reading Activities

Table 3: Teachers' and students' responses concerning Post-reading strategies

S. No	Items	Responses										χ^2 value	χ^2 Sig. level
		Subjects	Frequency and %	Always(5)	Usually(4)	Sometimes(3)	Rarely(2)	Never(1)	Total	Mean			
18	Teaches students how to summarize texts	T	f	4	9	2	1	-	16	4	18.61	0.001	
			%	25	56.25	12.5	6.2	-	100				
		S	f	1	3	4	3	13	24	1.9			
			%	4.16	12.5	16.66	12.	54.1	100				
19	Teachers ask comprehension questions about the text	T	f	9	5	2	-	-	16	4.3	11.980	0.007	
			%	56.25	31.25	12.5	-	-	100				
		S	f	4	4	13	3	-	24	3.4			
			%	16.66	16.66	56.16	12.5	-	100				

20	Teachers ask students to draw conclusions about the text they have read.	T	f	3	7	1	5	-	16	3.5	17.014	0.002
			%	18.75	43.75	6.25	31.25	-	100			
		S	f	-	3	1	7	13	24	1.75		
			%	-	12.5	6.25	33.33	54.16	100			
21	Teachers provide different practice opportunities with multiple reading comprehension strategies	T	f	1	2	2	9	2	16	2.4	1.730	0.785
			%	6.25	12.5	12.5	56.25	12.5	100			
		S	f	-	4	3	2	15	24	1.75		
			%	-	16.66	12.5	8.33	62.5	100			
22	Teachers sometimes prepare model texts to teach students multiple strategies	T	f	-	8	2	5	1	16	3.3	12.612	0.013
			%	-	50	12.5	31.25	6.25	100			
		S	f	2	1	3	14	4	24	2.4		
			%	8.33	4.16	25	58.33	12.5	100			
23	Teachers teach students to evaluate their own strategy use	T	f	-	8	3	5	-	16	3.1	19.957	0.001
			%	-	50	18.75	31.25	-	100			
		S	f	1	3	2	2	16	24	1.79		
			%	6.16	12.5	8.33	8.33	66.66	100			
24	Teachers assign students to do tasks using the strategies they teach them.	T	f	9	5	1	1	-	16	4.3	18.368	0.001
			%	56.25	31.25	6.25	6.25	-	100			
		S	f	2	3	3	2	14	24	2		
			%	8.33	12.5	12.5	8.33	58.33	100			

*P<0.05 df=1

Regarding item 18, teachers were requested to reply if they teach how to summarize text (summary strategy). Concerning this item, 81.25% of the teachers responded that they always and usually teach the strategy to their students while 12.5% of them responded that they teach summary strategy sometimes, the remaining 6.25% of the respondents reported that they rarely do so. The mean value of teachers' response is 4 which indicate that the activity is exercised usually. Contrary to the responses of the teachers, 16.66% of the students said that their teachers always and usually teach them the way to summarize texts, while 16.66% complained teachers sometimes do so; however, 66.66% of the respondents argued that teachers rarely and never teach it. The chi-square result also indicates that there is significant difference between teachers' and students' responses since $\chi^2=18.611$, $p<0.05$ that is 0.001. The difference could indicate that teachers seemed to respond to the item as if they were employing the strategy.

Similar to the students' response, the classroom observation clearly indicates that summary strategy hardly appears in the reading lesson presentation. In line with this, during classroom observation teachers were never observed encouraging their students practice this strategy.

Although majority of the teachers tried to report that they usually teach the way to summarize texts (summary strategy), the information obtained from students and classroom observation depicted that English language teachers do not let their students practice the strategy in the classroom. As a result, based on the data obtained from students' response and classroom observation, it can be safely generalized that the teachers are not engaging their students in the aforementioned strategy.

Teachers' response concerning item 19 shows that 56.25%, 31.25% and 12.5% of them respectively said that they always, usually and sometimes ask their students comprehension questions with the total mean value of 4.3 which indicates that the activity is practiced almost always. Whereas 33.32% of the students responded that their teachers always and usually assign them to do comprehension questions, the majority (56.16%) indicated that teachers sometimes do so. The remaining 12.5% argued that the practice rarely appears in the actual classroom presentations. The total mean value of the students' response which is 3.4 reveals that teachers usually engage their students in doing comprehension questions. In the same way, classroom

observation confirmed that the strategy is seen in action though it is not integrated with other strategies. To sum up, there is significant difference between teachers' and students' responses since $\chi^2=11.980$, $p<0.05$ that is 0.007.

The result of the classroom observation also indicates that the strategy is sometimes observed in action. Thus, this shows that teachers sometimes encourage their students to do questions set form reading passages (comprehension questions) though it is not incorporated with other reading comprehension strategies.

Regarding item 20, that inquired whether teachers ask their students to draw conclusions or not, 18.75% and 43.75% of the teachers responded that they respectively always and usually teach/assign students to draw conclusions after reading while 6.25% said that they do it sometimes and the remaining 31.25% of them reported that they rarely do so. On the other hand, 12.5% and 6.5% of the students said that teachers apply this strategy while 6.33% and 54.16% of them argued that their teachers ask/assign them in order to practice the above mentioned strategy. The data indicates that there is significant difference between teachers' and students' responses in that chi-square ($\chi^2=17.014$, $p<0.05$ that is 0.002).

The result of classroom observation confirmed that teachers failed to put the strategy (drawing conclusion) in to practice. That is, teachers were not seen encouraging their students to practice the strategy in the actual classroom presentation.

Even though some of the teachers claimed that they usually assign/ask their students to draw conclusion about the text they read, the evidence from students and the actual classroom observation reveals that teachers do not do so.

In general, based on the data from the students' responses and classroom observation it is reasonable to generalize that the strategy is hardly practiced in the reading lesson presentation.

Item 21 was intended to identify if teachers provide different practice opportunities with multiple reading comprehension strategies to their students. Concerning this, 18.75% of the teachers

responded that they provide it always, 12.5% said that they sometimes do while more than half of the respondents (68.75%) expressed that they rarely and never provide the opportunity to the students. The mean value of this item is 2.4 which incline to rarely. The responses of the students to this request are almost the same as that of teachers. That is, 16.66% of them reported that their teachers usually come to classroom with texts incorporating multiple reading comprehension strategies to provide practice opportunities to their students; and 12.5% said that teachers sometimes do so. However, 54.16% and 16.66% of the students complained that teachers respectively rarely and never give chance to their students to practice texts which include multiple reading comprehension strategy. The mean value of students' response to this item is 2.4 which incline to rarely. The result of the chi-square shows that there is no significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses as $\chi^2=1.730$, $p>0.05$ that is 0.785. This could mean that both teachers and students admitted the rare application of the strategy in the actual classroom of reading lesson presentation.

In addition, the researcher observed that teachers never provided reading passages which integrate multiple reading comprehension strategies. In general, the response given reveals that this activity is hardly exercised.

Concerning multiple reading comprehension strategies, Grabe (2009) elaborates that specific strategies should be introduced and practiced, one at a time, gradually building up to a repertoire of 10 to 15 effective strategies over the course of a semester or a year. Grabe further explains that every strategy, once introduced and practiced, must be recycled consistently and often usually in combination with other strategy as part of pre-, during and post reading activities. On the other hand, Grenfell and Harris (1999) argued that it is unrealistic to assume that simply telling students about possible fruitful strategies will ensure that these pass into their repertoire and can be drawn on automatically. They recommended that explicit instruction to use the reading strategies will be necessary alongside a number of tasks and materials likely to promote them.

Item 22 was aimed to assess whether teachers sometimes provide model texts or not. 50% of the teachers said that they usually present model texts in order to help students practice different reading comprehension strategies, 12.5% of them present some times, 31.25% and 6.25 % respectively rarely and never do so. The mean value of teachers' response for this item is 3.37 which incline to sometimes. When we see the data obtained from teachers, it shows that they usually provide model texts to the classroom. However, when we see the students' response 8.33%, 25% and 4.16% of the respondents respectively responded always, usually and sometimes. But majority of the students (58.33%) argued that their teachers rarely present such like activity and 12.5% of them disclosed that teachers never do so. There is also statistically significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses as $\chi^2=12.612$, $p<0.05$ that is 0.013.

This could be because the data from the students disproves the teachers' claim that they tried to conceal their actual reading lesson presentation practice.

The classroom observation also showed that the same result to that of the students' response. That means teachers were not observed presenting model texts to their students. The result from the teachers' interview also agrees with that of students' responses and classroom observation.

As indicated in table 2, a higher percentage of teachers (50%) indicated that they usually provide model texts to their students in order to practice various reading comprehension strategies. However, majority of the students reported that their teachers rarely do so. Therefore, based on the students' response, the result of classroom observation and teachers' interview, it is logical to conclude that the strategy rarely to exist in the sample schools.

Regarding this item, Trabosso and Boochard (2002, as cited in Grabe, 2009) state that to teach comprehension strategies teachers have to know what comprehension strategy can be utilized by reader, and how to teach this strategy through explanation, demonstration, modeling and interactive technique. Gilani, Ismail and Gilatjani (20012) stated that improving readers' strategic reading is not simply a matter of introducing them to a number of reading strategies, but developing mastery of the comprehension strategies involves teachers' constant modeling and

instant feedback for mastery of the comprehension strategies not only at the beginning but through the whole implementation of comprehension strategy instruction.

Item 23 was intended if teachers teach their students to evaluate their own strategy use. Concerning this item, 50% of the teachers responded that they usually teach their students to evaluate their own strategy use; 18.75% of them argued sometimes and the remaining 31.25% said that they rarely do it. On the other hand, the responses of students were analyzed as follows. 6.16%, 12.5%, 8.33% of the students said that their teachers always, usually and sometimes respectively teach them to evaluate their own strategy use. However, 8.33% and 66.66% of the students claimed that teachers rarely and never respectively do it. The mean value of the students' response to this particular item is 1.79 which indicates the rare practice of this activity. The data shows that there was a significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses in that $\chi^2 = 12.612$, $p < 0.05$, that is 0.001. This shows that teachers tried to claim as if they were teaching this strategy effectively.

Moreover, the classroom observation also indicates the absence of this practice. This is because in the actual classroom observation, teachers were never seen assigning their students to evaluate their own strategy use.

As it can be seen from the table, half of the teachers argued that they teach their students to evaluate their own strategy use. Nevertheless, more than half of the students and classroom observation shows that teachers never teach or assign students to evaluate their own strategy use. Generally, from the discussion above one can safely infer that teachers practice in encouraging their students to evaluate their own strategy use is hardly exercised.

Item 24 was designed to detect if teachers assign students to do tasks/activities using the strategies they teach them. Regarding this item 56.25% and 31.25% of the teachers said that they always and usually respectively assign students to use the strategies they already taught but only 12.5% of them reported that they rarely and never assign their students to do so. The total mean value of teachers' response to this item is 4.36 which indicate that teachers always assign their students to the activity. However, the students' response contradicts with the information given

by the teachers. That is only 20.83% of the students responded that teachers always and usually ask their students to do tasks by using the strategies they taught while 12.5% of students replied that teachers sometimes engage in such activities. However, 8.33% and 58.3% of them complained that their teachers respectively rarely and never do so. The result of chi-square indicates that there was a significant difference between teachers' and students' responses in that $\chi^2=18.368$, $p>0.05$ that is 0.001 for it could be teachers' seemed to claim as if they were dealing with the strategy properly.

Therefore, the students' responses clearly reveal the rare application of the activity in the classroom. In the same manner, the information obtained from classroom observation shows similar idea with that of students response. That is, in the whole observed reading presentation classes teachers were seen busy in teaching new words explicitly, making scanning and skimming, and sometimes doing comprehension questions. Otherwise, teachers were not observed while they engage their students to do activities using the strategy they taught.

Even though majority of the teachers tried to claim that they always and usually involve their students actively in using the strategies students learned, the students response and the classroom observation depicted that teachers never applied it to the reading lesson presentation classes.

4.1.4. Analysis of Teachers' Interview

To assess further information about teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL classes, the researcher employed semi-structured interview which could support the responses gathered through questionnaire and observation. Therefore, the responses from the teachers' interview were used to triangulate the data gathered through other tools. Accordingly, a total of four teachers that is two teachers from each school were interviewed separately. The results of the teachers' interview were discussed as follows:

The interviewees were separately asked if they teach reading comprehension strategies to their students. In response to this question, all of the interviewees replied that they teach reading comprehension strategies. However, the interviewees said that they do not teach reading comprehension strategies explicitly. Regarding this item, Biancarosa and Snow (2006) stated that

teachers should teach strategies explicitly by explaining to students how and when to use. Teachers should also explain why they are teaching particular strategies and have students employ them in multiple contexts. Block (1992, as cited in Gilani, Ismail and Gilatjani 2009) also argues that learners need to be explicitly taught how to properly use reading strategies to monitor their reading comprehension.

The second question asked the interviewees the kind of reading comprehension strategies they teach. In response to this question, the kind of reading comprehension strategies listed by three interviewees are scanning and skimming. The other interviewee said that in addition to the two strategies mentioned by other interviewees, he teaches predicting.

The interviewees were also asked if they sometimes take a model text to train students reading comprehension strategies. Three of the respondents said 'no' but one of the interviewees said 'yes'. Those who said 'no' were asked why they don't sometimes take model texts in order to train their students' different reading comprehension strategies. They responded that they do not have sufficient time to do so.

The next question was to identify how often the interviewees take model texts to train their students to use various reading comprehension strategies. Regarding this item, one of the four teachers responded that he sometimes does so. The remaining three teachers responded that they rarely do so.

Finally, they were asked the type of reading comprehension strategies they commonly let their students practice in their reading lesson presentation. The interviewees confirmed that the types reading comprehension strategies they commonly teach and let their students practice are scanning and skimming.

In general, the responses of the interviewees depicted that teachers are not providing opportunities for students in order to practice the reading comprehension strategies. That means they are not properly teaching what and how to use reading comprehension strategies. In addition to this, teachers are not providing adequate tasks in order to enable students exercise different reading comprehension strategies. Teaching a few strategies can not enhance the students'

reading comprehension. Therefore, teachers are expected to teach reading comprehension strategies in explicit and integrative way by providing practice opportunities to their students.

4.1.5. Content Analysis

As it is mentioned in the methodology section, the prominent instruments of the study are teachers and students questionnaire and observation. Interview and content analysis were used to cross check the responses gathered through questionnaire and observation. Therefore, content analysis was used as a tool to assess whether the contents of the students' text books are suitable to teach reading comprehension strategies or not. Accordingly, the researcher analyzed the reading sections or the unit that was taught during classroom observations. As a result, grade 9 English text book unit (chapter) 5 reading sections were analyzed. This unit has four reading sections. In order to analyze this unit, the researcher used checklist that could support the reading comprehension strategies mentioned in the questionnaire and observation checklist (see Appendix G).

Content: HIV and AIDS

A5.4 Reading: Living with AIDS

At the beginning of the passage, there is a picture which expresses about a man who is infected with HIV. The man is sleeping in bed. There are also two people sitting beside the bed, his wife and his son. They are treating the man who lives with HIV. The illustration/picture is followed by reading passage.

This strategy enables students to predict the message of the text. In addition, it helps them visualize/create mental image.

The passage is followed by another activity "Using the information in the passage above, discuss how to treat or help people living with HIV and AIDS." In this case the students are required to summarize the main points of the passage.

The last activity of this section says "Discuss the social, economic, psychological and personal problems that AIDS causes, then in your group complete the following spidergram about AIDS in Ethiopia." This activity encourages the students to relate the impact of the title (HIV/AIDS)

to their own environment/ to their background knowledge. Therefore, relating the background knowledge to the text is one of the reading comprehension strategies.

Therefore, this section comprises reading comprehension strategies like pictorial representation (illustrating the message of written texts by pictures), summary strategy and activating the prior knowledge of the students. As a result, it can be safely to conclude the section is suitable to teach the aforementioned strategies.

A5.5. Reading: A poem

The poem is about a dead woman. It is supported by picture which illustrates the ideas of the poem. People are crying holding their heads being around the coffin. That means the picture well explains the message of the poem. Next to the poem, there is an exercise that asks the students comprehension questions. It helps the students to check their understanding of the text.

This section also includes reading comprehension strategies like predicting the theme of written texts through pictures and asking comprehension questions in order to check the understanding of learners.

A5.11. Reading: Poster about HIV/AIDS

In this section, a poster which describes about HIV/AIDS is presented. Then students are assigned to make their own posters.

B5.3 Reading: A radio interview

This section begins by extracting the students' back ground knowledge about the topic. It requests them to discuss about the causes of AIDS before they read the text. The other activity asks them to read and act the reading passage in pairs. This section still makes the students to identify the main ideas of the text.

Therefore, there are three reading comprehension strategies used in the text namely bringing background knowledge to the text, read aloud and identifying the main ideas of the passage.

B5.7 Reading: An HIV/AIDS leaflet

This part of the unit begins with skimming strategy. It asks the students to read the text for three minutes to say what the text is about. The other activity after reading session is to identify the main ideas of the text. Finally, comprehension questions set from the reading passage are presented. In general, three reading comprehension strategies are treated in this section. These are skimming, identifying the main ideas and comprehension questions.

Consequently, the researcher could recommend that these sections are conducive to teach reading comprehension strategies/ for reading strategy instruction. The reading sections presented in this unit consists different reading comprehension strategies. The text book gives instructions to perform tasks by using various reading comprehension strategies. This indicates that the reading sections of the book are designed in a way that teachers can teach and make their students exercise reading comprehension strategies.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to assess the teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL classes. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, instruments like teachers' questionnaire, students' questionnaire, classroom observation, teachers' interview and content analysis were used. On the bases of these instruments, the following conclusions and recommendations were drawn.

- Concerning teaching reading comprehension strategies, as the analysis shows both teachers and students indicated that teachers failed to do so. Even, it seems as the teachers have not understood the importance strategy instruction because the analysis testifies that teachers do not teach their students the importance of teaching reading comprehension strategy. For example, 58.25% of teachers and 66.7% of students reported that teachers rarely and never teach its importance. Therefore, teachers neglected to provide reading comprehension strategy instruction except a few strategies and they failed to teach the importance of reading comprehension strategies.

- As far as the integration of phases/stages of reading is concerned, teachers failed to incorporate pre-, while, and post reading strategies/ activities when presenting reading lesson. The students' response and classroom observation result deeply indicated that teachers never perform pre-reading strategies rather than writing the topic of the lesson on the blackboard. Likewise, teachers only sometimes involve their students in practicing a few strategies during while reading stage. In addition, majority of the students and classroom observation results also shows that teachers never encourage their students to practice post-reading strategies/activities rather than writing new words on the blackboard to give explicit instruction and asking for some comprehension questions. Moreover, concerning providing model texts in order to make their students practice multiple reading comprehension strategies incorporating the three phases of reading, the

students' responses and the classroom observation result depicted that teachers never engage their students in such like activities. For example, 70.83% of the students reported that teachers rarely and never bring such an activity to the reading classes.

- The results of the study reveal that teachers are not providing multiple reading strategy instruction. In line with this concept, the questionnaire, observation and interview results indicated that the most common reading comprehension strategies teachers teach/offer their students are namely scanning and skimming. For instance, 81.25% of the teachers pointed out that they always and usually teach scanning strategy while 60.82% of the students also depicted that teachers always and usually do so. Likewise, the classroom observations and interview results also testify the responses given by teachers' and students' questionnaire. Similarly, the responses of teachers concerning skimming is that 93.75% of the teachers indicated that they always and usually teach skimming strategy and 83.75% of the students responded that teachers always and usually do so. Classroom observation and the interview result also indicated that teachers let their students exercise the strategy.

- In general, for almost all questionnaires teachers tried to claim as if they were actively providing teaching reading comprehension strategy instruction. However, the analysis pointed out that teaching reading was found to be ineffective in the sample schools as a few strategies were used. This means teachers failed to integrate strategies which could facilitate the reading ability of learners. In other words, teaching a few strategies does not promote reading comprehension strategy instruction. Regarding this point, Grabe (2009) stated that teaching for strategic reading involves consistent modeling, extensive practice and eventually independent use of the strategies by students. Grabe further explains that teaching students to become more strategic readers is central to comprehension instruction and deserves greater instructional attention. Therefore, the study depicted that the teaching reading was ineffective in the sample schools as English language

teachers are not providing model texts in order to make their students practice multiple reading comprehension strategies. As compared to reading comprehension strategies suggested by different scholars, the strategies that were being used by the teachers at the target schools seemed to be insignificant.

5.2. Recommendations

Based up on the above conclusions, the following recommendations are made:

- ❖ As it can be clearly seen from the analysis, English language teachers almost do not really teach reading comprehension strategies and its importance to their students. But teachers should teach reading comprehension strategies so that learners could apply a variety of strategies for different reading texts. Therefore, it is essential for English language teachers to be aware of these strategies and think of ways to improve students reading comprehension ability by providing them strategy instructions on reading. To do this, teachers ought to improve their own proficiency regarding reading comprehension strategies.
- ❖ Teachers should not only give reading comprehension strategy instruction on a few strategies but also it is expected from them to provide strategy instruction by integrating different strategies. In addition, teachers should prepare model texts in order to equip students with multiple reading comprehension strategy instruction.
- ❖ Teachers should incorporate pre-, while and post reading activities/strategies in their reading lesson presentation. Because in these phases students get opportunities to practice different reading comprehension strategies. If one of these phases is absent, students miss the chance to practice certain strategies.
- ❖ Finally, further study should be carried out to investigate the reason why teachers fail to provide reading comprehension strategy instruction in the High Schools of current study area.

REFERENCES

- AD-Heisat, M.A.A., Mohammed, S., Sharmella, K.A., Issa, J.H. (2009). The Use of Strategies in Developing Students' Reading Competency among Primary School Teachers in Malaysia. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 12(2), pp.310-319.
- Ajideh, P. (2006). Schema-theory based on considerations on pre-reading activities. *Asian EFL Journal*, 16(1), p.51.
- Alamirew Kassahun. (2001). Student-teacher attitudes to grade 9 reading texts and exercises (MA Thesis). Addis Ababa University.
- Amlaku, B. Eshete. (2008). Language policies and the role of English in Ethiopia (Thesis). A presentation paper at the 23rd Annual Conference of IATEFL BESIG (19-21 Nov. 2010), Bielefeld, Germany.
- Anderson, N.J (1999). *Exploring second language reading: Issues and strategies*. Toronto: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.
- Anderson, J, N. (2003). Scrolling, clicking, and reading English: Online reading strategies in a second/ foreign Language. *Reading Matrix*, 3(3), pp.1-33.
- Atkins, J., Hailom Banteyerga and Nuru Mohammed. (1996). *Skills development methodology: Part II*. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University Press.
- Aydogdu, E. (2007). *EFL teachers' perceptions of foreign language teaching competences*. Trakya: Trakya University press. (Unpublished research)
- Biancarosa, C., & Snow, C. E. (2006). *Reading next-A vision for action and research in middle and high school literacy: A report to Carnegie Corporation of New York* (2nd ed.). Washington DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.
- Brown, H.D. (2000). *Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy*. New York: Longman.
- Brown, H.D. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practice*. New York: Longman.
- Cabaroglu & Yurdaisik. (2008). University instructors' views about and approaches to reading instruction and reading strategies. *The reading Matrix*, 8(2), p.123.
- Dereje Wondimeneh. (2008). An investigation of students' perception of motivational techniques teachers use for reading lesson (MA Thesis). Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University Press.

- Doff, A. 1997. *Trainers' handbook: Teach English a training course for teachers*.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methodology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Duke & Pearson. (2002). *Effective practices for developing reading: what research has to say about reading*. International Reading Association, Inc.
- Eskey, D.E. (1998). Holding the bottom: an interactive approach to the language problems of second language readers. In Carrel, P.I, Devine, J. & Eskey, D, E (Eds). *Interactive Approaches to second language reading* (PP. 93-100). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Gilan, A, Ismail, N. Gilakjani, P. (2012). Impacts of learning reading strategy on students' reading comprehension proficiency. *The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)*, 1(1), pp.78-95.
- Girma, G. (1994). *A preliminary investigation into the reading strategies of AAU first year Students (MA Thesis)*. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University Press.
- Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: moving from theory to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, W. & Stoller, F.L. (2002). *Teaching and research reading*. Edinburgh Gate: Pearson Education.
- Grenfell, M & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern languages and learning strategies theory and practice*. London: Routledge.
- Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 40(1), pp.109-131.
- Janzen, J. (2001). *Strategic reading on a sustained content theme: Understanding the courses*. Michigan :Michigan University Press.
- Jordan, R. (1997). *English for academic purposes: A guide and resources book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Karbalaei, A. (2010). A comparison of the meta-cognitive reading strategies used by EFL and ESL readers. *Asian EFL Journal*, 10(2), pp.165-180.
- Li, Y & Wang, C. (2010). An empirical study of reading self-efficacy and the use of reading strategies in the Chinese EFL context. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(1), pp.144-162.

- Macaro, E. (2001). *Learning strategies in foreign and second language classrooms*. London: Continuum.
- May, C. (2009/10). *Explicit instruction of reading strategies that enable EFL learners to achieve comprehension in reading*. Mentouri University: Constantine.
- Mehrpour, S. Sadighi, F & Bagheri, Z. (2012). Teaching reading comprehension strategies to EFL Pre-University students. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 4(1), pp.108-139.
- Mesfin Derash . (2008). *The practices of Teaching Reading in English at First Cycle Primary Schools* (MA Thesis). Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1996). Learner strategy training in the classroom: An action research study. *TESOL Journal*, 6(1), pp.35-41.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nuttal, C. (1998). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Oxford, R.L (1990). *Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.
- Pani, S. (2004). Reading strategy modeling through mental modeling. *ELE Journal*, 58/4.P.355.
- Payne, E. & Whittakar, L. (2006). *Developing essential study skill*. Edinburgh Gate: Pearson Education.
- Powers, L.A. (2011). *Strategies for improving the reading comprehension (Unpublished MA thesis)*. Carrol University: Wawukessa, Wisconsin.
- Pressley, M., Beard El-Dinary, P. & Brown, R. (1992). *Skilled and not-so-skilled reading: Good information processing and not-so-good information processing*. In M. Pressley, K. J. Guthrie (Eds.) in *Promoting academic competence and literacy in schools* (pp. 91-127). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Robb, L. (1996). *Reading strategies that work teaching your students to become better readers*. Scholastic Inc: Jefferson City Press.
- Rosa, M. R. (1999). Reading in recent ELT course books. *ELT Journal Volume 53/1*, pp. 12-21.
- Ruane, M.J. (2005). *Essential research methods: a guide to social science research*. Oxford: Blackwell publishing Ltd.

Shang,H (2010). Reading strategies. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(2), P.18-42.

Sigh, K. (2006). *Fundamentals of Research methodology and statistics*. New age international Publishers.

Thu Nga, N.T. (2008). *Teachers' beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices: A Case study of Viet Ba High School*. Retrieved from <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>

Ur. P (1996). *A course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zwiers, J. (2010). *Building reading comprehension habits: a tool kit of classroom activities*. USA: Library of Congress catalogue.

APPEDIX A: TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Jimma University

College of Social Science and Law

Department of English Language and Literature

(Graduate Program TEFL)

Dear teacher,

I am currently conducting an assessment of teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL classes with grade 9 and 10 of Jorgo Nole and Ula Babu High Schools in focus. Your contribution in responding to the following questionnaire is very substantial to improve the use of reading comprehension strategies and to the success of the intended study. Therefore, please read each item and give your genuine responses. Your responses would be kept confidential and function only for the research purpose. Your name is not required to be written.

Thank you for your contribution!

Background Information

Direction 1: Please respond to the following information by underlining the appropriate items from the given alternatives.

1.1. The name of school _____ 1.2. Grade level: 1.3. Sex: a) Male b) Female

1.4 .Age: a) 20-25 b) 25-30 b) 31-35 c) 36-40 d) 41and above

1.5. Qualification: a) Diploma b) BA c) MA

1.6. Years of experience: a) ≥ 5 b) 6-10 c) 11-15 d) 16-20 e) more than 20

Direction 2: the following statements show the practice of reading and the use of reading comprehension strategies in EFL classes. Please, indicate the extent to which you carry out these practices in your reading lesson by putting a tick (\checkmark) in one of the boxes against each statement.

Items Related to Pre-reading Activities

S. No	Items	Rating scales				
		Always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
1	I teach students the importance of reading comprehension strategies					
2	I explicitly teach what reading strategies are, where, when and how to use through practice					
3	I introduce the objectives/purposes of the lessons before reading the text (passage)					
4	I ask students to read the titles and predict what the text is about.					
5	I teach students how to look at illustrations/pictures to help them relate to the text.					
6	I have the students quickly look over the text before reading					
7	I ask students warm-up questions related to the text before reading					
8	I ask students to relate the text/topic to their experience/ background.					

S. N	Items	Responses				
		Always	usually	someti mac	Rarely	never
9	I teach all the new vocabulary in the text.					
10	I teach students how to scan specific information					
11	I teach students how to skim the general idea of the text					
12	I teach students how to guess the meaning of unknown words.					
13	I ask students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words					
14	I teach how to distinguish general statements from specific details					
15	I teach semantic mapping or clustering strategy to provide some order					
16	I ask students to try to visualize what they read.					
17	I tell students to make guesses about up-coming information in the text					

Items Related to While Reading Strategies

S. No	Items	Responses				
		Always	usually	someti	Rarely	never
9	I teach all the new vocabulary in the text.					
10	I teach students how to scan specific information					
11	I teach students how to skim the general idea of the text					
12	I teach students how to guess the meaning of unknown words.					
13	I ask students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words					
14	I teach how to distinguish general statements from specific details					
15	I teach semantic mapping or clustering strategy to provide some order					
16	I ask students to try to visualize what they read.					
17	I tell students to make guesses about up-coming information in the text					

Items related to Post Reading

S. No	Items	Respondents				
		Always	Usually	sometim es	rarely	never
18	I teach students how to summarize texts					
19	I ask comprehension questions about the text					
20	I ask students to draw conclusions about the text they have read.					
21	I provide different practice opportunities with multiple reading comprehension strategies					
22	I sometimes prepare model texts to teach students practice multiple strategies					
23	I teach students to evaluate their own strategy use					
24	I assign students to do tasks using the strategies I teach them.					

APPENDIX B: STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear students,

This questionnaire is designed to assess the teachers' practice in teaching reading comprehension strategies in EFL classes with grade 9 and 10 English teachers with Jogo Nole and Ula Babu High Schools intending to identify the current practice of reading comprehension strategies. Therefore, your genuine response to the questions is very crucial to the achievement of the objectives of the study.

Items related to pre-reading strategies

S. No	Items	Rating scales					
		Always	usually	sometime	rarely	never	remark
1	Our teacher teaches us the importance of reading comprehension strategies						
2	Our teacher explicitly teaches us what reading comprehension strategies are, where, when and how to use through practice						
3	Our teacher introduces the objectives/ purposes of the lesson before we read the text.						
4	Our teacher tells us to read the titles and predict what the text is about before we read the passage.						
5	Our teacher teaches us how to look at illustrations /pictures and try to guess how they relate to the text						
6	Our teacher orders the class to look over the text before reading						
7	Our teacher asks us warm-up questions related to the text before reading						
8	Our teacher asks us to relate the text/topic to our experience						

Items related to while reading strategies

S. No	Items	Responses				
		Always	usually	sometimes	Rarely	never
9	Our teacher teaches all the new vocabulary in the text					
10	Our teacher teaches us how to scan specific information					
11	Our teacher teaches us how to skim for the general information					
12	Our teacher teaches us how to guess the meaning of difficult words					
13	Our teacher asks us to guess/predict the meanings of unknown words					
14	Our teacher teaches us how to distinguish general statements from specific details					
15	Our teacher teaches us semantic mapping/ clustering strategy to provide some order					
16	Our teacher helps us to visualize what we read					
17	Our teacher tells us to make guesses about up-coming information in the text					

Items related to post reading strategies

S.	Items	Response				
		Always	usually	sometimes	rarely	Never
18	Our teacher teaches us how to summarize texts					
19	Our teacher asks us to do comprehension questions about the text					
20	Our teacher asks us to draw conclusions about the text we have read.					
21	Our teacher provides us different practice opportunities with multiple reading comprehension strategies					
22	Our teacher sometimes prepares model texts and teach us multiple reading comprehension strategies					
23	Our teacher teaches us to evaluate our own reading comprehension strategy use					
24	Our teacher orders us to do tasks using the strategies he/she teaches us					

APPENDIX C: SUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE TRANSLATED TO L1

YUNVERSITII JIMMAA

KOLLEEJII SAAYINSII HAWAASAA FI SEERAA

MUUMMEE AFAAN INGILIFFAA FI OGBARRUU

SAGANTAA DIGIRII LAMMAFFAA (TEFL)

Kabajamaa barataa,

Kaayyoon gaafannoo kanaa tooftaalee dubbisaa (reading strategies) barsiistni Afaan Ingliizii ni barsiisuumoo hinbarsiissan kan jedhuu fi haalli barsiisotni itti tooftaalee dubbisaa kana barsiisan maal fakkaata kan jedhuudhaa. Bu'aa qorannoo kanaaf deebiin ati laattuu iddoo guddaa waan qabuuf dhugaa jiruu sirriitti guutii. Yaadni ati gaafaannoo kanaaf laattuu icitiidhaan qabama. Maqaa kee barreessun barbaachisaa miti.

Tumsakeef galatoomii!!

Barataa Darajjee Beekumaa

Miimmee Afaan Ingiliffaa

Yuuniversitii Jimmaa

Odeeffannoo Walii gala

Saala: _____

Maqaa Mana Barumsaa _____

Sadarkaa Barumsaa: _____

Umuri _____

II. Gaaffileen armaan gadii Barsiisotni hangam tooftaalee dubbisaa (reading strategies) akka barsiisanii fi haalli isaan daree keessatti barattoota shaakalsiisan maal akka faakkaatuu ilaaluuf kan qophaa'eedha.

Yaada gaaffilee armaan gadii sirriitti erga dubbiftee booda yeroo hangamiif akka deddebi'anii raawwatan filanoowwan shanan keessaa filadhuu jala isaattii mallattoo kana (✓) kaa'ii.

Gochawwa dubbisa duraa (pre-reading activities) wal qabatan

		Yeroo huunda	Yeroo	Darbee	darbee	Yeroo	Tasumaa
L	Gochaalee Barsiisaan rawwataman						
1	Barsiisaan keenya barbaachisummaa tooftaa dubbisaa nu barsiisuu						
2	Barsiisaan keenya tooftaaleen dubbisaa maal akka ta'e, eessatti, yerookamii fi akkamitti akka fayyadamnuu shaakal;a wal;iin nu barsiisuu						
3	Barsiisaan keenyaa dubbisaan dura kaayyoo dubbisaichaa nutti himu						
4	Barsiisaan keenyaa dubbisaan duraa mata-duree dubbisichaa irraa akka yaada dubbisichaa tilmaamnu ni godhu						
5	Barsiisaan keenya fakkiwwan ilaallee dubbisiacha waliin walitti dhufeenya isaa akka tilmaamnu ni godhu						
6	Barsiisaan keenyaa fakki ilaalllee akkamitti yaada dubbisichaa tilmaamuu akka dandeenyuu nu barsiisuu						

7	Barsiisaan keenya gaaffiwwan kakkaaftuu (warm-up questions) tokko- tokkoo kan yaada dubbisichaa fakkaatuu nugaafatu					
8	Barsiisaan keenyaa dubbisicha muuxannoo jireenya keenya keessatti qabnu waliin akka walitti fidnuf nu jajjabeessuu					

Gochawwan yeroo dubbisaa (While reading activities/strategies) waliin walqabatan

		Yeroo	Yeroo	Darbee-	Yeroo	tasumma
9	Barsiisaan keenyaa jechoota haaraa dubbisicha keessa jiran hunda nubarsiisaa					
10	Barsiisaan keenyaa akkaataa (scanning) itti sakattaan dubbisan nu barsiisu					
11	Barsiisaan keenya yaada waliigalaa dubbisichaa (skimming) akka itti argannuu nubarsiisaa					
12	Barsiisaan keenyaa jechootaa haaraa dubbisicha keessaatti argaman akka itti tilmaamuu dandeenyuu nu barsiisaa					
13	Barsiisaan keenyaa hiikaa jechootaa haaraa dubbisicha keessaatti argaman akka tilmaamnu ni godha					
14	Barsiisaan keenyaa tooftaa ittiin yaada ijoo fi yaada callaa dubbisa keesa jiran gargar baasnu nu barsiisuu.					
15	Barsiisaan keenyaa akkaataa itti yaadota wal-fakkata walitti finnee caasessuu dandeenyuu nubarsiisuu					
16	Barsiisaan keenyaa waan dubbisne yaad-sammun (visualize) akka goonuu ni godha					
17	Barsiisaan keenyaa akkamiin yaada dubbisichaa dursinee tilmaamuu akka dandeenyuu nu barsiisuu					

Gochawwan dubbisa boodaa (post reading activities/strategies) wal qabatan

lakk		Yeroo hundaa	Yeroo baay'ee	Darbee- darbee	Yeroo	Tasumaa
18	Barsiisaan keenyaa akka itti cuunfaanii (summarize) barreessan nu barsiisa.					
19	Barsiisaan keenya gaaffii hubannoo akka hojjenuu ni godha					
20	Barsiisaankeenya yaada walii gala dubbisichaa nugaafata					
21	Barsiisaan keenyaa yeroo adda-addaattii tooftaalee garaagaraa fayyadamnee akka hojjenuuf carraa nuuf keenna					
22	Barsiisaan keenya dubbisa ykn fakkenya garagaraa fudhatee tooftaalee addaaddaa nu barsiisaa					
23	Tooftaalee dubbisaa ofii keenyaa akka madaalluuf barsiisaan kenya nu jajjabessa					
24	Tooftaalee dubbisaa nubarsiisee akka itti fayadamnuuf dubbisa moodela ta'ee nushaakalchiisa					

APPENDIX D: OBSERVATION CHECK-LIST

S. No	Items	Yes	No
1	The teacher introduces the purposes/ objectives of the text(reading passage)		
2	The teacher asks the students to read the titles and predict what the text is about.		
3	The teacher teaches the students how to look at illustrations/pictures to help them relate to the text.		
4	The teacher lets the students quickly look over the text before reading		
5	The teacher asks students warm-up questions related to the text before reading		
6	The teacher asks students to relate the text/topic to their experience		
7	The teacher teaches all the new vocabulary in the text.		
8	The teacher teaches the students how to scan specific information		
9	The teacher teaches students how to skim the general idea of the text		
10	The teacher teaches students how to guess the meaning of unknown words.		
11	The teacher asks students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words		
12	The teacher teaches how to distinguish general statements from specific details		
13	The teacher teaches semantic mapping or clustering strategy to provide some order		
14	The teacher asks students to try to visualize what they read		
15	The teacher lets students make guesses about up-coming information in the text .		
16	The teacher teaches students how to summarize texts		
17	The teacher asks comprehension questions about the text		
18	The teacher asks students to draw conclusions about the text they have read.		
19	The teacher provides different practice opportunities with multiple reading comprehension strategies		
20	The teacher asks students to summarize the text (written or oral).		
21	The teacher sometimes prepares model texts to teach students practice multiple strategies		
22	Teachers assign students to do tasks using the strategies they teach them.		

APPENDIX E: THE SUMMARY OF OBSERVATION RESULTS

S.No	Items	Teacher 1		Teacher 2		Teacher 3		Teacher 4		Total						
		1 st day		2 nd day		1 st day		2 nd day		1 st day		2 nd day				
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No			
1	The teacher introduces the purposes/ objectives of the text (reading passage)	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	8	
2	The teacher asks the students to read the titles and predict what the text is about.	-	√	-	√	√	-	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	2	6
3	The teacher teaches the students how to look at illustrations/pictures to help them relate to the text.	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	8	
4	The teacher lets the students quickly look over the text before reading	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	1	7
5	The teacher asks students warm-up questions related to the text before reading	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	8	

6	The teacher asks students to relate the text/topic to their experience	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	8	
7	The teacher teaches all the new vocabulary in the text	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	6	2
8	The teacher teaches the students how to scan specific information	√	-	√	-	-	√	-	√	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	5	3
9	The teacher teaches students how to skim the general idea of the text	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	1	7
10	The teacher teaches students how to guess the meaning of unknown words.	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	1	7
11	The teacher asks students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	2	6
12	The teacher teaches how to distinguish general statements from specific details	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	1	7
	The teacher teaches																					

20	The teacher provides different practice opportunities with multiple reading comprehension strategies	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	8
21	The teacher sometimes prepares model texts to teach students practice multiple strategies	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	8
22	The teacher asks comprehension questions about the text	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	√	-	3	8		

APPENDIX F: TEACHERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Dear teacher, currently I am conducting research on the practice of teachers reading comprehension strategies on grade 9 and 10 EFL classes. You are kindly requested to give your genuine response to the interview questions.

1. Do you teach reading comprehension strategies to your students?

Yes/no

2. If your answer for question number 1 is yes, what are the reading strategies that you teach?
3. Do you sometimes take a model text to train students reading comprehension strategies?
4. If your answer for question number 4 is yes, how often do you let your students train reading comprehension strategies?
5. What are the reading comprehension strategies you usually use/ practice with your students in classroom?

APPENDIX G: CONTENT ANALYSIS CHECK-LIST

S.N	Some reading comprehension strategies	Yes	No
1	Purposes/ objectives of the text(reading passage)		
2	Reading the titles and predicting what the text is about		
3	Looking at illustrations/pictures to help learners relate to the text		
4	Quickly looking over the text before reading		
5	Relating the text/topic to their experience		
6	Scanning for specific information		
7	Skimming for the general idea of the text		
8	Guessing the meaning of unknown words		
9	Guessing/predict the meaning of unknown words		
10	Distinguishing general statements from specific details		
11	Semantic mapping or clustering strategy to provide some order		
12	Visualizing what they read		
13	Guessing about up-coming information in the text		
14	Summarizing texts		
15	Comprehension questions about the text		
16	Drawing conclusions about the text they have read		
17	Summarize the text (written or oral)		



This work is licensed under a
Creative Commons
Attribution – NonCommercial - NoDerivs 3.0 License.

To view a copy of the license please see:
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

This is a download from the BLDS Digital Library on OpenDocs
<http://opendocs.ids.ac.uk/opendocs/>