Jimma University

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Ph.D. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) Program

Effects of Metacognitive Reading Strategies Explicit Instruction on EFL Students' Reading Comprehension, Strategy Awareness, Motivation and Perception among Grade 11 Students of Ambo Preparatory School

A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

BY

Habtamu Walga Adaba

January, 2022

Jimma, Ethiopia

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Office of Postgraduate and Research Studies

This is to certify that the study presented by Habtamu Walga Adaba entitled **'Examining the Effects of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Explicit Instruction on EFL Students' Reading Comprehension, Strategy Awareness, Motivation and Perception among Grade 11 Students of Ambo Preparatory School** and submitted in fulfillments of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language complies with the regulations of the university and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Declaration

Hereby I declare that the work in the thesis entitled ‘’**Examining the Effects of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Explicit Instruction on EFL Students’ Reading Comprehension, Strategy Awareness, Motivation and Perception among Grade 11 Students of Ambo Preparatory School** and submitted to Jimma University, Ethiopia is an original piece of research work under the guidance of Dr. Tekle Ferede (PhD, associate professor), Jimma University, Jimma, Ethiopia and Dr. Temesgen Mereba (PhD, associate professor), Jimma University, Jimma, Ethiopia.

The contents in this thesis have not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of any other university.

Habtamu Walga Aadaba _____ _____

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Kuulanii Damee and my sister in law, Lalisee Damee who supported me in different ways. It is through their support that I have managed to succeed in my studies.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception with a particular focus on Ambo Preparatory School in Ambo town of Western Shoa Zone, Western Oromia. Data for this study were collected using a reading comprehension test (RCT), metacognitive reading strategy awareness inventory (MARSI), motivation for reading questionnaire (MRQ) and interview. A quasi-experimental research design was used to achieve the purpose of the study. Two groups participated in the study. The treatment group (N=82) participated in the metacognitive reading strategy instruction while the comparison group (N=87) learned the metacognitive reading strategy in a conventional way. After administering both pre-tests and post-tests of RCT, MARSI, MRQ, ANCOVA was used to test the hypothesis of the study. First of all, the finding of this study indicated that eight weeks of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction positively affected students' reading comprehension. The finding indicated that there was statistically significant difference between the treatment group and the comparison group, which is reported as F(1,1 67)= 179.415, P=.001. The effect size of Partial Eta Squared was 519. This means, the power of the explicit instruction was .519, which was large. This indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in metacognitive reading strategy awareness between the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction and the students who participated in the conventional way of learning metacognitive reading strategy instruction, which is reported as F(1,167), =246, P=.001, Partial Eta Squared=.596. Among the three subcomponents of MARSI, supportive reading strategy (M=3.38, SD=1.01) was mostly affected by the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. Problem-solving reading strategy was least affected by the instruction (M=3.21, SD=0.96). The mean score of global reading strategy was 3.23.Additionally, the findings of this study showed that there was a statistical difference in reading motivation between the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy and those who participated in the conventional way of learning metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The result is reported as F(1,167)=180.530, P>.05. The effect size was .519. Finally, the data collected through interview showed that almost all of the interview participants had a positive perception of learning metacognitive reading strategy. This study concluded that explicit teaching of metacognitive reading strategy accompanied by in classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice improves students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception about metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. Therefore, Based on the findings, EFL teachers should consider explicit reading strategy instruction, practicing and modeling of reading strategies, with more opportunities practicing extensively.

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Acronyms

ARC: Automatic Readability Checker

ASL: Average Sentence Length

ASW: Average Number of Syllables per Word

CORI: Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction

EGRA: Early Grader Reading Assessment

EPRDF: Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front

ETQAA: Education and Training Quality Assurance Agency

FL: Foreign Language

IQPEP: Improving Quality in Primary Education Program

JURB: Jimma University Review Board

MARSI: Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness Inventory

MRQ: Motivation to Read Questionnaire

NLA: National Learning Assessment

NRP: National Reading Panel

RCT: Reading Comprehension Test

SIA: Strategy Instruction Aid

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TELL: Teach English for Life Learning

TGE: Transitional Government of Ethiopia

TSI: Transactional Strategy Instruction

USAID: United States Agency for Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception with a particular focus on Ambo Preparatory School in Ambo, town of Western Shoa Zone, Oromia. This chapter discusses the background of the study, the statement of the problem, which forms the rationale of the study and identifies the gaps to be filled. Following these, the hypotheses are presented followed by the significance of the study and the scope of the study. Next, the limitations of the study and the definition of key terms are discussed. Then, the organization of the study is presented. Finally, chapter one is concluded.

1.1. Background of the study

The teaching of English as a foreign language throughout the world has extended over the past few decades (Park, 2010), with increasing international demand for English. Nowadays, people can easily access the flow of information in the English language through TV channels, newspapers, websites, e-mail channels, chat rooms, internet cafes, blogging networks, use of videos, cassette tapes, digital images, etc. (Shaw, 2013).

English is seen as a key language to serve Ethiopia as a medium of international communication. The ability to read in English is crucial not only for academic purposes but also for international communication in this global time and information technology era. English plays a pivotal role in the whole education system as it takes over and maintains the role of medium of instruction from secondary education onwards (Grade 9 to Grade 12 in Ethiopia) (Ambachew, 2003). Primary education has mainly followed mother tongue language policy that aims to improve literacy rates and academic achievement as well as to enhance appreciation of local languages and cultures (Wolff, 2011). The ten regional states (Oromia, Amhara, Tigray, Somale, Afar, Southern People, Nations and Nationalities, Gambela, Benishangul Gumuz and Harari) in Ethiopia determine when the transition from local language medium to English takes place, whether in Grade 5 (Southern Nations and Tigrai Regional State and Sidama Regional State),

Grade 7 (Amhara Regional State) or Grade 9 (Oromia Regional State) (Bogale, 2009). The students learn all subjects in English starting from Grade 9 as mandated by the National Curriculum (Ethiopian Ministry of Education, 1994). English is used in extended ranges of function in Ethiopia. All international organizations, most non-governmental organizations, and some of the well-paying government offices, such as Ethiopian Airlines, Commercial Bank of Ethiopia and Ethiopian Insurance Corporation use English and local languages.

Ethiopia is growing in economic, social, political and military activities that require fluency in the language. Ethiopia is also known to the world by different things. For instance, the African Union Head Office is located in the capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. The Lucy, the skeleton of a female Australopithecus afarensis (one of humankind's earliest ancestors) was found in Ethiopia, which was discovered by paleoanthropologist Donald Johnson in 1974. Additionally, Ethiopia is known by its several historical heritages such as the Aksum Obelisks, Lalibela Rock-Hewn Churches and Jagol Buildings. Ethiopia is also known for the victory battle of Adwa. Arabica coffee is originated in Ethiopia (Tekle, 2016).Ethiopia, which was known by the name Abyssinia, is also respected in Africa in terms of untouchability during the scramble of Africa by Europeans in the 19th century. In addition to these, Ethiopia is known for its writing system, Saba Letters (Thomas & Wondewson, 1996). Reading ability is important to understand about these facts, and then introduce them to the world.

The students we teach, therefore, may want to learn English to communicate with others, be interested in living abroad, doing international business, working as translators and working in the tourist industry. Hence, gaining different strategies for learning English is paramount, which in turn, helps students develop English throughout their lifetimes, which helps them to compete with international students in this global market (Gebhard, 2011) and to expand their knowledge and worldviews (Huey, 2007). The ability to read is one of the main reasons for success in career development and success at school/college (Abdelmalik, 2015). To cope with the educational demands of their academic studies, Ethiopian preparatory school students (Grades 11 and 12) require a commendable level of English language proficiency in general and reading proficiency in particular. Therefore, the teaching of English in junior and senior schools needs to be directed at being able to read, analyze and comprehend in English. At this level, several activities demand reading ability like understanding instructions and concepts, reading questions in assignments and examinations and reading textbooks of different disciplines and so on. They are required to

understand vast reading materials, to combine a variety of resources, to analyze, to discuss, to evaluate, to reflect and to relate parts to a whole and to apply knowledge in real-world situations (Fazal et al., 2015). As a result of this, secondary school students need to master the reading skills. This requires them to develop several cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, which assist them not to struggle with reading (Abdelmalik, 2015).

Reading has a great role in the workplace. The more one read, the more knowledgeable he/she become. It helps workers to communicate and perform at workplace (Belfiore et al., 2004). Murty (2019) says ‘’Book readers are leader.’’ (p,1).

The education policy of Ethiopia puts literacy at a high place as one way of promoting students' personal development and the country's economic development (MoE, 1994). Appleby et al. (2002) also point out that there is a relationship between language development and the country's economic development. Reports from previous studies show that the progress made so far to improve quality education is limited (Derebssa, 2006). International studies in the L2 showed that many countries have succeeded in increasing enrollment rates; a lot of their students attend schools that are not suited to their educational needs (Glewwe & Kremer, 2006). Solomon (2014) points out that reading is powerful to test educational outcomes. It is a gateway to success in other academic areas. Recent research suggests that reading skill is the strongest indicator to measure the basic elements of educational outcomes (Gove & Cvelich, 2010).

After the 1994 education policy of Ethiopia, many changes have been made based on their trial and implementation. For instance, by 2001, all textbooks were fully replaced by a new curriculum except the Grade 11 textbook, which was completed in 2003. Since then a lot of money and time were spent on the English instruction in general and reading instruction in particular. The students pass from elementary to higher education on the basis of exam results, which requires proficiency in reading skills. For instance, in grade eight, the students take a national standardized exam, which is prepared by the regional government. Additionally, according to the new education policy of Ethiopia (2019), Grade 6 students also take national examination. Then, a nationwide standardized exam is given to Grade 10 students to maintain a high standard (ETP, 1994). This exam identifies learners who join preparatory school and those who join technical and vocational trainings. After they completed Grade 11 and Grade 12, the entrance examination is intended to identify those who join higher education (university). This

requires extensive and deep reading. The Ministry of Education of Ethiopia (MoE, 2003) advocates that knowledge is constructed if students developed their knowledge construction on their learning.

Justice (2019) explains that poor readers face various problems in school and after school in career development. Several studies showed that numerous negative academic outcomes are correlated with inability to read well in English (Hitchcock et al., 2004). They also found that social outcomes are also negatively affected by inability to read and comprehend. For instance, having a negative viewpoint and low participation in extracurricular school activities, exhibiting disruptive or withdrawn behaviors that distract them from learning activities, falling academically behind other peers and having a higher probability of dropping out of school might be consequences of inability to read (Lazarus & Callahan, 2000). Hence, reading ability in today's modern information societies require personal initiative not only in academic contexts but also in living environments (Dudley-Evans & Jo, 1998). It is vital for students in school and later after school since it provides a basis for future learning. Moreover, much of the knowledge of the world is written in English. For instance, in 2009, 6.8 billion people used websites through the English language (Sidek, 2007).

Learning strategies in general and reading strategies in particular contribute a lot to foreign language learning. Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as specific actions to facilitate and make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations. They enable learners to take more responsibility for their own learning and become autonomous foreign language learners (Yang, 2009). Reading strategies can be categorized into metacognitive reading strategy, cognitive reading strategy and socio-affective reading strategy depending on the level or type of processing involved in reading comprehension (Chamot, 2004). Metacognitive strategy refers to higher-order executive skills that involve planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the process of learning activities (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In this study, the definition and classification given by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) are used. Mokhtari and Sheorey did not directly classified reading strategies into three, but they proposed MARSI. MARSI's content clearly divided into three: global, problem-solving and supportive reading strategies (see Chapter Two, under2.5, Classifications of Learning Strategy).

Metacognition was first originated in the field of cognitive development, especially developmental psychology (Flavell, 1978) and information-processing cognitive psychology (Wagner & Sternberg, 1984). During the early and late 1970s, studies on learning strategies concentrated on how less successful learners learn from effective learners in terms of the use of language learning strategies (Naiman et al., 1978; Bialystok, 1979). At the time, it was believed that the choice of reading strategies effective learners use provides a living model for the weaker readers to imitate. In the early '80s, critics, however, argued that strategies used by skilled readers were not always the solution for weak learners who have different personality traits. After two decades, language learning strategy researchers shifted their study to metacognitive knowledge and the self-regulatory process in strategy use (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Researches on second or foreign language education have found that learners' reading motivation could play an essential role in their effective learning, especially their strategic language learning (Breen, 2014). Lack of reading motivation hinders learners' strategy use (Tang &Tian, 2015). Reading strategy awareness increases readers' reading comprehension and reading motivation, the learners' valuing of reading which affects their spending time on reading. This in turn helps learners to be strategic readers (Wang, 2009). Similarly, Edmonds (2006) found that reading achievement is strongly associated with engagement in reading, which improves readers' reading comprehension of a text. Therefore, being aware of this global trend, the English education in teaching reading should aim at providing students with reading strategies awareness and use to make English learning more successful and more enjoyable in and out of language classroom.

1.2. Statements of the problem

English continued to be seen as the language of global literacy skills. It is used as a foreign language in Ethiopia, and most of the students have very limited access to the English language (Solomon, 2014). On top of this, although Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was introduced in Ethiopia about 20 years ago, and it has been implemented in primary and secondary schools, little change has been noticed in students' English language skills development, especially in reading skills (Dawit, 2003; Mesfin, 2004). Similarly, other studies (Girma, 2005) have concluded that English language class time was still dominated by the

teacher-fronted mode of teaching. Haregewain (2008) also found that the students were not allowed to interact with instructional materials meaningfully.

Birhanu (2012) indicated that the majority of secondary school teachers' beliefs stress the role of grammar in language teaching and ways of teaching grammar in classrooms. They acknowledged the need for teaching grammar at the early stages of language learning. In terms of their proficiency levels, Solomon (2006) found that preparatory school graduates lack the required command of English even to express themselves, by the time they start their tertiary studies. Many teachers assumed that students have to learn to read simply by reading (Perez, 2008). In some cases, some students may learn to read independently; however, many of them will not learn by reading on their own pace (Snow, 2002).

Reading is dying in Ethiopian schools. Gallagher (n.d.) calls this 'readicide', which is the systematic killing of the love of reading activities. 'Readicide' is done by demanding learners to read unauthentic and difficult reading texts without any suitable classroom instructional support. Poor readers continue to struggle with reading if they are not provided with regaining in reading skills, which in turn develops a negative attitude toward reading. Stanovich (1986) calls this 'the Matthew Effect', which represents the old saying the ''poorer get poorer; the richer get richer.'' Empirical research findings documented that poor readers go up to be poor readers (Mehrdad, Ahghar & Ahghar, 2012). The results of a slow start in reading store rapidly over time and become monumental and accumulate over time (Torgen, 1998). When we apply this to reading skills, good readers get good readers and poor readers get poor readers. They continue to face the reading problems at their advanced level. Hence, it is important to provide training on how to read focusing on reading strategy and strategy awareness. The most convincing finding of current studies in the reading area is that poor readers rarely catch up (Torgesen, 1998). According to Pugh et al. (2005), in many cases, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students proceed to the next grade without appropriate support. The students' failure to read in English dramatically increases with so many challenges (Fry, 2007). Therefore, these students need appropriate support (Mosisoli, 2010).

Failure to acquire reading skills early negatively affects the students' future reading performance. This can also lead to a loss of motivation to read. Matthew's effect is linked to failure to acquire early reading skills, which in turn causes a negative attitude towards reading,

reduces the opportunities for word development, reduces the opportunities for reading strategies development and leads to less practice of reading (Torgesen, 1998).

Nowadays, the psychology of learning has been moved from a behavioral perspective to the cognitive development perspective. The paradigm shift in learner-centered learning demands learners to process metacognitive skills (Awdah, Jasmeen & Alexander, 2017). These skills enhance their lifelong learning that takes place after school (Hinton, 2005). The prefix 'meta' is thinking about thinking, and it is an awareness of one's own thinking (Kuhn & Dean, 2004). There has been a great interest in the cognitive processes in learning to read while reading, especially in the area of metacognition (Alshay, 2002). Metacognition theory hypothesizes that the use of strategies enhances learners' reading comprehension, and assists them to develop the skills to control their own cognitive activities (Cattell, 1999). Besides, it helps them to be flexible in reading (Manset-iamson & Nelson, 2005). Metacognitive reading strategy is a conscious and planned technique readers use to monitor their reading processes. The readers' strategic reading is more dependent on the use of metacognitive reading strategies. Rieckhoff (1997) adds that how to think comes before thinking about thinking. Despite the roles of cognitive theory in developing reading skills, EFL students' reading skills problems are more alarming in developing countries where English language is taught as a Second Language (ESL) or as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Singhal, 1999).

There might be some potential factors that contributed to the students' reading problem in Ethiopia. For instance, Dawit (2014) found that little attention was given to the reading strategies instruction in Ethiopia. Teachers do not explicitly teach students relevant reading strategies useful for text comprehension, and they do not model to the learners when and how to apply those reading strategies. USAID (2010) concluded that the existing reading instruction approach in schools in Ethiopia was not helping students to develop their text understandings. The researcher of this study also experienced this as an English language teacher in different high schools and in universities, and his knowledge of the educational system as a student. In addition to this, the students he taught used to score low marks on reading tests most frequently; they took more time and energy to read materials written in English. He also observed that English teachers use only students' textbooks. They did not use other reading materials for the class or homework reading strategy practice. Although school libraries exist, the researcher observed that most of the students rarely used them. In the majority of the cases, there were not enough non-

academic reading materials to be read in the class. There was no free reading time in school and in the class.

Solomon (2014) states that students reading skills development can be dependent on the reading materials of their interest. Grade 11 students in Ethiopia learn the English language 200 minutes per week (for five days, each 40 minutes). In the classroom reading practice, the teachers ask them comprehension questions and require them to raise their hands to respond. If the students fail to answer, the teachers themselves give the correct answer. Reading practice in Ethiopian education is limited to teaching reading strategies such as skimming, scanning and contextual meaning guessing depending only on activities provided in the students' textbooks (Dawit, 2014). Dawit argues that when students are trained on how to guess the meanings of new words in context, their comprehension may still be low due to insufficient vocabulary knowledge. Besides, guessing from context does not necessarily result in long-term retention.

Teachers rarely teach students how to use different reading strategies so that the latter can read independently. Griffiths (2004) reminds us of the Chinese old proverb that goes, "Give a man a fish, and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish, and he eats for a lifetime" (p. 1). This proverb might be interpreted as the immediate problem is solved if students are provided with answers. However, if they are taught the reading strategies to work out the answers for themselves, they are empowered to manage their reading process. According to Wang and Koda (2007), EFL students' reading problems seem to be originating from the inadequate focus on developing their reading strategy awareness and use. The present researcher observed that English teachers seldom help their students with where, when, why, or how reading strategies should be used. An attempt was made in this study to give instruction on the nature and values of reading strategies supported by the classroom and out of the classroom reading practice.

Pani (2004) argues that the methods of teaching reading in which the students activate their background knowledge about a text topic, review vocabulary and answer comprehension questions might not elicit the kinds of behaviors that distinguish effective readers. Secondary school teachers increasingly emphasize content while neglecting instruction on how to read for learning, including how to make necessary adjustments in students' use of metacognitive reading strategies. Aljarf (2007) adds that EFL students fail to read if they lack metacognitive reading strategy instruction. She highlights that an increase in self-awareness of students' process of

reading is needed for them to make more efficient use of a wide range of strategic behavior. Lack of knowledge on how to use reading strategy is one of the reasons why students fail to read and understand, which in turn develops negative attitudes toward reading skills and even reading in the class.

Another problem that hinders students' reading skills is their lack of motivation towards reading. This might be because of unfamiliarity with the utilization of reading strategies. This can also reduce their reading comprehension and awareness about reading strategies (Salataki & Akyel, 2002). Tekle (2016) found that Grade 11 students' reading problems were due to different reasons such as limitations in reading comprehension ability, poor motivation to read, lack of reading strategy use and lack of access to reading resources. Research findings show that Ethiopian secondary school students do not benefit from the lesson because of lack of reading proficiency in English (Atakilti, 1997; Gessesse, 1999; Taye, 1999).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) stress the role of reading strategies by stating: "Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning directions"(p.8). Reading strategy awareness plays a significant role in reading comprehension and educational processes in general (Ahmadi, Ismail & Abdullah, 2013) and in reading motivation (Wang, 2009). Thus, there is a need to discover the potential effects of reading strategy instruction on students' reading achievements. Particularly, from his personal experiences, the researcher of this study believes that Western Shoa Zone Grade 11 students' reading deficiencies originated from the inadequate focus on reading strategy instruction. Therefore, this study added original contribution to existing knowledge by examining the effects of explicit instruction of reading strategy on the students reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception among Grade 11 Students of Ambo Preparatory School.

Most international studies on reading strategy instruction found positive effects of metacognitive strategy on reading comprehension whereas some found opposite results. For instance, in Indonesia, Pammu, Amir and Maasum (2014). found out that EFL learners use different metacognitive reading strategies, but their use of these reading strategies did not bring corresponding improvements in the observed reading performances. Besides, the effectiveness of cognitive reading strategy training and metacognitive reading strategy training on L2 reading

comprehension is not firmly established. For instance, Taylor et al. (2006) in a meta-analysis of 21 research studies found that 68% of training studies were effective in improving L2 students' reading comprehension, and there was no significant difference between training programs with cognitive reading strategies and metacognitive awareness training. In addition to this, Malone and Mastropieri's (1991) finding indicated that summarizing and self-monitoring reading strategies instruction improved their participants' strategic knowledge and reading comprehension performance. Wilkinson and Son (2011) investigated the effects of cooperative learning on reading strategies and found positive effects of cooperative learning on the students' reading comprehension. Similarly, reading strategy intervention by Morrison (2015) highlighted the potential impact of peer-led discussion groups on students' reading comprehension. However, some local studies noted that reading strategies, especially metacognitive reading strategies importance in classroom instruction have been deemphasized (Yohannes, 2013). In addition to this, Dawit (2014) claimed that the utilization methods of reading strategy instruction in the Ethiopian context were not enough. Most of the existing domestic studies are task-free rather than task-based (e.g. Abinet, 2011; Atakilti, 2011; Berhanu, 2004; Genene, 2011; Nardos, 2016; Nigussie, 2006; Mesfin, 2008; Rufeal, 2007; Yohannes, 2013).

Task-free researches are those in which the research participants only answer the survey questionnaires and interview while task-based researches uses intensive reading strategies instruction followed by survey questionnaires, with other instruments of data collection before and after the instruction (Cohen, 1998). Additionally, these studies suggest reading comprehension strategy instruction for developing students' reading skills. However, this instruction receives inadequate attention and time in most classrooms (Snow, 2002). Some of these local studies are conducted on the reading strategies used by different levels of students (Birhanu, 2004; Nigussie, 2006).Others have focused on the frequency of reading strategies used by EFL learners and the gender difference in using reading strategies mainly by preparatory school students (Rufeal, 2007). They found that many students in Ethiopia lack the reading skill necessary to meet their academic reading requirements (Abinet, 2011; Atakilti, 2011; Genene, 2011). Yohannes (2013) found that high school English language teachers' application of metacognitive reading was of a moderate level. Similar to this, Dawit's (2014) study identified that the practice of reading instruction in Ethiopian schools was not adequately taught to employ strategies during reading lessons. The national learning assessments made by the Ministry of

Ethiopia (MoE) (2008) indicated that the students' reading performance decreased from time to time. For instance, the students who completed Grade 8 reading performance revealed that reading comprehension achievement decreased from 2008 to 2004 (i.e. in 2008, mean = 43.9) compared with the 2004 SNLA (mean=64.5).

Several recent studies recommended that reading strategy explicit instruction is needed for Ethiopian secondary school students. One study identified that public school students had less intrinsic, curiosity and involvement in reading, and extrinsic, grade and recognition, purposes for reading when compared to non-public school (Tekle, 2016).Additionally, Mabratu (2014) conducted a study on the cognitive reading strategy instruction on Grade 10 students' reading comprehension by designing reading comprehension tests. The treatment group performed better in the reading test, and they were poor in guessing and deciding on the ideas of a text. Therefore, compensating this problem by increasing metacognitive reading strategy knowledge by teaching students how to apply those strategies is very important. Belilew (2015) investigated the relationship between the reading strategies university English major students used and their reading comprehension. His participants' reading comprehension was below what was expected of them. Their studies gave no attention to reading strategy instruction.

Benti, Temesgenand Alemayehu (2017) conducted a study on the effects of reading strategy training on Grade 9 students' academic reading achievement. They used a quasi-experimental research design. They extracted reading comprehension test from the students' textbooks, which measured prediction, scanning, skimming, inference and summarization strategies. Similar to the present study, they used CALLA as a reading strategy training model. Their study found that the students who participated in the strategy training increased their reading comprehension. Accordingly, the students in the comparison group scored (M=15.30, SD=1.99) and those in the experimental group scored (M=20.85 SD=3.12), t(96) =-10.314, p =.001.

Yenus (2018) conducted a study on the ''Conceptualizing Reading to Learn: Strategy Instruction and EFL Students' Reading Comprehension in Bahir Dar University students.'' The students in the experimental group participated in the explicit reading strategy instruction while the students in the control group did not participate in it. He gave training on the activating prior knowledge, prediction, pausing, questioning and summarizing for two months (half-semester). He prepared training material on these strategies. Reading comprehension questions consisted of vocabulary,

literal comprehension and inferential comprehension. Reading strategy instruction enhanced the students' reading comprehension scores since the students in the experimental group increased their reading comprehension from a mean of 58.27 to a mean of 62.73 while the mean scores for the control group students were similar both in pre-test and post-test, that is, 58.61 to 60.56.

Rahel, Tekle and Alemayehu (2018) also conducted a similar study on the effect of explicit reading strategy training on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension achievement and reading self-efficacy at Jimma Preparatory School. The students in the experimental group took part in the explicit reading strategy training while the students in the control group took part in the implicit reading strategy training. They used reading comprehension test and questionnaires to collect data for the study. The reading comprehension test was derived from TOEL online reading comprehension practice. The test's items were true/false, multiple choices and open-ended questions. To measure the students' reading self-efficacy, they adapted and used the motivation to read questionnaire. They found that the students who participated in explicit reading strategy training performed better in both reading comprehension and reading self-efficacy than students who participated in the implicit reading strategy training. The control group students scored similar results in both pre-test (M= 29.48) and post-test (M=31.93) in reading comprehension whereas the experimental group students scored differently in pre-post-test (31.92 to 68.60).

Likewise, Dawit (2014) conducted a study on the effect of explicit reading strategy instruction on reading comprehension of upper primary grade students. He used a quasi-experimental design. He used read, encode, annotate and ponder strategy to train students in the experimental group. He prepared the reading comprehension questions by himself, which consisted of 20 items (17 multiple-choice items and 3 open-ended questions). He prepared lesson plans, in which he evaluated the experimental group students' learning in each lesson while the control group students' learning of the lessons was assessed by using close-ended questions. The finding of his study indicated that the students in the experimental group improved their reading comprehension more than those of the control group. This study assumes that one of the cures for Ambo Preparatory School students' difficulty in reading and lack of reading motivation is providing successful reading strategy instruction. This kind of mode of intensive intervention may lead them to sufficient reading performance. This study also differs in including an

engagement to motivate the students reading, which leads to an increase in reading comprehension. Only reading strategies training is not enough to improve students' reading skills; they should practice. Secondary school students are not too late for training; they can benefit from the strategy intervention. Additionally, this study focuses on conducting instruction on multiple reading strategies instead of single cognitive reading to increase the students' reading comprehension, motivation to read, strategy awareness and perception among Grade 11 students of Ambo Preparatory School.

The researcher's teaching experience in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at all educational levels (elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges and universities), as well as the theoretical understanding gained through his doctoral, and his second-degree studies have initiated to study in this area. The first assumption is that the vital goal of this metacognitive reading strategy is to assist learners to be flexible readers, enjoy written texts and enhance their reading comprehension. Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) described the three types of metacognitive reading strategies as follows: global reading strategies are general strategies that direct readers starting the stages for reading tasks. Problem-solving strategies assist readers to remedy difficulties of understanding of what they read. Finally, supportive reading strategies are used as tools to maintain the approachability of reading. Therefore, this study filled the gap in the literature by employing a quasi-experimental study using both quantitative and qualitative methods to examine the effects of explicit instruction of these reading strategies on EFL students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. Main Objective

The main purpose of the present study was to examine the effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception among Grade 11 in Ambo town of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

To achieve the main objective, the study attempted to meet the following specific objectives:

1. To find out the effect of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension in Ambo Preparatory School.
2. To examine the effect of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' strategy awareness in Ambo Preparatory School.
3. To investigate the effect of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' motivation in Ambo Preparatory School.
4. To identify Grade 11 students' perception of metacognitive reading explicit instruction.

1.4. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study are mentioned as follows:

H1. There is a statistically significant difference in reading comprehension scores between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategies and those who are not.

H0: There is no statistically significant difference in reading comprehension scores between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those who are not.

H2. There is a statistically significant difference in the metacognitive reading strategy awareness between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those who are not.

H0: There is no statistically significant difference in the metacognitive reading strategies awareness between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategies and those who are not.

H3. There is a statistically significant difference in reading motivation scores between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those who are not.

H0: There is no statistically significant difference in reading motivation scores between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those who are not.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study have a bearing on both theoretical and methodological significances. In terms of its theoretical significance, the study set out to investigate the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on the students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness and motivation in EFL. This study may contribute to high school students'

reading strategy use and may provide useful insights and pedagogical implications for reading strategy instruction at preparatory school level. In terms of its methodological significance, it may enable teachers to provide learners with additional instructional support to help them become effective and strategic readers. English teachers may use the results of this study to assist their students by developing more effective lesson plans that incorporate metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The application of effective metacognitive reading strategies can improve learners' self-esteem since it assists them to become readers that are more proficient. Additionally, metacognitive reading strategy instructions could help the Ethiopian Ministry of Education to revise the reading curriculum toward developing students' reading abilities. Finally, other researchers can use the findings of this study as the basis for further research on the topic.

1.6. Scope of the Study

Scope in research refers to the specific boundary under which the study is conducted (Simon & Goes, 2013). This study was conducted in the Ethiopian EFL context. It focused on the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instructions on reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception among Grade 11 students in Oromia Regional State, Western Shoa Zone in Ambo Preparatory School, which is found in the Ambo Town. The population in the study is restricted to Grade 11 students of a public school. In this setting, the participants of this study can access to different reading materials in the school's library. In this school, the students easily access different reading resources such as the internet, which helps them to engage in out of the classroom reading strategy practice. The study included only Grade 11 students. The spatial delimitation (geographical boundary) is limited to preparatory school in Ambo town. Finally, there are several reading strategies that need to be included in the training. However, only the three types of metacognitive reading strategies were included for the explicit instruction in this study.

1.7. Limitations of the study

Limitations have to do with the potential weaknesses in a study (Creswell, 2003). Simon and Goes (2013) explain limitations as the issues and situations that take place in a study that is out of the researcher's control, but which may make a potential weakness in the study. This study used a quasi-experimental research design. This kind of design by nature suffers from the lack of

random assignment of participants, which leads to non-equivalent groups, which can limit the generalizability of the results to a larger population. It is a situation when researchers need to use intact groups because the setting prohibits forming artificial groups. After all, this approach introduces considerably more threats to internal validity than the true experiment (Creswell, 2014). Unlike in true experimental design, it is more difficult to control the experimental setting.

In this study, two sections were selected as treatment and comparison groups in one preparatory school. The potential threats of maturation, selection, mortality, and the interaction of selection with other threats are possibilities because the participants were not be randomly assigned to the groups. Besides, additional threats of history, testing, instrumentation also may occur. The participants were exposed to only two months, 8 weeks, 3 days, 50 minutes each day. If they were provided more time, they may practice and gain good insight into the reading strategies.

Pre-test scores as a covariate were used to minimize threats of the internal validity. In addition to this, each lesson plan was given to experts at Ambo University for maintaining the instructional materials' confidentiality. The study might be threatened by a limited number of participants, and an inability to generalize to all preparatory schools in Ethiopia. Qualitative data were gathered by interviews. It was difficult to include all of the participants in the interview. In this study, both external and internal threats were presented. Small number of convenience samples of 170 (82 treatment group and 88 comparison group) were included in the study. As a result, the results of this study could be generalized to other preparatory schools, which have similar characteristics. The time of the intervention, that is, after class or before class may affect the finding of the study. This study engaged students in after school time for explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy. The students who participated in an after school time instruction might not do all their best since after school time is tiresome.

The participants of this study were heterogeneous in terms of sex, age, family background and geographical (some from rural, others from urban and others from a private school). They brought wide ranges of physical, emotional, psychological personalities into the research. There is an assumption that these characteristics directly or indirectly affect the result of the present study. Additionally, the treatment length was only two months, the finding may not be generalized to the intervention that constitutes the two semesters in one academic year.

1.8. Definitions of Key Terms

Reading strategy: Reading strategies are reading techniques, behaviors and problem-solving techniques that make reading more effective and efficient (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). They are 'intentional, carefully planned techniques by which readers monitor or manage their reading' comprehension, actions and procedures that the readers use while working directly with a text. When they are applied to a foreign language reading context, they are processes used by the learners to improve reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures. Reading strategies are reading comprehension processes that learners as readers use for making sense of what they read (Brantmeier, 2002). According to Pole (2010), the reading strategy consists of three categories. The first strategy is called global reading strategy, which involves planning how to read and how to manage comprehension. Supportive strategies are the use of techniques to comprehend a reading text. Sheory and Mokhtari (2002) recoined strategy as global reading strategies while cognitive reading strategies were renamed as problem-solving reading strategies. Readers use them to overcome reading difficulties during reading. For example, slowing or speeding up or reading again/rereading are problem-solving reading strategies. The final one is supportive reading strategies, strategies such as taking notes using a dictionary.

Metacognitive: It is an awareness of thinking of thinking and control of thinking of the process of reading. Awareness and control are very helpful to comprehend reading texts.

Metacognitive reading strategies: They are behaviors carried out by readers for planning, arranging and evaluating their own reading (Singhal, 1999). These strategies are higher-order performances that include planning, monitoring and evaluating the success of one's learning (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). It is of interest not only for what they indicate about the ways students arrange their interaction with the context, but also for how the uses of strategy is related to effective reading comprehension (Mokharti & Reichard, 2002). This study uses the definition given by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) that metacognitive reading strategies are 'deliberate or intentional, conscious procedures, carefully planned techniques (p. 433).

Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) the three subscales of metacognitive reading strategies for metacognitive awareness of reading strategies inventory (MARSI) was included in the instruction. The first type of MARSI is global reading strategy, which is defined as intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading. The other type

of reading strategy in MARSI is problem-solving strategy that involves items that represent strategies for solving problems when texts become difficult to read. The last type of MARSI is supportive reading strategy, which Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) refer to as reading strategies as to the aids and tools used by readers to help them comprehend the text. Examples of each type of metacognitive reading strategy are mentioned under the 'Description of metacognitive reading strategy' in chapter two (section 2.20).

Reading comprehension: Reading comprehension refers to a student ability to understand the meaning of a text. For this study, reading comprehension was measured with a reading comprehension section of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The TOEFL is a well-known standardized English proficiency test for non-native English speakers. Particularly, it is intended to measure the academic language proficiency of L2 learners at a college level, which is modified to fit well to the purpose and context of this study. The general concept of comprehension is the ability to integrate new information with already existing knowledge (Urlaub, 2008). Understanding reading texts and comprehending text information are synonymous in this study.

Reading: Reading is communication with the writer and the writer's words. It is the interaction between the reading text and the reader. Reading motivation is high when there is direct communication between reader and author (Urlaub, 2008).

Metacognitive reading strategy awareness: Auerbach and Paxton (1997) define metacognitive awareness as the process "entailing knowledge of strategies for processing texts, the ability to monitor comprehension, and the ability to adjust strategies as needed" (p. 204-241). Reading skill is considered as a cognitive enterprise that involves three components, including readers, texts and activities (Snow & Sweet, 2001). In order to comprehend text successfully, readers must invoke the conscious use of reading strategies and the utilization of metacognitive awareness.

Reading motivation: Reading motivation is the force that initiates someone to read (Guthrie &Wigfield, 2000). Studies emphasize that students may not engage in reading activities if they are not motivated to read (Watkins & Goffey, 2004). In addition to this, motivated readers are readers who have a positive attitude towards reading; they are appropriately motivated to read,

they can coordinate their strategy and knowledge and engage more in self-initiated reading to fulfill their personal goals, desires or intentions (Lau, 2009).

Explicit instruction: Explicit instruction is also known as direct instruction, which refers to explaining or defining strategy for the students; how the strategy works when it works and how to improve reading performance while reading. Explicit instruction is a program in which students learn systematically through organizing learning step-by-step contents of reading strategies. Kaplan-Dolgoy (1998) explains it in terms of reviewing, checking for understanding, reteaching when needed. It includes activities such as explanation, guided practice and independent practice. According to Harris et al. (2008), explicit strategy instruction may be the key to producing learners who can skillfully and flexibly apply strategies as needed to improve reading comprehension performance. The goal of reading is comprehension. The goal of direct instruction is to improve reading comprehension (Banner, 2007).

Explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction: Cohen (1998) coined the term explicit instruction, where the trainer fully informs the reading strategy's definition, value, importance, how to use, and how to transfer to new situations after classroom teaching. Direct metacognitive reading strategy instruction in this study includes making participants cognitively aware of the higher-order skills when they engage in reading texts after supplying them with particular metacognitive reading strategies. In this study, explicit instruction is defined as explaining what metacognitive reading strategy is, when and where to use, how to use, and why it is used. Then, supporting them on using the strategies could restore their understanding of texts they read in various ways.

Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA): CALLA is a content-based reading strategy instruction model (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). In this study, the contents of instructional materials are taken from students' textbooks and content areas like texts derived from TOEFL online reading comprehension practice.

Perception and attitudes: Perception and attitudes are different. Perception is concerned with whether or not understanding something takes place while attitude is concerned with liking or disliking something.

The conventional way of teaching reading: As stated earlier, the students in the comparison group followed the teaching of metacognitive reading strategy conventionally. The conventional way of teaching is similar to the traditional way of teaching. The conventional way of teaching in this study refers to most of the activities are done by the trainer. The trainer used chalk and board while the students used pen and paper. The students learned through listening to the whole class lecture method. The trainer used the lecture method, examples, questions and answers.

It is also known as teacher-centered approach of teaching (McCarthy & Anderson, 2000). According to Kimweri (2004), teacher-centered approach is the process of communication where very little participation of learners. Teachers dominate teaching learning process. The students learn without any participation in the classroom. The teacher manages all the transmission and imparting of knowledge process; the students passive role of listening and doing only what the teacher dictates to them. In conventional way of teaching, teaching is anti-dialogue (Bowen, 2007).

1.9. Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the study. The chapter started with the introduction of the chapter. Following this, the background of the study explained the context of the study. The next section, statement of the problem, clarified the rationale of the study and identified the gaps to be filled in this study. The objectives of the study were explained preceding the hypotheses of the study. Next, significance of the study, a section the detailed the potential benefits. Next to this, the scope of the study and the limitation of the study were explained. Finally, the structure of the study was concluded before chapter two.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of metacognitive reading strategy direct instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation to read and perception. This chapter reviews relevant literature related to these dependent variables. It also reviews previous research findings regarding the importance of metacognitive reading strategy, classification of metacognitive strategy, assessing reading strategy, studies on metacognitive reading strategy instruction, metacognitive reading strategy awareness, the definition of reading motivation, types of reading motivation, perception and its measurement and cognitive academic language learning approach. This chapter provides a framework for the study.

2.1. Historical Background of Reading Strategy

The 1970s research in the reading strategy area concentrated on behaviors of successful learners and less successful learners (Alberta, 2002). Stern (1975, 1978) and Rubin (1975, 1981) were well-known researchers in reading strategy in the 70s and the 80s.Rubin (1975) published, in TESOL Quarterly, a study on ''what the good language learner can teach us?'' Stern and Rubin used classroom observation, their teaching experiences, and their beliefs to obtain data about students' reading strategy use (Alberta, 2002). Their findings indicated that good learners use varieties of reading strategies including top-down strategies, while poor or less successful learners use bottom-up reading strategies. However, reading strategy researchers in 1980 onward realized the importance of strategy instruction to produce strategic readers (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Jones et al. (1987) recommended that one reason for students' learning failure was a lack of strategy training in the classroom. Therefore, the importance of training in reading strategy use is paramount for our students.

2.2. Reading Strategy Instruction and Research in Ethiopia

Education policy needs to address the all-round demands of people in order to solve society's problems. To achieve this, the Ethiopian education policy should be integrated with other

bodies such as scientific researchers, practitioners and other development agencies. One of the objectives of this policy is to create students with high problem-solving abilities. It also acknowledges that the inclusion of contents that develop the learners' cognitive skills and change their behaviors is important to enhance their problem-solving abilities (ETP, 1994).

Dawit (2014) designed a reading instructional intervention targeting upper grade students in Ethiopia to examine the effects of the instruction on students' reading comprehension. He concluded that explicit reading strategy instruction significantly improved the students' reading comprehension. Dawit also observed that the current practice of teaching reading in Ethiopia was 'traditional', where the lessons typically involve teacher-led whole-class activities: asking comprehension questions after students read a text silently, teacher evaluation of students' answers and teacher presentation of the correct answers afterward. Additionally, Yohannes (2013) administered Mokhari and Sheorey's (2002) Survey of Reading Strategies (SOS) to 152 grade 9 students. He found that Grade 9 students' cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies use was low. He also found that secondary school teachers' teaching of reading strategy practice was of 'moderate' level. He observed the seriousness of students' reading problems. Learning strategy in general and reading strategy in particular did not receive attention in Ethiopia despite the learning strategy's emergence in the 1970s.

Mebratu (2014) conducted a quasi-experimental study to investigate the effects of cognitive reading strategy instruction on high school EFL students' reading comprehension. He prepared a reading comprehension test and tried to show the test's reliability using Brown's formula of reliability checker. He used pre-test and post-test and found that the cognitive reading strategy instruction had positive effects on the students' reading comprehension. Aragaw (2015) also investigated the effects of cooperative learning instruction on grade 9 students' reading comprehension at Meshentie High School, which is found in Arba Minch, Ethiopia. He used non-equivalent pre-test-post-test control quasi-experimental research design. Aragaw found that cooperative learning instruction had a positive effect on the students' reading comprehension.

2.3. Definitions and Features of Learning Strategies

There is no clear cut definition of learning strategies. Language learning strategies are powerful instruments, which can lead to self-confidence in language use and learning in general (Oxford,

1990). Oxford defines learning strategies in English as a Second/Foreign language (ESL/EFL) context as steps or actions taken by language learners to increase any aspect of their learning. Sindik (2011) also defines learning strategy as ‘’...specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed and more transferable to new situations’’ (p, 1). They are mental operations that readers use to regulate their efforts to learn the language (Wenden, 1991). Mahdavinia and Panahi (2013) define learning strategies as ‘’learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task used by students to enhance their own learning’’ (p. 1). Similarly, Oxford (1990) also defines learning strategies as behaviors that learners engage in to learn and to comprehend.

Learning strategies are clearer if their characteristics are explained. According to Mahdavinia and Panahi, a learning strategy can be observable or non-observable, conscious or unconscious. English teachers and students should be aware of these natures and definitions of learning strategies. Some strategies cannot be observed, because they refer to internal and mental processes (Bracho, 2007). Examples of observable learning strategies are cooperation and note taking while examples of non-observed learning strategies are guessing, predicting and inferencing (Mahdavinia & Panahi, 2013; Oxoford, 1990).

Students' metacognition use can be identified by using self-reporting scales. Whitbread et al (2009) also comment that we can understand learners' metacognitive strategy use depending on the subjects’ verbal reports. The verbal report compensates for the unobserved metacognitive learning strategies. Thus, learning strategy can be conclude that learning strategies are deliberate, goal-directed actions which can be either conscious or unconscious or automatic, goal-directed mental processes and steps taken by learners to learn the language. English teachers and students should be aware of these natures and definitions of learning strategies. According to Graham (1997), acquisition of learning strategy depends on the autonomy of learners that is characterized by planning, controlling and self-evaluating their learning.

2.4. Classifications of Learning Strategy

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researches categorized L2 learning strategies based on their definitions. Most of the reviewed literatures have supported the classifications of the learning strategies into six different categories, which were done by Oxford (1990). These categories

include cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensatory, affective and social strategy. Anderson (2003) classifies them into seven by adding memory and self-motivating to Oxford's classification. Stern (1992) also categorizes them into four types. These are planning strategy, management strategy, cognitive strategy and affective strategy. Direct and indirect learning strategies are other classifications of language learning strategy (Oxford, 1990). According to Oxford, indirect learning strategies "provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means." (p. 151). Griffiths (2004) categorizes direct learning strategies into memorization, monitoring, deductive reasoning, guessing or inductive inference, practice, clarification or verification while indirect learning strategies are two types: production tricks and creating opportunities for practice. The other researchers (e.g. Oxford & Chamot, 1990; Cohen, 1999) classified L2 learning strategies into two distinct categories, that is, cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies.

Oxford and Chamot's (1990) classification was based on information processing theory and cognitive psychology. Metacognitive directs, controls and regulates learning to the desired level the learning process of learners (Rahim & Katal, 2011). It involves activities such as planning, monitoring, controlling and evaluating whether learning occurred or not. Learners' use of learning strategy depends on the automatic application of this strategy. All reviewed resources supported the positive role of learning strategy instruction on the learners' academic achievements. It determines how well our students develop their English language skills (Oxford, 2003). If they learn how to consciously and actively regulate the strategies, they become strategic learners. There is evidence that metacognitive strategy instruction on students' foreign language learning is more effective than other learning strategies since it helps the students to regulate their learning independently. It increases the magnitude of learners' foreign language acquisition (Anderson, 2003).

It is important to discuss the difference between cognitive, metacognitive, memory, affective, compensation and social strategies. To begin with, cognitive strategy helps readers in managing language learning. More specifically, it includes techniques like note-taking, summarizing, rephrasing, forecasting, analyzing and context clues using (Singhal, 1999). The second type of learning strategy is metacognitive reading strategy in which present study is concerned with.

Tavakoli (2014) considers metacognitive reading strategy as high-order thinking skills that enable learners to plan, monitor and evaluate reading. As to Romzano (2010), the metacognitive reading strategy is self-regulating and self-monitoring activities. It also includes one's perception if he or she can read and understand what he or she reads. Additionally, it comprises when and how to use reading strategies. This is why Tavakoli argues that learners without metacognitive reading strategy are learners who have no direction for future learning opportunities. According to Oxford (1990), memory strategy is used to help the learners' to remember and retrieve information. This strategy includes techniques such as mental image creation and association and usage of important/keywords, an association of words and context usage (Singhal, 1999).

The other type of learning strategy is compensation strategy. This strategy needs skills or techniques like reference, context guessing during reading and using a dictionary (Singhal, 1999).The students use affective strategies for encouraging themselves and for minimizing the fear of learning. The last learning strategy, according to Oxford, is social strategy. The learners use this strategy to cooperate with mates or teachers, to ask for correction and to ask for feedback. Social reading strategy helps readers to discuss with each other what they read (Younus & Khan, 2017). In light of the above classifications of learning strategies, this study focuses on metacognitive strategy instruction, specifically the reading strategy that was suggested by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001). They divided metacognitive reading strategy into three categories: global, problem-solving and supportive reading strategies. According to Livingstone (1997), metacognitive strategy instruction bestows the knowledge of cognitive strategies, too.

Several studies followed these classifications. According to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2001), global reading strategies are intentional, carefully planned techniques readers use to monitor or manage their reading. Examples of global reading strategies are preview texts, use of topography, use of tables and figures and charts. Problem-solving reading strategies are actions and procedures taken by readers while reading a text. Active readers use these strategies when they face problems in comprehending information or when texts are difficult to understand. Some of the examples of problem-solving reading strategies are adjusting speed, guessing new words and rereading. The other types of reading strategy is supportive reading strategy, which

is defined as technique or action readers take for aiding understanding the text. Use of a dictionary, taking notes, highlighting and underlining the reading texts for better understanding are examples of supportive reading strategies (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

2.5. Definition and Characteristics of Reading Skills

Reading skills can be defined as a complex process that requires ability to build/extract meaning from written texts (Grabe & Stoller, 2014). It is a cognitive enterprise. This means reading is the interaction among the readers, the texts and the contexts of reading (Mokhtari, Sheorey & Reichard, 2008). According to Grabe (2009), the definition of reading should take into account various processes involved in the reading process. In classroom instruction and practice, reading should be defined based on the levels of the learners (Wei-hua, 2007). For example, for beginners, reading skill is word recognition and understanding the basic meaning of texts. It deepens the comprehending of reading texts from main ideas and textual organizations for intermediate readers. For advanced readers, reading includes not only interpretation but also critical evaluation. Reading is considered as the most complicated cognitive process for advanced learners. It is a higher mental process that includes thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning and problem-solving (Hoover & Gough, 1990).

Reading skill has several characteristics. First of all, it is purposeful, which can be for entertaining, getting information, researching and the like. The purpose of reading is to motivate readers while reading (Clark, 2017). Reading for information is different from reading for recreation. The ability required for integrating different ideas, detailed understanding and supporting ideas and ability for passing time is different. Many components of reading work are cooperative including metacognitive reading strategies during the reading process (Taguch & Gorsuch, 2012). It is not a straight-line process (Sheorey & Mokhtai, 2008). The integration of lower level-processing skills with higher-order processing skills is very important in reading instruction. Additionally, its flexibility allows readers to use several reading strategies to finish reading task effectively. The flexibility of reading should be developed by classroom instruction systematically (Fountain & Pinell, 2001). Burns et al. (1984) suggest that to achieve the purposes of reading comprehension, one should have some basic reading skills as follows: (1) literal skills (getting the central thought and the main idea, recalling and recognizing of facts and information, finding answers to specific questions), (2) interpretive skills (drawing

conclusions, generalizing, deriving meaning from context), (3) critical skill (determining the writer's purpose) and (4) creative skills (applying information into daily life). In general, reading skills involve a variety of variables such as cognitive and linguistic skills, nonlinguistic skills, lower-level processing skills and higher-level processing skills.

2.6. Definition of Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is a complex process, multidimensional and encompasses manifold entwined features. Reading comprehension is the process of bringing meaning to a text; it is not of getting meaning from the text (Meneghetti et al., 2006). In a similar way, McNamara (2007) defines reading comprehension as understanding the relationship between ideas in reading texts. It is also defined in terms of the cognitive process. It is meaning making/construction i.e. it is conceptual and inferential meaning construction (Bracho, 2007). Therefore, measuring reading comprehension requires text and word level constructs (Clark, 2017).

Understanding reading is a result of the readers' knowledge about what they know about and which skills and strategies are suitable for the diverse kinds of texts and to understand how to apply the strategies to accomplish the reading purposes (Meneghetti et al., 2006). Among many essential factors that enhance readers' understanding of the text is the ability to use metacognitive reading strategies, which leads readers through the way to work with reading texts (Salataki & Akyel, 2002).

Generally, the goal of reading is comprehension while the goal of direct instruction is to improve reading comprehension (Banner, 2007). Direct instruction of the metacognitive reading strategy in this study is used to improve the students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction.

2.7. Comprehension Difficulties in Reading

There are many problems hindering reading comprehension in an L2: lack of knowledge of reading strategy, type of texts, reading motivation, teaching method, school and social environments and students' intelligence (Norizul & Rashid, 2001). Unfamiliarity with the utilization of metacognitive reading strategy is one of the problems of the reading processes that reduces reading comprehension, reading rate, awareness about reading strategies and

language proficiency (Salataki & Akyel, 2002). The success of learners in comprehending a text is very much dependent on their levels of awareness about learning strategies because it enables them to figure out things when they face difficult in reading (Anderson, 2002). Lau and Chan (2003) suggest that a lack of reading strategy knowledge leads to reading word by word that decreases the readers' understanding of texts. Consequently, intensive reading strategy training is needed for L2/EFL learners to enhance their reading strategy awareness that facilitates reading comprehension.

In sum, students experience poor reading comprehension because of their lack of reading strategies, problems in using their background knowledge, lack of vocabulary knowledge and lack of metacognitive reading skills and so on.

2.8. Assessing Reading Comprehension

Assessing learners' reading comprehension depends on their levels. Assessing reading at the elementary level contains elements such as fluency, word recognition, decoding, spelling, phonics, oral reading fluency and passage recognition (Clark, 2017). There is a difference between learning to read and reading to learn. Elementary students may be asked to infer meaning from the texts or the ability to locate ideas (Chall & Jacob, 2003). However, secondary school students may be asked comprehension that comprises multivariate elements. They may be asked to identify the levels of comprehension tasks: literal understanding, inferential understanding and critical understanding levels (Stahl & McKenna, 2009). Clark suggests cloze and multiple choice questions formats are used to assess reading comprehension. The cloze test format requires readers to fill deleted words/ideas in the passage. The use of multiple test formats has advantages for reliability, validity and versatility (Brames, 2013). Therefore, teachers should consider the type of text, learners' learning styles and test formats when measuring students' reading comprehension.

2.9. Definitions of Reading Strategy and Its Characteristics

Different scholars offered various definitions of reading strategy. Garner (1987) defines reading strategies as "generally deliberate, planned activities which are undertaken by active learners…." (p. 50) ...to achieve particular goals or objectives" (p. 692). Similarly, National Reading Panel (2000) defines reading strategy as '' specific procedures that guide learners to

become aware of how well they are comprehending as they attempt to read...'' (p. 40). The term procedure in this definition refers to procedural knowledge, which controls the reading strategy usage. In general, our definition of reading strategy should be according to our reading purpose (Park, 2010).

Among many classifications of reading strategies, this study focused on the metacognitive reading strategy, which controls and regulates the learning process of the learners. It involves activities such as planning learning, monitoring learning, controlling learning and then evaluating whether learning occurred or not (Rahim & Katal, 2011). The details of classifications of reading strategy are given under section 2.5 'Classifications of learning strategy'. Moreover, metacognitive reading strategy increases the magnitude of learners' foreign language acquisition (Anderson, 2003).The instruction of this strategy leads learners to be strategic readers. Rahim and Katal's study identified that metacognitive strategy instruction on students' foreign language learning is more effective than other learning strategies. The reason is that it helps them to regulate their own L2 learning.

2.10. Explicit Teaching of Reading Strategy

Direct teaching of reading is instructing first-hand facts to learners through meaningful teachers' and students' interactions. Viliame and Braham (2003) identifies six importance of teaching objectives: (1) view and evaluate last works, (2) present new materials, (3) deliver directed exercises, (4) offer reaction for improvements, (5) make available self-governing rehearsals and (6) offer timely reviews. Therefore, the teaching of reading strategy should be related to these objectives (Rosenshine & Stevens, 1995). Moreover, the objective of the lesson is very essential in order to aware learners of certain lessons. After the objectives are established, they must be presented explicitly for the learners to make them aware of them in their reading and learning processes. Direct or explicit instruction got popularity since the 1980s when the majority of learners would pass to the next education without learning what is required of them (Weaver, 2012). It was first started to train students with reading disabilities. But now it is appropriate for any grade level (Eagleman, et al., 2007)

Explicit teaching of reading strategy gives the necessary skills and knowledge that enables students to achieve in academics and success in career development (Linday, 2010). In this

kind of training, the students learn specific tasks that are broken down into specific activities (Weaver, 2012). It consists of fast effective corrective feedback, reinstructing if needed and systematically covering the intended elements. It also needs supports like visual for auditory learners. For instance, when teaching specific reading strategies, teachers need to write new vocabulary on the board. In addition to this, the teaching techniques should vary (Texas Education Agency, 2004). Several previous studies showed that metacognitive reading instruction is positively affected by the classroom methods and teachers' instructional materials (Joseph, 2010). The metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction also promotes the students thinking skills to use in their academic purpose and their future life (Moi, 2000).

To conclude, explicit teaching of reading strategy bestows the necessary reading comprehension skills. The teaching of reading strategy should be related to view and evaluate last works, present new materials, deliver directed exercises, offer reaction for improvements, make available self-governing rehearsals and offer timely reviews.

2.11. Steps in Reading Strategy Instruction

The sequences by which reading strategies need to be instructed are recommended indifferent instruction models. The step of reading strategy instruction depends on the models the researcher or the teacher planned to apply based on the instruction contexts (Ozeki, 2000). According to Ozeki, the first step should be investigation of the learners' current strategy use. This can be done by observing the learners' strategy use by using verbal reports such as interviews, diaries and written questionnaires.

Ozeki further recommends that the integration of two or more verbal reports seem successful to investigate the students' strategy use. Furthermore, tests of performance should be prepared for examining the development of the reading improvement for the students who received the reading strategy instruction. Then, after examining the students' current reading strategy use, the teachers need to decide which reading strategies they train to their students. Then, the teachers should prepare texts and tasks for reading strategy instruction. In order to integrate reading strategy training with the courses, the teachers need to prepare modules or handouts for the instruction (Ozeki, 2000). When advising teachers, Ozeki (2000) comments that the teachers should inform the values and purposes of the reading strategy instruction at the

beginning of the instruction. For example, in reading classes, the teachers need to explain clearly to their students that they are going to learn reading strategies to improve their reading skills. In real classroom teaching, the trainer should introduce new strategies by naming, explaining and modeling them.

The students should practice new strategies with the help of teachers. When they practice the strategies, they need to practice them with clues. The practice should be continued and reduced until the students use them without clues. If the students are accustomed to the new strategies, they need to apply to comparable reading tasks based on the degree of their learning of the strategies. After the instruction is accomplished, the data about information such as the students' attitude towards the strategy instruction, strategy learning or improvement, strategy usage, strategy durability, and strategy transfer to other tasks should be collected. Based on this evaluation, the teachers may get the opportunity to revise the instruction (Ozeki, 2000).

2.12. Importance of Direct Reading Strategy Instruction

Metacognitive instruction is affected by classroom methods and teachers' instructional materials (Joseph, 2010). If participants of the study are properly instructed on metacognitive reading strategies, they can easily monitor their reading. The metacognitive reading strategy instruction also promotes their thinking skills to use in their academic purposes and their future life (Moi, 2000). The major purpose of metacognitive reading strategy instruction is to increase students' strategy awareness, understanding text structures, monitoring comprehension, previous strategy use and the like (Althewini, 2016).Reading strategy learning develops positive attitudes toward reading and increases the students' world knowledge (Mccornik, 2003). Macaro (2001) also found out that metacognitive reading strategy instruction increases the students' motivation to read. Direct instruction assists learners to recall facts, generating self-questioning, identifying main ideas of texts, especially for low-achiever students (Snow, 2002).

Metacognition in general and metacognitive reading strategies in specific are teachable and trainable for strugglers in their learning (Cook, 2001). According to Bialystok (1990), ''strategies are teachable" (p.131). There are many different issues related to the types of reading strategy instruction. One category is whether the reading strategy is integrated with content instruction or not. The other is whether the reading instruction's purpose is informed to

the students before the instruction or not. There is controversy among researchers on whether teachers should inform the values and purposes of the strategy instruction or not. Informing the values of strategy instruction refers to informing the students about declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge of the instruction (Ozeki, 2000). This means training on what of the strategy, why it is important and where and when it is used in reading (Oxfors, 1990; Rubin & Thompson, 1994). On the contrary, embedded reading strategy instruction is helping the students to work on tasks prepared for the strategy use (Ozeki, 2000).

In this study, informed (direct) reading strategy instruction seems more important than embedded reading strategy instruction because informed strategy instruction helps the students to become autonomous readers. Previous studies also support the idea that strategy training should be informed rather than embedded (Oxford, 1990).

Generally, whether the reading strategy is integrated or separated, the aim is to develop learners' independent reading abilities since they need to continue their career on their own after completing their formal education. The students get benefit if reading strategies are integrated into classroom instruction.

2.13. Roles of Teachers in the Direct Reading Strategy Instruction

Effective teachers provide varied, meaningful practice to ensure that their learners' control over and transmission of certain strategies to other reading contexts. The teachers need to be active, reflective trainers so that they can help the students to be strategic readers (Villaume & Brabham, 2003). EFL teachers should make supportive efforts during metacognitive strategy teaching so that they can develop confidence in their students for learning (Vaca, 2002). Rosenshine (1995) elaborates that teachers need to instruct learners what they required to recognize (what they lack). Joseph (2010) argues that lessons for reading strategy instruction should be an ongoing explanation of each strategy. Joseph adds that the students must be encouraged to participate in the reading strategy learning. The teachers should also assess their students' reading strategy learning, for example, they need to ask their students to reflect on their strategy practice after classroom direct explanation before they start new lessons (Paris, 2001).

Research findings suggest that teachers should be aware of reading strategies before teaching their students (Klapwijk, 2012). The teachers themselves should know the strategies available

and many instructional methods for promoting the students' reading understanding and arousing their interests towards reading and encouraging their attention to reading comprehension, developing text-decoding skills and supporting them to complete comprehension-based reading tasks successfully in a given time (Farstrup, 2002).

Generally, reading strategy is not fixed. It can be changed. This can be done by building students' awareness over time. The practical use of reading strategy instruction can facilitate students' reading comprehension, reading proficiency and reading strategy use.

2.14. Conventional way of teaching reading strategy

Conventional way of teaching reading strategy is synonymous with traditional way of teaching. It is also known as teacher-centered approach of teaching (McCarthy & Anderson, 2000). According to Kimweri (2004), teacher-centered approach is the process of communication where very little participation of learners. Teachers dominate teaching learning process. The students learn without any participation in the classroom. The teacher manages all the transmission and imparting of knowledge process; the students passive role of listening and doing only what the teacher dictates to them (Bowen, 2007). In conventional way of teaching, teaching is anti-dialogue.

Content in teacher-centered teaching is established by a curriculum, and all learners study the same topics at the same time. The topic of study is typically isolated and disconnected from each other. When it comes to assessment, learners take paper-and-pencil exams, silently and alone.

2.15. Metacognition

Metacognition is a deposited experience, mind characteristic and abstract idea that lead to high levels of thinking of learners (Rahimi & Katal, 2011). Rahimi and Katal consider it a '*seventh sense'* (p, 36). The two concepts, that is, metacognitive strategy and metacognition knowledge are components of metacognition. Rahimi and Katal describe the former as a process of connecting new learning tasks to old tasks, choosing suitable thoughtful strategies that involve the process of planning, monitoring and error correction and evaluating learning. They also suggest that the application of this strategy for the adult learner is very important in foreign language development. Furthermore, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) point out that "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to

plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning directions". Metacognitive strategies help learners to know themselves and the activities they are doing which in turn leads them to achieve high in learning (Rahimi & Katal, 2011). Metacognition includes readers' awareness of strategies and their regulating of thinking (Connel, 2016). Livingston (1997) discusses the similarity of cognition and metacognition as cognition is a strategy use to arrive at desired goals while metacognition is the use of strategy, goal completion and selection of strategy tasks.

Flavell is considered as the father of metacognition, who created metacognition as a framework in strategy instruction (Connel, 2016). Literatures provide skills required in metacognition, which learners use in learning. The metacognition in reading looks for learners to make more awareness of their successes and failures in learning. Self-awareness enables learners to monitor their learning and to become more engaged in the curriculum (Livingstone, 1997). Metacognitive reading strategies include planning, monitoring and evaluating learning. This means that readers can use metacognitive reading strategies in pre-reading, while reading and post-reading tasks. Reflection practice, for example, can be used before and after reading (Connel, 2016). The three strategies planning, monitoring and evaluating strategies are comprehension strategies. Pre-reading strategies are scanning texts, making predictions and confirming strategies by using previous experiences, set purpose and creating mental pictures, which might be used in combination with each other or in isolation (Liang & Seipho, 2012).

The other skill that readers need to acquire in metacognition is strategy awareness. This skill helps learners as a tool to become aware of when and how to use those strategies effectively (Livingstone, 1997). The skill consists of applying and evaluating strategies (Connel, 2016). Learners who are skillful in strategy awareness know strategies by name, can describe how to use them and know how to apply them (Kennedy, 2010). In order to check reading comprehension, the students may use the questioning strategy, predicting based on the reading contexts, recognizing text structures, confirming whether their predictions are right predictions. In addition to these, taking effective notes could also be used to monitor understanding of reading (Romzano, 2010).

After the completion of the while-reading phase, the readers involved in assessing their strategy uses. The readers evaluate whether the goal they set is achieved, a prediction confirmed or not,

etc. These are some activities utilized in this stage (Liang & Seipho, 2012). Evaluating strategies is also called post-reading or after reading strategies. Self-questioning strategy can be used in the three phases i.e. pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading (Romzano, 2010).

In short, explicit instruction of metacognitive need to pass through stages of planning, monitoring and evaluating. In the three stages, teachers need to help their students use different metacognitive reading strategies.

2.16. Metacognition Reading strategy Instruction

The term metacognition was devised in 1976 by Flavell, American psychologist of developmental psychology. Flavell was interested in how a person controls his or her cognition process and conscious moves. Flavell describes metacognition in terms of the knowledge of cognitive process and the outcomes or results related to the process. The concept of metacognitive instruction emerged in cognitive psychology (Flavell, 1979).

There are two dimensions in metacognition: knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. There are three issues in knowledge of cognition: declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge. The first factor in the knowledge of cognition is one's knowledge on abilities and significant behaviors, which hinder cognitive processing. For instance, knowing or understanding what of reading strategy is declarative knowledge. The second, procedural knowledge, is knowing how to implement the strategy. The last knowledge in the knowledge of cognition is procedural knowledge. It is the knowledge of when, where, how and why to use certain reading strategies. It also includes assessing the effectiveness of strategy use. The second dimension of metacognition is the regulation of cognition. Regulation is planning, monitoring, testing, revising and evaluating of learning strategy in learning (Iwai, 2011).

Metacognition, which is thinking about thinking, is crucial to reading and understanding (Ballou, 2012). As the readers think about reading, they are compelled to use reading strategies cognitively (Iwai, 2011). According to Ballou (2012), failure to use a metacognitive reading strategy leads to poor reading comprehension. Therefore, direct instruction of metacognitive reading strategy helps learners to use the strategy more effectively, especially the use of different reading strategy instruction models develops not only the learners' reading comprehension but also their critical thinking skills. Despite the importance of reading strategy

instruction on students' reading achievements, many teachers assume that students can develop their reading ability by reading more and more solely (Pressley, 2006).

Overall, metacognitive reading strategy and reading strategy instruction go hand-in-hand. This is because reading strategy instruction helps learners to use, manage and control their reading comprehension. Researchers found that there is a correlation between metacognitive reading strategy knowledge and its application in actual use. Therefore, direct instruction of metacognitive reading strategy helps learners to use the strategy more effectively, especially the use of different reading strategy instruction models develops not only the learners' reading comprehension but also their critical thinking skills.

2.17. International Studies on Metacognitive Reading Strategy Instruction

Connel (2016) argues that metacognitive instruction should be core of learning strategy. For instance, Prado and Ploude (2011) trained their samples on visualization, self-questioning and inferring and found a significant improvement after the strategy instruction. They recommended that if the students are trained as early as possible, they develop a more positive attitude and motivation toward learning (Liang & Seipho, 2012). Moreover, if the students are instructed explicitly by incorporating out of classroom practice, their application of the strategy in the new context is high (Connel, 2016). As mentioned earlier, this study is concerned with teaching metacognitive reading strategies to see how they affect Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation to read and perception of reading strategy explicit instruction. The study used three types of metacognitive reading strategies. These are global reading strategies, problem-solving reading strategies and supportive reading strategies (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

Strategy transfer describes the occurrence of existing strategy knowledge and the development of new strategy learning. Language transfer needs some other language skills development or acquisition before asking students to transfer the skills (Urlaub, 2008). For instance, the acquisition of how to use reading strategies is very important to transfer the strategies to other situations. In addition, the acquisition of linguistic skills is also necessary to help the learners to transfer one skill to other tasks. Transferability of metacognitive reading strategy can be seen in different ways. Its transferability can be from one task to another task. It can also be transferred from one language to another (Graham & Macaro, 2008; Freeman & Freeman, 2009). But, the

strategy transfer is only possible when the readers are aware of the reading/learning strategies (Chamot, 2005; Wenden, 1999). Chamot (2001) also states that strategy explicit instruction helps the readers to transfer strategy even back to native language. Aghaie and Zhang (2012) identified that the strategy instruction in native language and L2 improved the reading comprehension in L2. They also found that their participants transferred metacognitive reading strategy and cognitive reading strategy to other tasks and additional language.

Metacognitive strategies are activities that make students conscious of their thinking as they read texts. To be a strategic reader, it needs time, effort, careful planning and persistence (Paris, Lipson, & Wixon, 1983). This means that the results of the training are best seen if it is carried out continuously for long times. Additionally, Hamzeh and Abdullah (2009) examined metacognitive strategies in two skills of reading and writing on college students by training metacognitive strategies for a six-month training program. Their participants applied these strategies in their reading and writing activities and performed better than those who did not receive the strategy instruction. In addition to explaining why reading strategies are valuable, and how and when to use the strategies, English teachers should model and scaffold (NRP, 2000).These instructional strategies help to nurture the learners reading skills (Meichenbaum & Biemiller, 1998). In general, international studies on metacognitive reading strategy instruction evidenced that metacognitive instruction is a core of learning reading strategies.

2.18. Description of Metacognitive Reading Strategy

Metacognition is both readers' awareness and control of what they do, not only their cognitive process but their feelings and motivation (Louca, 2003). The metacognitive reading theory posits that metacognitive reading strategy development promotes readers' reading monitoring skills, and helps them to regulate their own cognitive processes. Therefore, an advanced degree of metacognitive awareness is very important for learners to use reading strategies more proficiently. Previous studies on reading strategies revealed that the metacognitive aspect of reading strategy was one way of differentiating good and poor readers (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2001). Therefore, the use of a reading strategy depends on whether the strategy is employed metacognitively or not. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) classifythe reading strategy into three categories: global, problem-solving and supportive reading strategies (p.436). The following table shows the reading strategies in each of the three categories:

Table 2.1: Lists of reading strategies in each of the three categories (GLOB, PROB and SUP) of MARSI

Metacognitive Reading Strategy	**1. GLOBAL READING STRATEGY** a. Using context clues b. Using text structure c. Predicting what text is about d. Setting purpose of reading e. Activating prior knowledge f. Previewing text for content g. Skimming to note text characteristics
	2. PROBLEM-SOLVING READING STRATEGY a. rereading b. visualizing information read c. pausing to reflect on reading d. paying close attention to reading e. guessing meaning of unknown words f. reading slowly and carefully, and adjusting reading rate
	3. SUPPORTIVE READING STRATEGY a. Asking self-questions b. Taking notes while reading c. Underlining text information d. Paraphrasing text information e. Discussing reading with others f. Writing summaries of reading g. Using reference materials as aid h. Revisiting previously read information

The use of reading strategy relies on whether the readers use the strategy metacognitively or not. This is because poor readers fail to use strategies metacognitively; they do not lack cognitive reading strategies. In order to enhance readers' awareness of metacognitive reading strategies, English teachers should teach their students metacognitive skills through classroom instruction (Yohannes, 2013). This is because by learning how to use metacognitive reading strategies, the students might develop their problem-solving skills (McLaughlin, *et* al., 2000).

This section discusses the three types of metacognitive reading strategies. To begin with, there are seven reading strategies in global reading strategy, which are: 1) using context clue, 2) predicting what text is about, 3) using text structure, 4) setting the purpose of reading, 5)

activating prior knowledge, 6) previewing text for content and 7) skimming to note text characteristics. Lesson plans were prepared for each metacognitive reading strategy. The second type of metacognitive reading strategy is problem-solving reading strategy, which consists of six reading strategies: 1) reading slowly and carefully, adjusting reading rate, 2) paying close attention to reading, 3) pausing to reflect on reading, 4) visualizing information read, 5) guessing the meaning of unknown words and 6) rereading.

Supportive reading strategy is the last type of metacognitive reading strategy. This strategy consists of eight reading strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). These are 1) taking notes while reading, 2) paraphrasing text information, 3) revisiting previously read information, 4) asking self-questions, 5) using reference materials as aid, 6) underlining text information, 7) discussing reading with others and 8) writing summaries of reading. Therefore, in this section, each of the three types of reading strategies in each of three categories is discussed as follows:

Global reading strategy (GLOB) is used to plan how to read and how to monitor comprehension (Pole, 2010). GLOB helps readers to deal with reading text deliberately and carefully organizing methods like having a purpose, preview texts before reading, connect reading text with what is in readers' mind, etc. GLOB can be used in any type of reading. The following are the descriptions of each of the GLOB:

Setting a purpose for reading: Setting purpose is making reasons for reading certain texts before engaging in reading, which enforces readers to understand what is being read. Setting goals is a procedure of creating clear and workable aims for learning (Moeller, Theiler & Wu, 2012). The readers may read quickly in order to meet their goals of reading. For instance, they may read to find the importance of something in a text. Purposes of reading can be reading to search for information, for learning, for entertaining, for getting main ideas of texts, for integrating information, for evaluating information and for general understanding (Grabe, 2009). Therefore, English language teachers should instruct their students on how to set the purpose for reading. During classroom reading practice, the teacher may ask the students, ''Read until you find the problems of globalization in the text.'' Successful readers consciously set reading purposes to lead control and assess their reading (Blanton, Wood & Moorman, 1990).

According to Goal theory, there are two angles of setting purposes: intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. The former is to learn and develop personal experiences. The later focuses on external rewards such as getting good grades and working better than other classmates. Moelleret al. (2012) argue that if the students learned how to set goals during reading activities, it allows them deep level of reading engagement which in turn develops their performance in reading. Goal setting helps to develop autonomous learners. Autonomous learners are those who take their own responsibilities in learning, which is a key factor in modern age education. Autonomous reading is a skill, which can be developed by training. Goal setting is achieved if it is measurable (Dornyei, 2001). In general, the students increase their reading if they set purpose before reading, especially if they are aware of the reading strategies that are appropriate before reading while reading and post reading.

Activating prior knowledge: Activating prior knowledge is like a farmer who prepares land before sowing seeds. Beginning of learning with what the students already know is base for learning new things. Reading is interactive process means that readers bring their knowledge, emotions and culture to reading (Pressley et al., 1992). Thus, active readers employ what they already know to reading tasks. Using prior knowledge helps readers to bring meaning and connect to reading.

Prediction: Prediction is mental activity using the reading clues such as text's title, subtitle, bolded words, italic words, pictures, images, tables, graphs, etc. to forecast what will happen later in the reading text. Effective reading requires higher order level thinking. Making prediction is one of the higher-level thinking skills. It has relationship with prior knowledge in reading. Based on their expectations, they also need to confirm their predictions at the end of reading so that they can accept, update, revise, or reject their predictions (Brown, 2013).

Visualizing: Active readers visualize or create image of what they read in their mind (Harey & Goudvise, 2007). These images can be visual, auditory and image in senses, which help them to read emotionally. When they visualize, they integrate what they know with the reading texts. Harey and Goudvise also hold the view that visualization assists readers to fill information gaps.

Previewing: Previewing is a very important reading strategy that learners need to learn. It is one of the pre-reading strategies (Lewis, 1995). Previewing requires the overviewing the text's

topic, heading, subheading, bolded words, underlined words, pictures, tables, graphs, etc. It saves time as the readers cover a lot about what they read.

THIEVES' acronym is well known strategy in previewing texts/books. THIEVES stands for title, headings, introduction, every first sentence of paragraph, visuals and vocabulary, end of chapter questions and summary. The title of the text is where the readers start understanding the text. The readers' background knowledge about the title, how it connects to prior subheadings (if any) and how they change to questions to focus on the text are the first things readers need to consider before starting to read. The heading is also an important part of the text. The readers use this to differentiate specific headings and subheadings that are included in the texts. Understanding headings and subheadings while previewing is a necessary aid to understand the organization of the text. The third part of the THIEVES' acronym is the introduction. It states an overview of the text. Most frequently, writers put it at the beginning of the text. The introduction contains all-important ideas in the text. The fourth part of the THIEVES acronym is every first sentence in a paragraph, in which the topic sentence of the paragraph is presented. The topic sentence helps the readers to estimate ideas in the details of the text. In the visuals and vocabulary, the ability to relate visuals like charts, tables, graphs, maps, glossary, italics, highlights, and bold face to the contents of the text is very important. The-end-chapter questions are another issue in previewing text before reading the text. The last letter in THIEVES represents a summary. The summary is condensed form of the text in not many words (Lewis, 1995). Some texts summarize important ideas in the form of questions. The last, summary is also put at the end of the texts.

Identifying main idea: The ability to identify the main idea in the text is very important for the students, not only in English but also in all academic success. Writers put main ideas most frequently in the topic sentences. At advanced level, sometimes, the writers do not clearly state the main idea in the text. The readers should create their main ideas using the details, how they related to one another (Lewis, 1995).

Understanding text structure is another type of global reading strategy. This strategy can be seen in different ways as follows:

Comparison and contrast: This pattern is used to show the text structures in similarities and contrasts. The writers use this pattern when they want to show that something or someone is

similar or different from something or someone else. Both similarity and contrast can exist in one single paragraph (Lewis, 1995).

Cause and effects: In cause and effect pattern, authors might want to tell their readers what made something happen, the cause of something. In another way, they might tell the readers the outcomes or results of some actions. One paragraph may include both causes and effects or one paragraph may state the cause and the other may give the effects. The cause shows what led up to the events or idea, that is, what caused it to become; what it is now. The consequences of the event or idea are the effects of it (Lewis, 1995).

Problem and solution: Problem and solution pattern is used to explain problems and to offer recommendations. Most often, the causes and effects of the problems are also stated, which means this pattern may not be clear until the readers have read several sentences in a paragraph (Lewis, 1995). Most frequently, the problems are stated at the beginning of the text so that the readers search for the solutions in the text that follows.

Reading to make inferences: An inference is an informed guess, which the readers make about something they read in the text. Writers do not tell everything in the texts always. They might state indirectly the ideas in the texts. Critical readers look for ideas that are suggested in the text (Lewis, 1995).

Adjusting reading rate: Adjusting reading speed depends on the purpose of reading. High school students should learn when and how to slow or speed up when they read texts. The readers may decrease their reading speed to absorb information and think about the information. They may also slow down their speed when the text is difficult, new words, technical terms, while they may increase their speed while reading when they know the content when scanning or skimming, etc (Park, 2010).

Paying close attention to reading: Paying attention is a precondition for effective reading. Paying close attention while reading is keeping focused on the information in the reading texts (Yildiz & Çetinkaya, 2017). Attention assures that information is transferring from short-term to long term memory during reading. Yildiz and Çetinkaya (2017) categorize attention to focused, sustainable, selective and divided attention. Sustained attention is the ability to focus on one specific information in the texts. All of the attention types are very important in

effective reading comprehension. Paying attention is important to the working of cognitive processes in reading (Commodari & Guarnera, 2005).

Note-taking strategy: Taking note is one supportive reading strategy that facilitates content knowledge, which in turn helps readers to remember, organize and comprehend from reading texts. It helps learners at any level during classroom lectures, reading books, studying and copying from boards. Taking notes is also important to stay attentive in learning (Baharev, 2016).

Discussing reading with peers: Language learning heavily depends on socially constructed knowledge according to constructivism theory (Yang, 2009). This strategy is a social strategy. By using discussion in the metacognitive reading strategy instruction, the students in the treatment group received feedback. Yang argues that language teachers need to focus on independent reading practice using reading strategy. Teachers' detailed guidance, translation, and explanation develop dependency in students for reading. Discussing reading together facilitates important aspects of metacognition. This means that the students share and exchange knowledge about the metacognitive reading strategy (Kaplan-Dolgoy, 1998). In this study, the students discuss together their reading strategy use and their transferability of the strategy to anew reading situation in which the interaction takes place between student-student, student-students, student-teacher and students-teacher. According to Secada (1991), cooperative learning enhances the development of higher-order thinking skills.

Reading strategies can be also categorized into three categories: pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies (Mirah, 2011). Pre-reading strategies raise the students' reading interests by activating their prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge about the texts, especially in content area reading. The next reading, while reading strategies help the readers to deduce the meaning of texts i.e. main ideas and details of the texts. It is an interactive process. The last reading strategy, after reading strategy, provides opportunity to evaluate the texts and reason out the text to their contexts. Readers evaluate their purpose of reading achievement (Mirah, 2011). The pre-reading strategy is the stage at which planning is made to start reading tasks or lessons, while reading is where the readers engage in reading tasks while after reading is where the readers complete reading and start evaluation of the text (Harris, 2003). Balukos (2013, p. 2149) puts the three reading strategies in their order as follows:

Table 2.2: Lists of strategies in each type or phase of reading

Pre-reading strategies	To understand the topic, reading the first sentences of each paragraph
	Looking through the text
	Activating background knowledge
	Guessing the topic of the text by looking at title and subtitles
	Deciding on which points to focus on
	If there is a picture looking at it and guessing the content of the text
	Determining the reading pace
	Developing a reading plan
During-reading strategies	Making connections between the parts of the text
	Visualizing what is being told in the text
	Taking notes while reading
	Controlling the reading pace
	Going back to already read the part when distracted
	Underlining important parts
	Not doing verbal translation
	Skipping unknown words which do not contribute to understanding
	Reading over the difficult parts of the text
	Utilizing visuals like graphs, tables and pictures
	Using other clues (punctuation, bold, italics and transitions)
	Looking through the text again if there is contradictory information
	Guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context
	Anticipating what is going to be told and making guesses during reading
	Making connections between previous knowledge and knowledge acquired from the text
Post-reading strategies	Questioning whether the content of the text is appropriate for the reading aim
	Looking through the text again to see the connections
	Reading over the text if it sounds difficult
	Checking whether guesses about the text are correct or not
	Evaluating the main idea of the text with a critical eye
	Summarizing the main idea of the whole text
	Looking through the text again to see the connections
	Discussing the text with others to check whether one has grasped the gist or not
	Retelling the important ideas deduced from the text
	Retelling the text with her/his own words loudly

2.19. Metacognitive reading strategy awareness

Auebach and Paton (1997) define metacognitive reading awareness as the process that requires the skills of applying reading strategies to comprehend texts, ability to monitor understanding of texts and the capacity to regulate strategies as needed. Reading strategy awareness is crucial for enabling learners to improve their performance, especially to overcome the difficulty of L2 development (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2001). Metacognitive awareness leads to the conscious application of strategies. In reading, it involves consciousness to identify whether understanding is occurring or not (Singhal, 1999). Recent studies showed that readers who use reading strategies perform better in reading proficiency tests scores (Tavakoli, 2014).

Many educational psychologists found that metacognition instruction develops learners' intelligence and enables them to control and manage their cognitive activities (Alshaye, 2002). In addition, others examined the effects of planning, reflecting and evaluating strategies and found the positive effects on advanced learners' learning performance (Kincannon, Gebler & Kim, 1999). They also found that students who engaged in metacognitive reading strategy practice improved their levels of reading strategy awareness, which helped them to apply in their academic works.

To conclude, metacognitive reading awareness is very important to process reading comprehension by enabling learners to overcome the difficulty of students' reading skill development.

2.20. Definition of Reading motivation

One of the goals of this study is to examine the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' reading motivation. Therefore, the concept of reading motivation should be clear. The term motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere', which means 'moving'. Motivation moves people to some actions, to involve in those actions and to choose actions and to devote time and energy to take part in the actions (Dornyei, 2011). It causes learning, which Dornyei theorized as motivated learners are high achievers in learning. On the contrary, low motivated students are low achievers in their learning. In another way, it is responsible for the reason people decide to do actions, the time they are willing to put up with, and how they are willing to be challenged with certain actions (Schunk, et al., 2008).

The 1960s researches considered motivation as unconscious drives and emotions (e.g. Freud, 1966). However, motivation in the 21st century is considered as cognitive process, which can shape the actions and behaviors of people (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Hermosa (2002) defines reading motivation as the desire or interest to read for different purposes or reasons. Most of the studies indicated that good readers use more strategies and have better ability and knowledge of strategy use than poor readers do. The key to effective strategy use, however, is how these strategies are moved from teacher to students through effective and explicit instruction within meaningful contexts and authentic, or functionally relevant and literacy tasks. Present study used CALLA model of reading strategy instruction that provides motivational supports like hand-on activities.

Generally, motivation is considered as cognitive process, which can shape the actions and behaviors of readers. Low motivated readers are low achievers in their reading ability. Therefore, teachers need to design motivating and engaging reading activities for learners to develop real love and passion for reading since positive enforcements have favorable effects on motivation in reading.

2.21. Types of Reading Motivation

There are two types of reading motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Dornyei& Ushioda, 2011). Intrinsic motivation (IM) concerns with reading for experiencing pleasures and joys (e.g. sustaining curiosity). IM is reading motivation which arises from readers' own self-interest while extrinsic motivation is reading motivation that depends on outside influences (e.g. praises, rewards or grades). IM contains three types: to learn, achievement and to experience stimulation. Learners who have intrinsic motivation have their own internal desire (Ahmed, 2017).

The two types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic, can also be compared in terms of the two components of learning. Intrinsic motivation is related to a deep component of learning while extrinsic motivation is related to a surface component of learning (Kember, 2016). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are inter-related to each other. Extrinsic motivation is developed by conditions such as praise, rewards, and providing freedom of selecting appropriate learning contents. To the contrary, punishment and needless praise reduce the amount of extrinsic

motivation. According to Kember, there are important concepts in reading motivation. These are curiosity, involvement, competition, recognition, reading for grades, compliance and reading for work avoidance. (1) Curiosity is reading or learning interesting topics; (2) involvement in reading is involving (get lost) into the reading activity (e.g. its experience, actions); (3) competition is reading to reach higher than other students; (4) recognition is reading to get high performance and get price or award; (5) reading for grades is reading for improving one's grade in school; (6) compliance is reading because of outer pressure; (7) reading for work avoidance is the decision to stop reading activity.

When discussing the incentive dimension of learning, Illeris (2007) suggests that both incentives and contents are integrated with the process of the interactive process between environments and individuals. Incentive is influenced by the content of learning. The direction of the relationship between interest and learning content depends on the environment of learning (Renninnger, 2009). Learning requires thinking, positive attitudes, attention and focused efforts. Teachers' efforts, successful practices and concentration are necessary to promote students' strategy for learning so that all ability level students can get benefit from their teaching. This, in turn, develops self-confidence in less proficient learners (Joseph, 2010).

Briefly, teachers can make classrooms supportive to motivate learners intrinsically. Intrinsic motivation happens when the readers are interested in reading academic task and get enjoyment from doing it. Teachers can relate contents of reading to all types of reading.

2.22. Models of Reading Strategy Instruction

Secondary school students' reading problems become serious problems than in previous classes, especially in L2contexts (Franken, 2011). Many reading models have been developed to overcome these problems. For many years, language theorists have been formulating and revising reading theories and models to describe complex processes involved in reading skills. Kistasch (2005) argues that those models and theories are not complete. The psychology of learning is shifted from behaviorism to cognitive learning. Much emphasis was given to content knowledge teaching, which was influenced by notions of the behaviorist approach (Pearson, 2009). Liu (2010) argues that training on how to employ learning strategies assists the learners to transfer the strategy application to new learning tasks. The practical application of certain strategy needs instructional models. Researchers have developed various strategy instruction

models in L1 and in L2 (Guan, 2012). Hereafter, an attempt is made to discuss the cognitive academic language learning approach (CALLA) as a model of reading strategy instruction.

2.22.1. Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)

Some of the models for integrating language learning strategies are Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), English for Specific Purpose (ESP), Sheltered Instruction (SI) and Cognitive Language Learning Approach (CALLA). Many researchers believe that the curriculum prepared by their Ministry of Education is not enough to prepare learners to develop linguistics as demanded, and it challenges the contexts of the students' learning (John, 1997). Among such kinds of models, CALLA is based on cognitive learning theory. It directly instructs learners about learning strategy and aimed to double learners' academic achievements. It depends on the learners' background knowledge, the importance of cooperative learning and the growth of metacognitive self-reflection and awareness (Wiezbicki-Stevens, 2009). Chamot and O'Malley developed CALLA in 1994. They developed it to assist limited English proficiency learners in intermediate and secondary levels. It also assists to develop learners' language skills in academic areas. According to Chamot and O'Malley (1994), academic language is useful to find information, to compare, to inform, to order, to classify, to synthesize, to analyze and to evaluate, which helps readers to effectively understand what they learn.

The main features of CALLA are training students who have difficulties because of their levels of language proficiencies. CALLA contains three elements: academic language development, content topics and explicit instruction of learning strategies in both content and language learning/acquisition. According to CALLA, contents of instruction should well match with participants' levels and study fields (Adiguzel & Gurses, 2013). Allen (2003) also suggests that in addition to participants' levels and fields of study, their interest and motivation should be taken into consideration when selecting topics for learning strategy instruction since teachers' and students' choosing topics across different topics also influence learners' learning motivation (Adiguzel & Gurses, 2013). The second component, academic language development includes basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). These skills can be taught in any content areas. One of the principles of CALLA is the use of hand-on activities to help learners to be self-regulated learners, which in turn increases their motivation

in learning. Finally, it helps them to evaluate their own learning on their own paces (Zu, 2015). In this metacognitive reading strategy instruction study, all features of the CALLA model were considered.

Since its development, CALLA was tried in several empirical studies and showed itself as an effective strategy instruction model, which increases strategy use, support strategy use and encourages transfer of strategy use to other contexts (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). CALLA divides its components into six stages, which invite teachers to play their responsibilities systematically. Teachers' roles are activating students' knowledge, explaining of strategy and modeling strategy practice. The teachers provide feedback for the practitioners and encourage assessment and promote the transfer of strategy at evaluation and expansion respectively (Zu, 2015). In the present study, the trainer promoted explicit teaching metacognitive reading strategies (what, why, when, how to employ and how to transfer to new learning tasks). The students discussed and reflected how their learning is facilitated. Then, the trainer provided the trainees with additional materials and tasks to practice the new learning strategy on their own paces. Furthermore, the trainer helped the students to evaluate their own strategy application. The trainer was trained by the researcher to modify his procedures based on the contexts.

To sum up, this study preferred the CALLA model of reading instruction to improve students' reading skills because it is carried out through direct explicit strategy instruction, with guided application and practice of strategy. Trainer of this study invites the six stages of CALLA to play their responsibilities systematically.

2.22.2. Oxford Model of learning strategy instruction

When considering the rational for learning strategy instruction, Oxford (1990) argues that if the learners explicitly learnt why, when, how to, to employ learning strategies, and how to transfer new learning strategies to new learning tasks. Oxford's strategy instruction model stresses raising learners' strategy awareness, which can be demonstrated systematically as shown as the following procedures: A) Students need to complete learning tasks without learning strategy instruction. The learners should discuss and reflect how their learning is facilitated. B). Teachers' responsibilities are to present new learning strategies explain explicitly the uses of the strategies, and they need to check whether the students are clear with purpose of learning the strategies. C) The learners should practice the new strategy with strategy learning tasks, and how

to transfer the strategy to ne situation. D) The trainer of the new learning strategy should provide the trainees with additional materials and task to practice the new learning strategy on their own paces. They need to be encouraged to choose certain learning strategy to complete the tasks. E) The trainer should also help the learners to evaluate their own strategy application so that they become independent learners.

The flexibility of Oxford's strategy instruction model: The procedure of using Oxford's model is flexible in nature. This means in order to meet learners' needs, the procedures can be modified (Guan, 2012). The steps in 3 and 4 provide learners with extra opportunities to practice the strategies they learnt. Nevertheless, the limitation of Oxford's models is that it does not provide guidance on assessing learners' previous background knowledge, and their use of learning strategies before modeling. The teachers only know in reality the learning strategies the students use in the classroom (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). The teachers or researchers need to use different assessment techniques like interview, questionnaires, if they want to use Oxford's model of strategy instruction (Chamot, 2005; Ozeki, 2000; Vandergrift, 1997; Guan, 2012).

Learning strategy instruction models share many ideas in common. All of them facilitate the use of demonstration and modeling while strategy instruction in classroom in order to develop the students' metacognitive understanding (Chamot, 2004). Chamot also strongly agree that all models, whether L1 or L2 learning strategies, emphasized on the providing sufficient practice with the learning strategy the students learned in the classroom. All of the strategies also the students should be evaluated how the strategies they learnt have been worked (Chamot, 2005).

Metacognitive reading strategies can be used with several reading texts. Duke and Person (2002) recommended that texts like newspaper, articles, and poetry need to be used by combining many strategies continuously rather than using a single reading strategy practice at once.

Reading strategy instruction models follow similar step if they used for classroom instruction (Oxfod, 1990; Graham, 1997). All of the models follow: 1) Measure the reading strategies they employ. 2) Train strategies which necessary for the learners. 3) Prepare instructional materials to teach the learners. 4) Tell the learners values and purpose of instruction. 5) The learners practice new strategies with help of the teachers in classroom. 6) Encourage the learners to practice and apply after each strategy with simple tasks. 7) Encourage the students to measure their strategy

learning. 8) Have teachers to evaluate the strategy instruction. 9) Revise the instruction of the strategy training.

Ozeki (2000) some learning strategies are observable, while others are non-observable. Therefore, the uses of different strategy evaluation method are very important in strategy before and after strategy instruction. Ozeki advised the strategy trainers that they if they combine verbal report on the participants' strategy use.

2.22.3. Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction

Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI)focuses on the simultaneous implementation of practices like providing choices (of books, learning tasks, or ways of showing reading proficiency), arranging collaborations (partnerships, team projects), supporting competence (matching text difficulty to learner competencies, adjusting learning tasks to student needs), and offering relevance (hands-on science activities, authentic audiences for writing, personal persuasive essays) (Guthrie et al., 1998). CORI encourage reading engagement as the mutual support of motivations, strategies, and conceptual knowledge during reading. To increase reading engagement, a collaborative team designed a year-long integration of reading/language arts and science instruction (Guthrie et al., 1998).

CORI and Motivation: Guthrie et al. (2004) investigated concept-oriented reading instruction (CORI) that combines strategy instruction with motivation supports. According to Butler (2010), motivation supports includes giving students choices, hands-on activities, and interesting text. They found that if the CORI is combined with motivation, the readers not only interested in reading, but also they become more strategic readers.

2.22.4. Information processing Model

The time between the mid-70s to 90s made excellent developments in understanding of reading process. The important change in this period took the individual as active constructor of meaning of texts (Ko, 2012). Readers' mental operation during reading was dominated by information processing model.

Many foreign students lack information processing skills that are important to comprehend texts (Fisher & Desher, 2002). Unlike poor readers, successful readers monitor their reading

comprehension during reading texts; they connect reading to their prior knowledge, and fix up reading strategies when understanding texts breakdown or become difficult (Beardman, 2008). Therefore, lack of metacognitive reading strategies knowledge that effective reading depends on. Consequently, they are not aware of how to monitor their reading, how to recognize if the reading problems occur, and lack how and when to use the strategies to make meaning while reading.

2.22.5. Reciprocal Instruction

Reciprocal teaching was designed by Palincsar and Brown (1984). It is a form of guided (practiced these strategies in small groups (reciprocal teaching). It is guided practice until the learners able to use the reading strategies. The role of teacher is monitoring what goes on in the group (Palincsar and Brown, 1984 as cited in (Yousefvand & Lotfi, 2011). Studies improved that reciprocal approach by teaching involving summarization, question-generation, clarification, and prediction, helps EFL readers to comprehend texts and could be applied helpful for both skilled and less-skilled learners. It is a dialogue between teachers and students regarding reading texts. The dialogue is structured by the use of four strategies: summarizing, question generating, clarifying and predicting (Zarei & Keshavarz, 2011).

2.22.6. Gradual Release of Responsibility model

An effective way to teach a reading strategy is to follow the Pearson and Gallagher "Gradual Release of Responsibility" model (1983). Teachers model through a think-aloud (Davey, 1983; Wade, 1990), sharing their self-talk about how they strategically approach reading, making their expert thinking visible to struggling readers (Peterson et al., 2000).

2.22.7. Cooperative Integrated Reading

Cooperative Integrated Reading was method developed by Stevens, Madden, Slavin and Farnish in 1987. This method is a method in which heterogeneous groups work with different reading levels, reading to each other, predicting, practicing spelling and vocabulary (Zarei & Keshavarz, 2011). This learning team work cooperatively on program-related activities (Madden, 2004). Cooperative learning in reading strategy instruction is ''a process of constructing knowledge in which students are divided into groups and cooperate with one another to solve the problems that have been presented to them'' (Yousefvand & Lotfi, 2011, p.17) while transactional strategy

instruction provides students with explicit explanation of strategic mental processes used in reading, the focus is on the interactive exchanges between students in the classroom (iams, 2002; Pressley, 2002). The focus of this study is all of these strategies on reading strategies instruction.

It is possible to see course-based i.e. student application of reading strategies to their own college textbooks) or content-based i.e. student application of reading strategies to texts provided in the reading class) reading strategy instruction. And they found that students in the course-based group used reading strategies more frequently, perhaps because they applied the strategies to "real world" academic contexts and therefore more quickly developed a sense of ownership over the strategy. Additionally, ‘which can enhance the on developmental learners' reading comprehension skills at their level?

2.22.8. Transactional strategy instruction

Transactional strategy instruction (TSI) has been advocated by Pressley (2002). According to iams (2002), the focus is on the interactive exchanges between learners during the lessons even though it provides students with explicit explanation of strategic mental processes used in reading. Pressley, learners need an instructional approach with the following characteristics: First of all, teachers explain and model effective comprehension strategies through think-aloud demonstrations and discussion. Next teachers coach students to use strategies as needed. Many mini-lessons are given about when and why it is suitable to use specific strategies. Then both teachers and students model the uses of strategies for one another on a continual basis. Conversations about text meaning include discussion of strategies to improve understanding. Lastly, the usefulness of strategies is emphasized and learners are reminded to regularly about the benefits of strategy use. Issues of time and place of using the strategies are discussed often. Students explain how they use strategies to process texts (p, 3).

2.22.9 Grenfell and Harris’s model

Grenfell and Harris (1999) developed a model of language learning strategies instruction called Grenfell and Harris’s model. A sequence of steps for strategy instruction as the following:

(1) Awareness raising: The students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used. (2) Modeling. The teacher models, discusses the value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.

(3) General practice: The students practice new strategies with different tasks. It is the practice of new strategies through whole class, pair and group work.

(4) Action planning: The students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals. It is identifying personal difficulties or goals and the most useful strategies to address them.

(5) Focused practice: The students carry out action plan using selected strategies; the teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically. Focused practice and fading out of reminders: gradual withdrawal of the scaffolding to the point that learners are able to select and operationalise appropriate strategies for themselves.

(6) Evaluation: The teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again. Evaluating strategy acquisition and learning: reviewing progress and identifying new goals.

Grenfell & Harris (1999), Oxford (1990) note that instructions for the application of strategies should be provided explicitly, integrating them into the practical course of learning a foreign language, as it allows students to practice strategies in authentic learning tasks, and teachers ought to direct the educational process to achieve educational goals (Sarada, 2019, p. 38).

2.22.10 Cohen's Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction model

Cohen’s Styles and Strategy-Based Instruction Model (Cohen, 2000) is student-centered that includes both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content (Dmitrenko & Melnyk, 2021). Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction is abbreviated as SSBI. It is proposed by Cohen (1998). Cohen compares the teacher to a change agent who facilitates the learning of students and in accompany with the student as a partner in the learning process. This means it provides more flexibility for teachers to implement strategies implicitly or explicitly by adhering to the discipline curriculum (Dmitrenko & Melnyk, 2021). SSBI is a learner-focused approach to language teaching that explicitly combines styles and strategy instructional activities with everyday classroom language instruction (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2001). Fundamental principle in this model is that students should be given the opportunity to understand not only what they can learn in the language classroom, but also how they can learn the language they are studying more effectively and efficiently. The style- and strategy based instruction emphasizes both explicit and

implicit integration of language learning and use strategies in the language classroom. SSBI helps learners become more aware of what kinds of strategies are available to them, understand how to organize and use strategies systematically and effectively given their learning-style preferences, and learn when and how to transfer the strategies to new language learning and using contexts.

Cohen's styles- and strategies-based instruction model assists learners become more aware of their learning style preferences and gives them a set of strategies to maximize their language learning ability. This guide helps teachers to identify the individual needs of their students and incorporate opportunities for students to practice a wide range of strategies for both language learning and language use (Oxford, 2001). SSBI is based on the following series of components:

Strategy Preparation: In this phase, the goal is to determine just how much knowledge of and ability to use strategies the given learners already have. There is no sense in assuming that students are a blank slate when it comes to strategy use. They most likely have developed some strategies. The thing is that they may not use them systematically, and they may not use them well.

Strategy Awareness-Raising: In this phase, the goal is to alert learners to presence of strategies they might never have thought about or may have thought about but had never used. The SSBI tasks are explicitly used to raise the students' general awareness about: 1) what the learning process may consist of, 2) their learning style preferences or general approaches to learning, 3) the kinds of strategies that they already employ, as well as those suggested by the teacher or classmates, 4) the amount of responsibility that they take for their learning, or 5) approaches that can be used to evaluate the students' strategy use. Awareness-raising activities are by definition always explicit in their treatment of strategies.

Strategy Training: In this phase, students are explicitly taught how, when, and why certain strategies (whether alone, in sequence, or in clusters) can be used to facilitate language learning and use activities. In a typical classroom strategy-training situation, the teachers describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies. They elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences; they lead small-group or whole-class discussions about strategies (e.g., the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a

specific activity, evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies), and they can encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.

Strategy Practice: In this phase, students are encouraged to experiment with a broad range of strategies. It is not assumed that knowing about a given strategy is enough. It is crucial that learners have ample opportunity to try them out on numerous tasks. These strategy-friendly activities are designed to reinforce strategies that have already been dealt with and allow students time to practice the strategies at the same time they are learning the course content. These activities should include explicit references to the strategies being used in completion of the task. In other words, either students: plan the strategies that they will use for a particular activity, have their attention called to the use of particular strategies while they are being used, their use of strategies (and their relative effectiveness) after the activity has ended.

Personalization of Strategies: In this stage, learners personalize what they have learned about these strategies, evaluate to see how they are using the strategies, and then look to ways that they can transfer the use of these strategies to other contexts.

In SSBI, it is the curriculum writers' and the teachers' role to see that strategies are integrated into everyday class materials and are both explicitly and implicitly embedded into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice. Teachers may: start with the established course materials and then determine which strategies might be inserted, start with a set of strategies that they wish to focus on and design activities around them, or insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate.

These strategies-based activities are designed to raise awareness about strategies, to train students in strategy use, to give them opportunities to practice strategy use, and to encourage them to personalize these strategies for themselves. Teachers also allow students to choose their own strategies and do so spontaneously, without continued prompting from the language teacher.

Comparatively speaking, Cohen's model describes and prescribes what a teacher should do in a regular EFL classroom. It provides more flexibility for teachers to explicitly and implicitly embed the language strategies training into regular classroom program. And it makes more sense in the context of student-centered EFL instruction. Many experimental or non-experimental

strategies training researches on cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training adopt this model.

2.23. Reading Strategy Instruction Theories

2.23.1. Krashen's Input Hypothesis as it Relates to Language Acquisition

Krashen's input hypothesis is related to second language acquisition in predictable order (Krashen, 1985). Input is one of the components in second language or foreign language learning (Gass, 1997). In the Krashen input hypothesis, language acquisition in a natural/predictable order i.e. understanding precedes production (Krashen, 1985). Understanding teacher's input is important to learn learning strategy. Gass suggests that input is most important concept, in which students cannot learn language without it. According to Krashen, the input should be comprehensible, which is suitable for the learners. Reading strategy instruction input should not be traditional that focus only on the words and linguistic components analyzing or only on bottom-up processing. It should include higher order levels of reading skills, such as metacognitive reading strategies (Chang, 2005).

There are different sources of input in language learning. There are two concepts in relation to the sources of input: available and accessible. This means the teachers need to avail input for the learners or the learners themselves seek the input by themselves (Kumaravadivilu, 2008). He suggests that there are three types of input available to the students: interlanguage, simplified, and non-simplified inputs. The interlanguage input is the inputs learners get from their peers. Simplified one is the input that experts (e.g. teachers, textbooks, native speakers) use in classroom for learners. The non-simplified input is form of input without any simplification. Examples of non-simplified inputs are inputs from radio, TV, and newspaper. These all inputs can be evident in spoken, written, formal, or informal language. The degree in which the learners exposed to these sources of input are different.

The input learners exposed to should help them to learn or acquire language. This kind of input that the learners are able process is called intake (Kumaravadivilu, 2008). It is the input successfully and completely or partially processed in language learning or acquisition or language development. According to Kumaravadivilu, intake is not directly observed, quantified, or analyzed. It is complex picture of mental process. However, one can experience the product of

intake i.e. output. Output is the result of the input that is internalized. According to Krashen (1981), the input should be i +1. This means it should be beyond the current level of the learners. Chamot et al. (1990) demonstrate that teachers to use materials in explicit instruction of reading strategy. The students need to rehearse new strategy, not the strategy they already know. However, it should be difficult to process by using difficult grammar, linguistic, in a way that learners cannot control it. Krashen adds that if the learners are low affective filters, they could not process the intake. In this study, metacognition reading strategy instruction should be understandable and enough beyond their current levels.

Learners learn new reading strategy by explicit teaching of the strategy and encouraging them to read in contexts. Krashen advises teachers to devote much time in development of learning (learning how to use reading strategy in this study). According to Krashen, language learning is planned, involving intentional practice. In order to learn new reading strategy, learners first able to get sufficient language intake (Krashen, 1981). Teachers should follow the following steps in promoting learning strategy: introduce first new vocabulary about the new reading strategy, offer comprehensive inputs that the students can utilize, create chances for students to practice new reading strategy, and encourage the students to the strategy. The phrase 'authentic input' is also important in this study. Authentic input is an input that provides a needed context for learning. It also helps to minimize cultural obstacles to learning of the strategy (Bacon, 1992, p.160).

Sources of input for language learners: There are different sources of Input in language learning. There are two concepts in relation to the sources of input: available and accessible. This means the teachers need to avail input for the learners or the learners themselves seek the input by themselves (Kumaravadivilu, 2008).

Kumaravadivilu (2008) suggested that there are three types of input available to the students: interlanguage, simplified, and non-simplified inputs. The first input, interlanguage input, is the inputs learners get from their peers. Simplified one is the input that experts (e.g. teachers, textbooks, native speakers) use in classroom or put of classroom for learners. The last input according to Kumaravadivilu is non-simplified input, which is form of input without any simplification. Examples of non-simplified inputs are inputs from radio, TV, and newspaper. These all inputs can be evident in spoken, written, formal, or informal language. The degree the learners exposed to these sources of input are different.

Intake is where language acquisition occurs. The input learners exposed to should be used them to learn or acquire language. Therefore, the input that the learners are able process is called intake (Kumaravadivilu, 2008). This means the input that does not help learners to learn something cannot be intake because intake is the input that is successfully and completely or partially processed in language learning or acquisition or language development. According to Kumaravadivilu, intake is nor directly observed, quantified, or analysed. It is complex picture of mental process. However, one can experience the product of intake i.e. output.

Figure 1: the relationship between input, intake and output

Output is the result of the input that is internalized.

According to Krashen (1981), the input should be i +I. This means it should be beyond the current level of learner. However, it should be difficult to process by using difficult grammar, linguistic, in a way that learners cannot control it. Kumaravadivilu (2008) suggested that the learners' language learning mechanism is another factor. Krashen added that if the learners are low affective filter, they could not process the intake. Comprehensibility of input is another big factor in processing input into intake.

2.23.2. Schemata theory

According to cognitive theorists, the reader actively participates in the interaction and uses his/her own cognitive resources such as individual knowledge and experiences to construct the meaning (Park, 20101). Particularly, schema theory explains how the reader brings his/her own knowledge (schemata) to the process of reading with comprehension. Schema theory posits that the process of reading with comprehension involves the interaction between reader's schema and the text (Park, 20101).

Schema is created and renewed. The creation and updating of the schema provide readers new bases in interpretation of reading texts. Additionally, the schema can also be shared to other person (Ozeki, 2000). If the learning of new strategy is done with interlocutors, the new strategy can be easily learnt and experienced. Ozeki (2000) asked the following questions to accomplish

schema in reading: A) What do readers know about the topic under reading? B) What information the readers bring to reading classroom to help their partners? C) What kind of prediction can they make about the topic they are going to read? D) It is the teachers' roles to activate the students' existing knowledge in order to make reading smoother (Ozeki, 2000). The use of strategy modeling, the use of other teaching aids such as pictures are very important, especially for lower readers to activate their knowledge.

It is any reading text does not carry meaning in and of itself rather it provides *direction* for readers so that they can construct meaning from their own cognitive structure (Hadley, 2001). Wei-hua (2007) explained four types of schemata theory as follows:

2.23.2.1. Content schemata

There are three major types of schemata i.e. content schemata, formal schemata and linguistic schemata that are closely related to reading process (Wei-hua, 2007). Content schemata refers to refers to the knowledge of facts, values and cultural conventions or knowledge, familiarity with topics, or previous experience with it that readers possesses. It is active organization of past experiences that influence today's action (Singhal, 1999). This may help the readers to help learners to understand texts by predicting, choosing information and removing ambiguities (Wei-hua, 2007). The research in cognitive show that readers' content schemata influence their reading comprehension and speed reading more greatly than formal schemata.

2.23.2.2. Linguistic Schemata

Linguistic schemata is readers' language proficiency. It is knowledge about vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, cohesive structures and idioms and their relationship to each other's in reading process (Singhal, 1999). They are the foundation of other schemata (Wei-hua, 2007). Schema theory acknowledges the importance of prior knowledge in skilled reading, although it must be recognized that much reading is not so completely knowledge driven, or top-down in nature. Wei-hua stresses that linguistic knowledge plays an essential part in text comprehension. He added that the more linguistic schemata a reader has in his or her mind, the faster the reader acquires information and the better understanding the reader may get (p, 2).

2.23.2.3. Formal or Textual Schemata

Textual schemata is the organizational forms and rhetorical structures of written texts; it is knowledge of types of texts (such as fictions, poems, essays, newspaper articles, academic articles in magazines and journals), language structure, vocabulary, level of formality, that guide the readers to understanding the meaning of texts (Singhal, 1999; Wei-hua, 2007). When compared to linguistic schemata, however, content schemata, and the formal schemata offer less power in the reading process (Carrell, 1984 as cited in Wei-hua, 2007). The other models of reading instruction are: Reciprocal Teaching, Cooperative Learning, and Transactional Strategy Instruction (Yousefvand & Lotfi, 2011).

Application of schema theory to classroom metacognitive reading strategy learning: Metacognitive reading strategy deals with pre-planning, pre-assessing, on-line evaluating, and post-evaluating of learning processes. Reading comprehension better occurs when readers build the relationship between texts with their past knowledge. Pre-reading strategies are used to activate readers' schemata before reading texts. Therefore, training learners on the pre-reading strategies is helpful for enhancing foreign language students' reading processes (Cohen, 1998). It is the teacher's responsibilities to help learners to build new knowledge and activate their past knowledge. According to Britt, Rouet and Durik, (2017), learners' reading difficulties might arise from lack of previous knowledge. Therefore, teachers' responsibilities can be seen in two ways: activating previous knowledge and building new knowledge of students (Ruddell, Ruddell & Singer, 1994).

2.23.3. Constructivist Theory

Knowledge is an experience in life. This knowledge is formed by constructing rather than receiving it. Prior knowledge is both procedural and declarative knowledge. There are various ways to activate previous knowledge. For instance, the teacher can ask brainstorming questions (e.g., What do you know about….?). To answer this kind of question, the students can freely tell all what they know whether it is correct or wrong, which can be ideas or experiences. The teacher may write the students' ideas on boards so that he or she can understand the misconception the students have on the topics. The uses of concept maps, reflections, group discussion etc. are strategies the teachers use to activate their students' prior knowledge on the

topics (Amadieu et al., 2009). Amadieu et al argue that the readers' knowledge about certain reading passages influence their understanding of reading texts. Within the scope of the intervention, the trainer instructed students to infer the topic of the text on the basis of the title and accompanying illustrations, ask themselves what they already know about that topic, and note this down in a number of key words.

The learners need to have clear ideas for what reasons they are reasons. Readers who have no purpose while reading viewed as 'mute outsider' or rather than making makers (Pensrose & Gisesler, 1994). Yang (2006) advises English teachers to teach students how to choose reading materials that suit their needs, interest and purposes during the three phases of reading. Constructivism theory translate how to create purpose into action in reading in classroom. The students' reading purposes can be reading for assignment, learning new information, exploiting writers' stance, analyzing authors' opinion about certain topics, enjoying or passing time, and the like.

Questioning in teaching reading lead students to engage more in interact with texts. It enables students to become independent readers (Yang, 2006). Constructivism theory support the idea of questioning in reading since it encourages learners to construct meaning from reading texts. This theory oppose the teachers' interpretation of meaning of reading for them. The teachers can help them as resource to fill the gap between students and their experiences of the reading texts. The teachers' purpose of the reading texts should not understand of the reading contents, but it should be strengthening their reading abilities. Therefore, teachers' questioning in reading instruction should be focuses on the written materials awareness than contents awareness. The following question is, for example, effective for text awareness: '*Which words tell you the writers' introducing new point?* Additionally, 'What words the writer used to admire the Mandela?

In addition to teachers' questioning, the students also need to be encouraged in order to form their own questions to ask themselves. This can be made in groups to write ask questions the other groups. Forming questions can be done in any phases (Yang, 2006).

2.23.4. Behaviorism Theory

Because of the influences of different education theories, reading skills conceptualized differently in different eras. For example, behaviorism theory conceptualized it as conditioned

behavior (Abiy Gizaw. N.d.). It concentrated on observable actions outside of the human minds. Therefore, reading instruction was limited to the relation between incentive/stimuli (e.g. word recognition…. (Rothman, 2004). Reading skills was considered as completely separated skills inactively drilled and practiced. Behaviorism theory faced many challenges in learning in general and reading instruction specifically. The emergency of information processing theory caused the reading instruction to individual's mind. The trainees' mind could be revised by classroom instruction.

2.23.5. Cognitive theory

Cognitive view knowledge as mentally organized forms of structures as declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and procedural knowledge. The ability to integrate these knowledge help readers to easily process reading. The readers' background knowledge is related to the first two knowledge structures. The last knowledge, procedural knowledge enhance readers' interacting with the reading texts (Urlaub, 2008). Therefore, special attention should be given to the three knowledge in helping students to be independent readers.

Gass (1997) stated that the idea of input in learning about strategy is the most essential element in SLA. Cognitive theory and theory of instruction are fundamental frameworks of this study. L2 studies have focused on the learners in the last decades (Dai, & Sternberg, 2004). The research interest in cognition expanded by American Psychologists during world war second, with advancement of computers in education. It is thing about thinking, and thinking about learning. Learners are seen as information processors. Chamot et al., (1990) strongly argue that learners need to be active, strategic, conscious, purposeful of their language learning process, when the concept of cognition is concerned with EFL learning.

Cognitive processing information theory is followed cognitive psychologists. CPI is concerns with the idea that language acquisition cognize the ways person acquire new information, the way they store it and remember it from memory. Additionally, CPI is focuses on the way the learners previous knowledge guides and controls what they learn (Smithm 2021), which are very essential for improving metacognitive reading strategies. After the students gained insight about reading strategies, they need to be communicated it on their own pace. The teachers must help them how to do it out of their classroom. Student-centered EFL teaching in today's language

education highlights three interrelated concepts regarding the student, which are autonomy, awareness and action. According to Brown (2007), autonomy embolden students to take responsibilities of their own learning when they progress ways for certain language lessons. The second concept in today's language learning is awareness, which expects learning L2 seeks active engagement by the students. In other words, awareness is what the students know about reading strategies and aspects of other language learning.

The roles of cognitive and metacognitive in reading strategy development: Two types of knowledge i.e. cognition and metacognition are very important in learning reading and monitoring reading comprehension. The two knowledge are integrated. Cognition go before metacognition. The former is ability to understand what readers read whereas metacognition monitors understanding. Metacognition monitoring skills is one features of intentional reading. It is a process that take place if the readers are aware of their thinking, and at the same time when if they use their strategy awareness to monitor /control the texts they are reading (Abu-Snoubar, 2017). Metacognitive knowledge involves ability to control comprehension, strategies that process texts, and ability to adjust the strategies if needed (Auerbach & Paxton, 1997), knowledge about cognitive process. Cognitive process include language knowledge, knowledge of structures and organization pattern, use of right strategies for specific purpose. It also involve knowledge of readers about themselves about certain activities during reading (Abu-Snoubar, 2017).

Psychology of learning has been moved from the behavioral perspective to the cognitive development perspective. Currently, the cognitive processes in learning to read while reading, especially in the area of metacognition, there has been a great interest (Alshay, 2002). He noted that is metacognition as an appropriate theory for learning and reading. The value of instruction that focuses on developing metacognitive strategies for independent learning and reading comprehension (Gourgey, 1998). Metacognition theory hypothesizes that the use of metacognitive strategies enhanced reading comprehension. These strategies assist learners to develop the skills to control their own cognitive activities. They have important roles in improving the readers' reading comprehension (Cattell, 1999).

This research focus on the cognitive approach to improve students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategies, and reading motivation by teaching metacognitive reading

strategies. The researcher of this study believed that it is theoretically and pedagogically meaningful to implement this study with Ethiopian preparatory school students since current study in the Ethiopia have affirmed that the use of metacognitive reading strategies enhances reading comprehension of elementary students (Dawit, 2014). Mabratu (2014) conducted a study on the cognitive reading strategy instruction on grade 10 students' reading comprehension by designing reading comprehension tests. His study revealed that the cognitive reading strategy training has a positive impact on developing the students' reading comprehension skills as the experimental group students perform better in the test, and the students are poor in guessing and deciding on the ideas of a text.

Oxford (2003) Metacognitive reading strategy instruction/intervention at secondary school level in our country is the right time. Since 1970s, metacognitive knowledge has been linked to use of metacognitive strategies and effectiveness in reading (Flavell, 1979). In general, previously done researches in L1 and L2 revealed that reading strategy instruction is beneficial to students in all grades (Ness, 2009; Spencer et al., 2008; Park & Osborne, 2006). More explicitly, if the teachers explain and demonstrate various strategies and provide guided and independent practice on strategies (Klingner & Vaughn, 1999).

2.23.6. Theory of Instruction

Theory of instruction is related to strategy instruction, especially reading strategy instruction. Learning is effective if individuality is concerned in learning activity. He identified cognitive skills/strategy as product of this theory. These outcomes are effective in action in sequences. Teachers should follow steps to ensure strategy learning. Motivation is very important to achieve learning. Motivation can be internal or external stimuli. Teachers should demonstrate strategy after training, and give enough classroom and out of classroom practices on strategy use. Scaffolding or providing support/feedback is necessary to successfully learn strategy (Engelmann & Carnine, 1982).

Objectives of the lesson is very essential in order aware learners certain lesson. After the objectives are established, the must be presented explicitly for the learners to aware them in their learning process. Gagne argues that teachers must provide students levels in contexts. He advised nine steps for teachers lesson's event of instruction as follows:

Steps of events Gagne's events of instruction

1 Gaining attention

2 Informing learner of the lesson objectives

3 Stimulating recall or prior learning

4 Presenting stimuli with distinctive features

5 Guiding learning

6 Eliciting performance

7 Providing informative feedback

8 Assessing performance

9 Enhancing retention and learning transfer

2.23.7. Self-efficacy theory

Readers' judgment of abilities of carrying out tasks and their worth of certain task determine selection of tasks, including the amount of engagement in reading. Students with low self-efficacy notice difficult activities as threats; they live in the problem them make themselves (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). These kind of students miss trust in their abilities. Self-efficacy is complex process since it is depend on persuading oneself. The self-persuasion is based on cognitive process, such as prior experience, reinforcement, assessment, training, discussion with peers, knowledge about right strategy used in completing certain tasks (Badura, 2004). The concept of self-efficacy is related with theories of social learning theory, and social cognitive theory. This theory is based on the idea that learning is described in terms of social factors, and their relationship with each other (.e.g. persona, environment, and behavioral) (Badura, 1998).

2.23.8. Self-determination theory

According to this theory, motivation exists in a social context, which meets the following psychological need, that is, (1) the need for competence, (2) the need for autonomy, and (3) the need for relatedness (Wang & Liu, 2008). Hence, if we satisfy such kind of needs, we can get good opportunities to motivate learners (Pae, 2008). This theory suggests that both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are the two general kind of motivation (Guthrie & Humenick, 2004).

These two are based on the extent of the people's self-determination (Noels et al., 2003). Intrinsic motivation is the desire the learners have to do activities for their own sake (Shaikholeslami & Khayyer, 2006). Intrinsic motivation is also further divided into obtaining new ideas and knowledge (motivation for knowledge), achieving some goals (motivation for accomplishment), and feeling of excitement by performing a task (motivation for stimulation) (Noels et al., 2003). The second motivation, extrinsic motivation, refers to desire to do activities due to outside classroom incentives (one who does activity for outcomes) (e.g. rewards, praises) (Noels et al., 2003). Self-determination theory further divided into subcategories depending on internalization degree, that is, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation

In terms of extrinsic motivation, SDT further categorized it into four subcategories based on the degree of internalization (i.e., (1) external regulation, (2) introjected regulation, (3) identified regulation and (4) integrated regulation) (Shaikholeslami & Khayyer, 2006).

2.23.9. Expectancy theory

According to this theory, motivation to do something is the result of two factors: person's expectancy of success and values person have on success of doing certain task. For example, in reading, readers' expectation of success in reading and the rewards that effective reading can bring, and the values attached to completing reading i.e. the values of rewards in engaging in reading (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Therefore, the more incentives values, the higher individual's motivation to engage in reading tasks. Need for success is important factor in completing certain tasks. The more high need in achieving task, the more controlling tasks (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011).

2.24. Measuring Students' Reading Strategy Use

Assessment during strategy instruction can be done before, during and after reading. It should be done in different ways: The effective teacher begins instruction by assessing the reader's difficulty in learning a certain strategy (Gillet & Temple, 1990). The teachers also should know the history of their students' reading profiles including their reading difficulties before intervening (William, Timothy & William, 2009).). Then, the teachers use their students' reading strengths to approach and alleviate areas of difficulties. Reading assessment need to

follow the instruction and should be both summative (Did the instruction work?) and formative (Where do we go from here?). One of the purposes of evaluation is to raise the trainees' awareness of strategy use (Wende, 1991). Information about reading development can be gathered through several data gathering instruments such as think-aloud protocol, interview, reading observation, questionnaires, diaries, journals, computer tracking and tests (pre-test and post-test) (Cohen, 1998). Strategy uses self-report is the best way to identify readers' strategy use since many of the metacognition skills are not directly observed (Bracho, 2007). Whitbread et al (2009) also comment that verbal report compensates the unobserved metacognitive learning strategies. Observational techniques help researchers to identify and record readers' behaviors in reading (e.g. Whitbread et al., 2009).

In this study, students' metacognitive reading strategy development was gathered through RCTs, MARSI, MRQ and interview. The reading test in this study was derived from TOEFL online reading comprehension practice. Reading text extracted from TOEFL is a well-known standardized reading comprehension test for second or foreign language learners. The TOEFL consists of three formats based on how it is used. These are the Computer-Based Test (CBT), Paper-Based Test (PBT) and Internet-Based Test (IBT). TOEFL was designed to measure international students' listening skills, reading skills and writing skills in English. The contents of TOEFL are all academic areas (Liu et al., 2009). TOEFL program is formerly known by the name the Test of English as a Foreign Language exam, which was developed in the 1960s. It was developed to measure L2 speakers of English who study in the USA. It is the most respected test to assess the English language proficiency of second or foreign language students. In 1964, the test, especially, the TOEFL iBT test was revised in several contents. This was done with the advancement in theories of language teaching and learning. Recently, it was revised in 2005. The tasks in the tests integrate several skills which demand real-world materials (Perfetti, 1997). In this study, the reading comprehension tests were adapted for testing the subjects' reading comprehension before and after the intervention. Multiple testing methods, multiple-choice questions, true/false questions and fill-gap questions are available in TOEFL.

Questionnaires were used to measure the students' metacognitive reading strategy awareness and reading motivation in this study. Questionnaires are an effective system for finding

students' learning strategies (Ozeki, 2000). They have frequently used strategy assessment techniques in L2 strategy instruction. Researchers may prepare questionnaires, or they may use already prepared standardized questions to assess strategy use. Accordingly, standardized questionnaires, MARSI and MRQ, were used in this study. MARSI was used to assess the students' level of metacognitive reading strategy awareness and the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on their metacognitive reading strategy awareness whereas MRQ was used to see the levels of students' motivation to read before and after the metacognitive reading strategy intervention. Let us see each of them in the next sections.

2.24.1. Measuring Students' Reading Comprehension

Reading Comprehension Test (RCT): Comprehension of a text occurs when information in the text presents facts (Koda, 2005). RCT should be prepared from cultural-based texts (Snow Sweeet & Snow, 2003). The schema theory supports this idea. The validity of the test can be checked by giving to the experts (university professors, supervisors, and teachers of the English language at schools) by asking them to check whether it is related to the respondents' background knowledge. In the present study, the validity of the instruments was ensured by using a judgmental validation group of experts formed from Ambo University and Ambo Preparatory School. The coefficient reliability of the RCT was determined by using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. One of the important considerations in reading comprehension tests should be on the objectives of the comprehension test. The items might be multiple-choice questions, cloze tests, true/false questions and summary tasks. In reading comprehension test construction, caution should be given to the factors that contribute to the complexity of tests (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) (see also 2.24.1, Readability).

In conclusion, contemporary approach is important in assessing reading comprehension. However, reading comprehension assessment depends on the formats of the reading tests. Reading assessment instruments should not emphasize on the objectivity, precision, reliability focusing on product; it should be emphasize on the process. Reading assessment instruments should depend on the naturalistic, alternative and purposeful ways of assessing.

2.24.2. Measuring Students' Reading Strategy Awareness

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI): Several researchers in L1 reading have developed Survey of Reading Strategy (SORS) to measure metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies for L1 readers like the Index of Reading Awareness (Jacobs & Paris, 1987) and Reading Strategy Use (Pereira-Laird & Deane, 1997; Park, 2010). Based on the critiques of the existing inventories, Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) have developed a reading strategy questionnaire targeting L1 readers, the metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI). Based on the MARSI, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) have developed the SORS to measure L2 or foreign language speakers' metacognitive awareness and perceived use of reading strategies. For the SORS, they made three revisions on the MARSI: they refined wording for foreign or L2 speakers to comprehend the items more easily, added two new strategies, and removed two items. These two authors introduced MARSI as a useful tool to assess the development of student metacognitive strategy awareness and strategy use skills. MARSI is a quick and efficient self-report measure designed to assess 6th- through 12th-grade students' awareness and perceived use of reading strategies while reading academic texts. Mokhtari and Sheorey state that MARSI has double benefits. The first one is to increase learners' awareness of their own comprehension processes. It also provides teachers with information necessary for understanding the needs of their students (Park, 2010).

Generally, there are several instruments that measure students' metacognitive reading strategy awareness. However, this study chosen MARSI to measure the effect of metacognitive reading strategy awareness while reading academic text. Because MARSI was validated in many researches and proved that it was appropriate for second language learners.

2.24.3. Measuring students' reading motivation

The most common instrument used to assess reading motivation is 'Reading Motivation Questionnaires' (RMQ). Schaffner and Schiefele (2007) and Schiefele et al. (2012) developed it by referring to Wigfield and Guthrie (1997). MRQ is used to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Wang and Guthrie (2004) formed the MRQ, which measures both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as a motivation model. It identifies eight features of motivation to read. A desire to work with foreigners (challenges) and a desire to understand information from written materials (curiosity) are parts of extrinsic reading motivation. These kinds of reading interest are competition, recognition, grades, compliance and social interactions (McGeown, Norgate & Warhurst, 2012).

Generally, Motivation to Read Questionnaire (MRQ) used to measure different aspects of students' reading motivation. This study used this instrument because it was shown that it was reliable and validated in previous studies.

2.24.4. Measuring Students' Reading Strategy Instruction Perception

A semi-structured interview was used in this study to measure the students' perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. Describing the aspects of reading strategy explicit instruction practices is one of the methods used to collect data about the success and failure of the intervention. An interview is very important to identify factors that affect the success of the instruction. It is vital for gaining insight into how the participants improved their meaning making in reading (Seid, 2006).The participants' perceptions, opinions and attitudes toward explicit instruction are better identified by interviewing them. Interview questions can be standardized or researcher-made (Patron, 2002). Chamot (2005) suggests two types of interviews to identify learners' strategy use. The first one is retrospective interviews in which students are guided to recall the strategies they recently used while they were reading or they are reading. The second interview type is a stimulated recall interview, which is carried out immediately after they read texts (Chamot, 2005). According to Vandergrift (1997), the students' activities can be videotaped, and each of them may be invited to report what he or she was doing at that moment.

In summary, the purpose of the interview in this study was to examine participants' perceptions about metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. For this, a semi-structured interview

was carried out. As stated earlier, the participants' perceptions about explicit instruction of reading strategy is better identified by interviewing them. It also evaluates students' perception of the instruction's effectiveness.

2.25. Assessing the Difficulty Levels of Texts

Researchers often face difficulty in selecting suitable reading texts for their study, especially for testing reading comprehension. Text difficulty arises from different factors, which reside in reading the text itself, and others inherent in the relationship between reader and text. This means that a professional judgment of text difficulty level is not enough. When testing their students' reading abilities, teachers should test the difficulty levels of texts as a starting point. Three knowledge areas should be considered when testing the readability of texts for the students. These are the knowledge about participants' characteristics and reading texts (their background experience), knowledge about surface features of reading materials (vocabulary, word length and images if any), and the knowledge about deeper features of reading texts (text organization and structures) (Bracho, 2007).

Generally, students come to reading texts with different experiences that affect their reading comprehension and reading motivation. For instance, surface features of reading texts such as word length, vocabulary, sentence length or nay images. Deeper features of reading texts can also influence readers understanding of texts. Deeper features are organization, structure and concepts in the texts. Therefore, these things should be considered when testing the readability of texts for the students.

2.25.1. Readability Defined

Readability is the sum total of all elements within a given piece of printed material that affect readers' reading success, such as understanding of the texts, reading speed, level of interest, etc. (Vajjala & Muters, 2014). The readability formula is one way of estimating the difficulty of documents. Several readability formulas have been developed, and how to apply them has been published. Some of them are the Flesch (Wray & Janan), the Kincaid readability formulas (Kincaid et al., 1975), the Fog Index (Gunning, 1952) and the Close Test (Taylor, 1953).).

The Flesch Reading Ease Formula: This formula studies the relationship between text features like word length, sentence length, and text difficulty such as reading comprehension, reading rate, etc. Reading comprehension difficulty may depend on the difficulty in readability. The Flesch Reading Ease Score, which generates a score between 1 to 100, is calculated by the following formula: *Score = 206.835-(1.015 x ASL)-(84.6 x ASW), w*here ASL represents the average sentence length, and ASW denotes the average number of syllables per word. In this formula, documents with score of 30 are considered as 'very difficult' whereas documents with a score of 70 are seen as 'easy' to read. The documents with the Flesch Formula Reading Ease Score higher than 90 are equated with grade fifth student level. When the Fleuch Reading Ease Formula measures difficulty levels of written materials, it uses two measures (Sirico, 2007). In the first place, it measures the average number of words in a sentence. It also measures the number of syllables per word. The formula counts as a word any numbers (e.g. 35, 555), letters, abbreviations (e.g. WHO, i.e.) and symbols. Hyphenated words (e.g. second-grade) and contractions (e.g. couldn't, they're) count as one word. Previous studies also used this readability checkers in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa University (e.g. Mendida, 1988; Tibebe, 1987).

Table 2.3: Readability Index of the Flesch Reading Ease Score

No	Scores	difficulty levels	Grade levels
1	90-100	Very easy	5^{th} to 7^{th} students
2	80-90	Easy	
3	70-80	Fairly easy	
4	60-70	Normal	8^{th} to 9^{th} students
5	50-60	Fairly difficult	10^{th} to 12^{th}students
6	30-50	difficult	
7	0-30	Very difficult	College students

Readability Index of the Flesch Reading Ease Score

The Fog Index: The other readability formula is 'the Fog Index, which was first developed by Gunning in 1952. This index is based on two variables, that is, average sentence length and the

number of words which contain more than two syllables, which he called hard words. This is for every 100 words of a text. *GL = 0.4 x (average sentence length + hard words).*

Automatic Readability Checker: Automatic Readability Checker (ARC) is used to calculate the number of words, sentences and syllables in textual materials (Vajjala & Muters, 2014).

The Fry Graph Readability Formula: The Fry Graph is developed by Fry of Fulbright in 1963. His graph tests the readability level of textual materials for all levels of readability. Both the Fry Readability Formula and SMOG use only sentence length and word difficulty (Vajjala & Muters, 2014).

Close Test: Close test considers some factors like readers' background knowledge, reading interests and attitudes to reading texts. It predicts the suitability of reading texts for the readers. It determines students' language ability, linguistic and communicative competence of L2. According to Canine (1980), the close test is a rapid tactic of corresponding readers' to appropriate expository reading texts. The reading ability of the participants can be understood in terms of familiarity with the structure of sentences, contextual hints, word knowledge, and draw inference ability of the readers from the reading texts (Wijekumar & Beerwinkle, 2018).

To conclude, readability of reading text is the sum total of all elements within a given piece of printed material that affect readers' reading success, such as understanding of the texts, reading speed, level of interest, etc. The readability formula is one way of estimating the difficulty of documents. Several readability formulas have been developed, and how to apply them has been published. In this study, Readability Index of the Flesch Reading Ease Score is used to test readability reading comprehension tests.

2.26. Theoretical Framework of the Study

Cognitive theory focuses on learners, who are the processors of information. In this study, the cognitive theory is considered since it assumes learners as active, purposeful, strategic and conscious of their own reading process. One of the principles of cognitive learning theory is that unobservable constructs like perception, memory, attention, motivation and thinking affect the process of knowing or cognition and learning. He also said that learning should be presented in such an easy way that learners can pay attention to learning, perceive it, understand it and manage it (Manzouri, Shahraki & Fatemi, 2016).

This theory emphasizes active learning since it assumes that learners learn not only by observing but also by being actively involved in the process of learning, which is enhanced by motivation (Malone & Lepper, 1987). According to cognitive theory, reading strategy learning is an interaction of internal and external factors. In this study, the students were involved in the mental activities, in which they acted, constructed and planned. They did not simply receive the trainer's stimuli. Furthermore, they practiced the strategy, which helped them to use the strategy independently. Three modules were carefully prepared to enhance the students' learning of the strategy. Cognitive theory favors authentic materials for meaning. This study included authentic reading materials and written modules so that the intervention was implemented successfully. The extensive reading strategy practice expose learners to personal the strategy learning and engage participants in authentic reading strategy practice. Explicit instructing and practicing metacognitive reading strategies were the focus of this study. The trainer also instructed the students on how to transfer the strategy to new reading contexts. The trainer was also instructed on integrating content and strategy learning. Such kind of process of making contexts helps the learners perceive and store in their long memory (Macaro, 2001).

Therefore, this study gave attention to the three knowledge in helping students to be independent readers. The cognitive reading theory considers the background knowledge of readers. This background knowledge includes the knowledge about the structure texts, the knowledge about world knowledge and knowledge about the topic of the texts, that help readers to understand, analyze, elaborate, draw an inference of texts and monitor understanding of the texts (Abiy, 2004). Deep learning demands cognitive skills such as analyzing, combining different ideas, judging importance of messages, quality and values. Deep learning can be achieved by preparing appropriate reading texts and by providing explicit instruction. Cognitive theory gives room for the participants of this study to play roles in learning new reading strategies. In this study, the trainer gave emphasizes to the learner-centered language teaching. The application of cognitive theory is similar to cognitive processes, which positively influence the learning of metacognitive reading strategy (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Promoting interactions among readers, texts and teachers, integrating current reading ideas with their prior knowledge while reading are instruction techniques used to enhance deep learning (Abiy, 2004). One of the principles of cognitive learning theory is that it is concerned with

unobservable constructs such as perception and motivation that influence the process of knowing and using learning strategy. Cognitive learning theory emphasizes individual difference in learning (Manzouri et al., 2016).

The psychology of learning has been moved from the behavioral perspective to the cognitive development perspective. Currently, the cognitive processes in learning to read while reading, especially in the area of metacognition received great interest (Alshay, 2002). Alshay notes that metacognition is an appropriate theory for learning and reading. This theory values instruction that focuses on developing metacognitive strategies for independent learning and reading comprehension (Gourgey, 1998). Metacognition theory hypothesizes that the use of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension. These strategies assist learners to develop the skills to control their own cognitive activities. Metacognitive reading strategies have important roles in improving students' reading comprehension. Awareness is an important concept in this kind of approach (Brown, 2007). Reading strategy awareness is what the students know about the new reading strategy they learned and used. According to Brown, learners need to be aware of their learning processes.

As stated earlier, this study used CALLA as metacognitive reading strategy instruction model. CALLA is based on cognitive learning theory. It directly instructs learners about learning strategy and aimed to double learners' academic achievements. It depends on the learners' background knowledge, the importance of cooperative learning and the growth of metacognitive self-reflection and awareness (Wiezbicki-Stevens, 2009).

Learners should actively participate in classroom interaction and use their cognitive resources such as individual knowledge and experiences to construct the meaning (Park, 20101). A theoretical model to explain and formalize the role played by background knowledge in language learning is known as schema theory. Schema theory explains how the reader brings his/her knowledge (schemata) to the process of reading. Schema theory posits that the process of reading with comprehension involves the interaction between the reader's schema and the text (Park, 2010). Schema is created and renewed. The creation and updating of the schema provide readers with new bases in the interpretation of reading texts. Additionally, the schema can also be shared to other persons (Ozeki, 2000). If the learning of a new strategy is done with interlocutors, the new strategy can be easily learned and experienced. Ozeki (2000) asks the following questions to

accomplish schema in reading: A) What do readers know about the topic under reading? B) What information do readers bring to reading the classroom to help their partners? C) What kind of prediction can they make about the topic they are going to read?

It is the teachers' roles to activate the students' existing knowledge in order to make reading smoother (Ozeki, 2000). The uses of strategy modeling, the use of other teaching aids such as pictures are important, especially for lower readers to activate their background knowledge. It is any reading text that does not carry meaning in and of itself rather it provides direction for readers so that they can construct meaning from their own cognitive structures (Hadley, 2001).

Generally, this study used cognitive theory as a theoretical framework for the study. The study used CALLA model as a model of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction to see its effect on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception of strategy explicit instruction.

Metacognitive reading strategy deals with pre-planning, pre-assessing, on-line evaluating and post-evaluating of learning processes. Reading comprehension better occurs when readers build the relationship between texts with their past knowledge. Pre-reading strategies are used to activate readers' schemata before reading texts. Therefore, training learners on pre-reading strategies are helpful for enhancing foreign language students' reading processes (Cohen, 1998). It is the teacher's responsibility to help learners to build new knowledge and activate their past knowledge. According to Britt, Rouet and Durik (2017)), learners' reading difficulties might arise from lack of previous knowledge. Therefore, teachers' responsibilities can be seen in two ways: activating previous knowledge and building new knowledge of students (Ruddell, Ruddell & Singer, 1994).

2.27. Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework helps readers of the study to understand the major concepts the researcher is going to examine or measure, and how those concepts might interact with each other. Thomas and Pring (2004) suggest that an empirical study needs to include clarification of the conceptual framework of the study by specifying in precise terms, which are used and studied. Becker (1998) defines the word concept as "an abstract idea based on phenomena in reality that constitutes our data...'' (p, 32). Its meaning indicates the action of organizing many

things within a single thought. The conceptual framework of a study is the system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that support and inform the research under investigation (Corbetta, 2003). As stated earlier, the present study examines to what extent metacognitive reading strategy instruction changes the students' reading performance, metacognitive reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of reading strategy explicit instruction.

Consequently, the concepts which are used in this study are reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness, motivation, cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model and classroom reading and extensive reading practice. Metacognitive reading strategy instruction was planned and implemented according to CALLA reading strategy instruction model. The CALLA was followed by training manuals, which include lists of metacognitive reading strategies, reading strategy objectives, organized activities for classroom and out-of-classroom practices.

This dissertation is based on the cognitive theory view. According to this view, by using metacognition, teachers can help their students to be strategic readers (Dangin, 2016). Metacognition is both readers' awareness and control of what they do, not only their cognitive processes but their feelings and motivation (Louca, 2003). The metacognitive reading theory posits that metacognitive reading strategy development promotes readers' reading monitoring and helps them to regulate their cognitive processes. The use of reading strategy is dependent on whether strategies were employed metacognitively or not (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2001).

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Instruction Framework

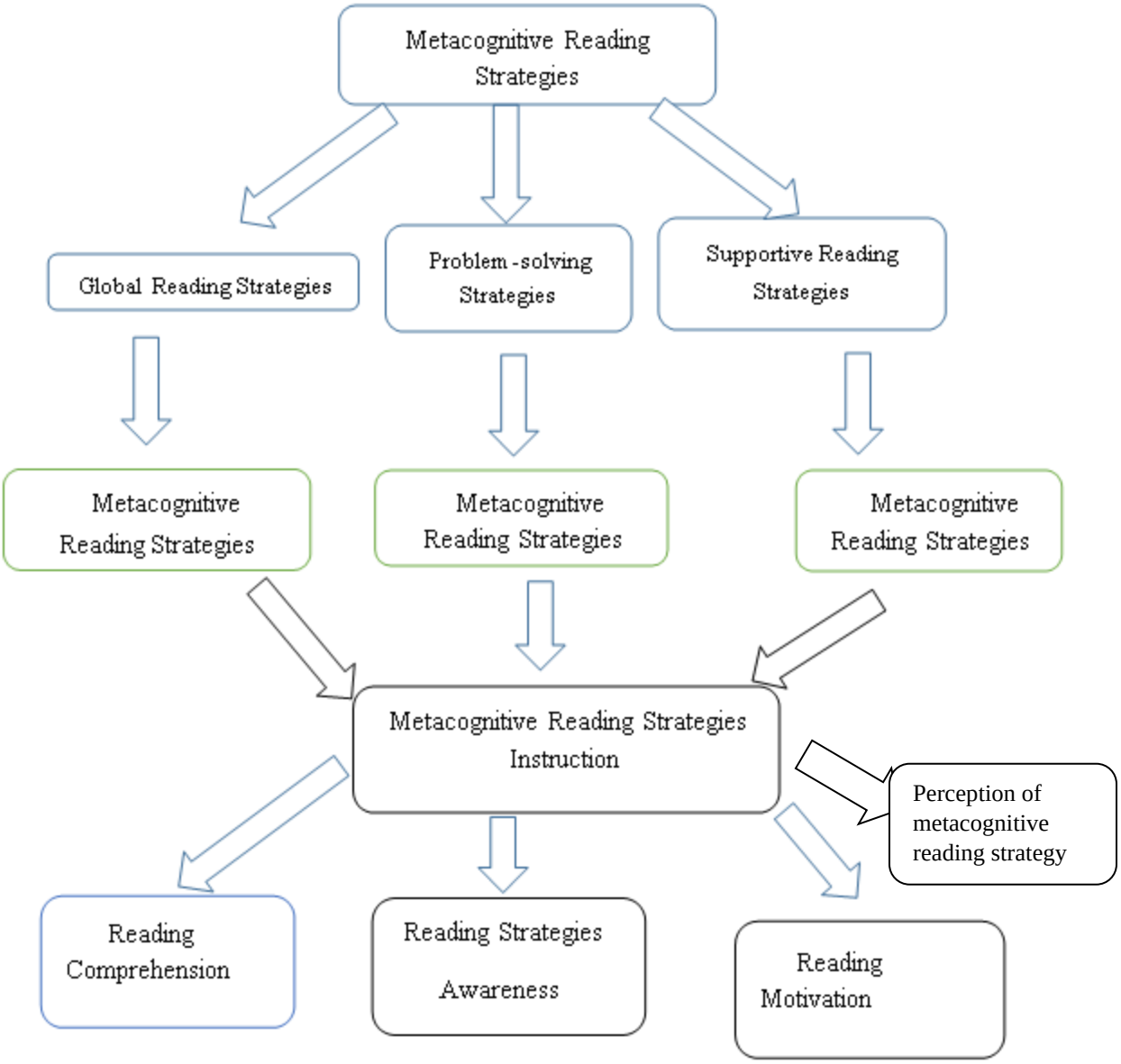

Figure 2: Metacognitive reading strategy instruction conceptual framework

The above figure shows that the metacognitive reading strategy instruction was started by the instruction of the global reading strategy. Part one of the module on reading strategy instruction was prepared on the global reading strategy. The global reading strategy consists of seven reading strategies, which are setting a purpose for reading, activating prior knowledge, predicting what text is about, previewing text for content and confirming prediction, skimming to note text characteristics, using context clues and using text structures. Among these reading strategies, using context clues and using text structures are divided into other sub-strategies (see Table 2.1 for details of Global Reading Strategy). The time spent on each strategy was different

depending on the sub-contents in each strategy. Module two was prepared for problem-solving reading strategy, which consisted of six reading strategies. These are reading slowly, carefully, adjusting reading rate, paying close attention to reading, pausing to reflect on reading, rereading, visualizing information read and guessing meaning of unknown words. Lastly, module three was prepared on the supportive reading strategy, which contained eight reading strategies. These are taking notes while reading, paraphrasing text information, revisiting previously read information, asking self-questions, using reference materials as aid, underlining text information, discussing reading with others and writing summaries of reading. After a specific strategy was taught, treatment questionnaires and post-tests were administered in the same fashion as during the pre-intervention phase. In the end, the interview after reading was conducted with students selected from the treatment group.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3. Introduction

This study used both quantitative and qualitative data in the attempt to examine the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. This chapter, therefore, discusses the research methodology, that is, procedures taken in conducting this study. The discussion starts with the description of the research paradigm, approaches and methods. Next to this, the research design that was employed is described. This then is followed by the descriptions of the setting of the study, which is followed by the participants of the study. This section also clarifies the sampling technique and its procedure, which is followed by the description of training materials. The next section describes the instruments of data collection. It then explains the data collection procedures. Methods of data analysis and interpretation are also elaborated. Next to this, research ethics is presented before a brief conclusion of the chapter.

3.1. Research setting

Quasi-experimental study can be involved in the selection of one case study site (Creswell, 2010). The setting for this study was Ambo Preparatory School located in Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. Ethiopia is surrounded by neighboring countries such as Kenya, Eritrea, Djibouti, Somalia, the Sudan and South Sudan. In addition to the increment of the need of the English language with the advancement of globalization, Ethiopia's location leads it to contact foreigners. Oromia has the largest population in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa is the capital of the country, Ethiopia and Oromia. In Oromia Regional State, there are several public and private schools. There are also religious schools in the regional state. Among them are Orthodox Church schools, protestant church schools and Islam schools. These religious schools contributed to the development of modern education in Ethiopia.

Ambo Preparatory School is found in Ambo Town. Ambo town is 112 kilometers far from the capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. Tourist sites in the Western Shoa Zone are Wenchi Lake (in Ameya District, Oda Bisil (in Ilu Gelan District), Chelomo Forest (in Dandi District), Dandi Lake (in Dandi District) and Habte Giorgis Dinagde Palace (in Ambo Town). Ambo is also known for its mineral water, which is a famous brand in Ethiopia. Ambo is also known for its white marbles. The Ethiopian Research Center is also found in the town, which was established in 1977. Ambo District is bordered by Dirre Inchinni in the southeast, Cheliya in the west, Gindeberet in the north, Jeldu on the northeast, Dendi in the east and the southwest Shoa Zone (Wolliso) in the southeast.

Ambo Secondary School was established in 1933. The school celebrated its 5th anniversary in 2006. The school has a large library and science laboratories. Among 22 preparatory schools, Western Shoa Zone has one private preparatory school. Ambo town is 184 kilometer from Jimma University, which sponsored this study. According to the Central Statistics Agency of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2015), the total population of Ambo town is 70,900. The area of the town is 10.2 kilometer square. The town has a latitude and longitude of 8°59′N 37°51′E respectively and an elevation of 2101 meters.

At preparatory (grades 11 and 12) levels, the aim is preparing the students for higher education level (ETP, 1994). Ambo Preparatory School students were selected since adolescents and adults have more cognitive skills than young children; they are more likely to depend on sophisticated linguistic skills (Harper & de Jong, 2004).

3.2. Research Paradigm

Researchers must consider how they want to go about studying the problems they are going to study. Schwandt (2001) suggests that the research approach may depend on how the researchers view problems and those problems can be investigated. To do this, researchers have their own outlooks or views of what constitutes truth and knowledge, which guides their thinking, their beliefs and their assumptions about societies and about themselves. This is called a ‘paradigm’ (Schwandt, 2001). The word was coined by Thomas Kuhn in 1971 when he argues that science is governed by a sequence of activities. Since then, it got commonplace in both social theory and educational research. Kuhn shifted the traditional perspective to the scientific revolution (Biesta, 2010). He called this conceptual network a ‘paradigm’ (Corbetta, 2003). Kuhn (1962) suggests

that the paradigm provides a map with directions for mapmaking. Paradigm contains a guide that is very helpful for conducting a study (Biesta, 2010). It is defined as worldviews on reality, nature of reality, nature of knowledge and nature of values (Morgan, 2007).

The concepts of ontology, epistemology and axiology are very important in a paradigm viewpoint. To begin with, the ontological assumption concerns the nature and form of reality of society. Ontology is the philosophy of reality. It asks questions of social phenomena whether the reality exists outside our mind or independent from the interpretations of the subject, 'things in their own right or representations of things' (Corbetta, 2003). The other philosophical assumption is epistemology, which is, the manner in which we know the world. Epistemology is related to both the ontology and the methodology. Epistemology addresses the way we come to know those realities, whereas methodology differentiates and addresses how we come to know that reality (Creswell, 2012).

The last philosophical assumption is axiological assumption. Axiology studies values. Researchers bring their values to their researches. For instance, they may bias study throughout, introduction to conclusion, including the interpretation of the study. The important question is how researchers put into practice those values. Therefore, researchers should be honest with the scientific values and interpret those values. In this study, the researcher tried to respect scientific communities in all processes of conducting the study. There are two issues in the methodological assumption (Creswell, 2012).

Positivism is a quantitative paradigm. Positivism is usually associated to scientists Auguste Comte and Emile Durkheim (Jupp, 2006). Positivists support the application of approaches of the natural sciences to the study of social reality. The positivist approach rests on a foundation that stresses the principles of measurement, causality, generalization and replication (Bryman, 2001). Statistical techniques are central to positivist research, which specifically structures research techniques to uncover single and objective reality (Carson et al., 2001). Positivist ideology use was approved by scientists in the 19th Century; however, it faced many challenges in terms of its epistemology and ontology, and its undermining the mind and people's ways of life. It excluded individuality since it defined life in a measurable manner; it referred to individual behaviors as passive like the behaviorist approach (Cohen et al., 2007). Unlike positivists, post-positivism views the reality as it exists 'outside the human mind', in cause and

effect relationships. Such kind of viewpoint is termed as 'critical realism' (Corbetta, 2003). In the case of assumption, the relationship between the scholar and the thing to be investigated is dualism. Deductive reasoning is emphasized through the mechanism of falsifying or accepting hypotheses (Corbetta, 2003). The methodological assumption in this paradigm is based on the detachment between the scholars and the studied objects. The objects studied are the experiments, manipulation of variables, quantitative interviews, statistical analysis, etc. However, qualitative methods of researching are acknowledged.

Another paradigm in research is the interpretivism paradigm, which focuses on action. This paradigm gives a place for an individual's world interpretation (Cohen, Manion & Morrios, 2007). Relativism varies among individuals. There must be multiple social realities in that they are seen and perceived in different perspectives and interpreted as social facts. The assumption of critical theory is known by its non-dualism and non-objectivity, ideal types, possibilities and its opportunity structures (Corbetta, 2003). On its methodological assumption, interpretivism holds the view that there is a sympathetic interface between the object and the one who studies about it. The finding obtained from the study varies depending on the interaction between the object to be studied and the scholars. The inductive process is used in obtaining knowledge without preconceptions of theories (Corbetta, 2003).

Constructivism is another research paradigm that guides researchers. Constructivists or naturalists hold the view that knowledge is proven via the findings attached to the phenomena studied. They assume that knowledge is context and `time-dependent (Cousins, 2002). The focal points of constructivism and objectivism are social science research (Bryman, 2004). Objectivism views social reality as independent of the scholar's awareness.

Another research paradigm is pragmatism. According to pragmatism, researchers should use the philosophical or methodological approach that works best for the particular research problem under investigation (Biesta, 2010). It embraces plurality of methods; it is often associated with mixed-methods or multiple-methods (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The term pragmatism is derived from the Greek word 'pragma', which is action. Action is central concept for pragmatism. It holds the idea that human action is cannot be separated from the past experiences and the beliefs that originated from the past experiences (Pansiri, 2005). Pragmatic paradigm advocates that there is no single reality, and a reality is constantly renegotiated, debated, interpreted and a

combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods and design-based research (Morgan, 2014).

It is important to state the difference between qualitative, quantitative and mixed research approaches. First of all, qualitative research is different things to different people (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The qualitative research approach consists of material practice and its interpretation. It uses techniques such as interviews, field notes, recordings, conversations, etc., and it studies these in their natural settings. Qualitative methods describe things, events, people, situations, interactions, a behavior observed, quotations, case stories/histories, motivations, attitudes, correspondence, etc in the form of narrating, tables, ethnographies (Ridenour & Newman, 2008). The second research approach is quantitative research, which many scholars referred it as 'hypothesis testing research' (Krathwohl, 2004; John & Christensen, 2004). Theories of L2 acquisition explain phenomena that consist a testable hypothesis. If the theories could not be falsified, they cannot be scientific theories (Ridenour & Newman, 2008). The hypotheses in this study test the relationship among variables of the study. Lastly, the mixed research approach is built on the post-positivism paradigm, which the present study follows. The way researchers accept reality in post-positivism is shared by the two approaches, that is, qualitative and quantitative (Ridenour & Newman, 2008). According to Morgan (2007), mixed approach researchers believe that mixing the two approaches balances the strengthens and weaknesses of the two approaches. It is holistic; it closes gaps.

In this study, investigating the effects of the explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception of reading strategy explicit instruction to read in English used a mixed approach. The pre-test was made; intervention was conducted; post-test measures were made and statistical analysis was done. The mixed approach was used in this study in the overall research design, in the methods of data collection, analysis, discussion and conclusion. This means, both positivism and post-positivism paradigm were used in this study.

3.3. Research Design

This study used a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test research design. It helps to compare students who participate in a certain program to students who do not participate (Creswell, 2014). The independent variable is explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy whereas

the dependent variables are scores of reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction of Grade 11 students at Ambo Preparatory School enrolled in 2019/2020. The researcher assigned intact groups, that is, the treatment and the comparison groups. Next to the administration of the pre-tests, reading strategy instruction and practicing the strategy were carried out with the experimental group and then post-tests were administered to assess the differences between the two groups. In this study, since more weights are given to the quantitative data, a design suggested by Dorneyi (2007), that is, QUAN + qual, was used. The capital letters indicate the comparative dominance given to the quantitative data, and the plus mark shows the simultaneous gathering of both quantitative and qualitative data. The quasi-experimental study started first and was later followed with the interview to examine of the effects metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction and look for causes and changes qualitatively. The attempt was to see the possible potentials or the benefits of reading strategy instruction from different angles by using an interview with six selected students from the treatment group. During the pilot study, five students were selected from the treatment group for the interview. However, six students were selected from the treatment group for the main study since the numbers of students in the main study were larger than the students in the pilot study.

3.4. Participants of the Study

The main objective of this research was to examine the effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of reading strategy explicit instruction. The study was conducted at Ambo Preparatory School in Oromia, Ethiopia, which is among 22 (21 public and 1 private) preparatory schools in Western Shoa Zone. According to Ambo Preparatory School Registrar Office, there were 2317 Grade 11 students in Ambo Preparatory School in 2020. Among these, 1309 were males and 1008 were females. There were 25(A-Y) sections of Grade 11. Two sections were selected by using random sampling technique (lottery method). All the sections A to Y were written on a piece of paper and the lottery was drawn. Accordingly, section P and W were selected for the study. Similarly, lottery was drawn to select treatment and comparison groups. Accordingly, section P was selected as the treatment group while section W was selected as the comparison group. There were 82 students in the P section. Among these, 49

were males and 33 were females. There were 87 students in the comparison group. Out of these, 51 were males and 36 females. Therefore, the students had similar levels. The comparison group participated in the reading strategy instruction in a conventional way for two months. The comparison group students participated in the learning of reading strategy in a way that they learn reading in their regular classes. However, the treatment group students participated in the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy. They were provided within the classroom and out of the classroom reading strategy practice for two months. At the end of the two months, all students in both groups took post-tests for reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness and reading motivation. Finally, six students selected from the treatment group were interviewed on how the reading strategy instruction affected their reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness and reading motivation. Simple random sampling technique (lottery method) was used to include these students.

One trainer was recruited and trained to train participants in the study. The trainer received the training by the researcher for seven days on December 1-7, 2019/2020.The trainer had varied and rich teaching experiences. He taught English since 2009 i.e. eleven years. He finished three years BA degree program in 2008. Then, he worked for 9 years in Ambo Preparatory School. He then joined Haramaya University to attend his MA degree in Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) from 2018 to 2019. He successfully finished his second degree program in TFFL. Then, he has been teaching English in grades 11 and 12 in Ambo Preparatory School.

3.5. Samples and Sampling Techniques

All Grade 11 students of Ambo Preparatory School were the target population of this study whereas the population of this study were all groups of individuals who were attending their Grade eleven in Ethiopian public school contexts. The sampling frame for the intervention and comparison groups was Ambo Public Preparatory School Grade 11 students. Ambo Preparatory School was selected for this study using a convenient, non-probability sampling technique. The convenient sampling technique was chosen because the researcher could easily select participants of this study based on their relative ease of access. This means the preparatory school's proximity to the researcher was considered in choosing the study area (Dornyei, 2007). This school is located near Ambo University where the researcher works. Furthermore, this study focused on preparatory school, hoping that researching into preparatory school students' reading

problems could be an effective area of intervention for improving their reading skills for their future independent learning.

It is important for a researcher to decide on a sample size before starting an experiment (Gall et al., 2003). Two sections were selected from Grade 11 students by using the lottery method, a simple random sampling technique. Accordingly, section P (N=82) and section W (N=87) were selected as participants of the study. In a similar way, simple random sampling was used to select the both treatment and comparison groups from the two sections. Based on the lottery drawn, section P was selected as the treatment group while section W was selected as the comparison group. Six students were selected from the treatment group for the interview by using simple random sampling techniques, i.e. lottery method.

3.6. Procedures for Choosing Trainer

In order to minimize bias in the treatment, a trainer was chosen for this study. Wang (2006) commented that the study is less biased if the person who analyzes research data and a person who gives treatment is different. There were seven English teachers who had MA degrees in English and had been teaching in Grade 11 level. Among them, one showed interest and willingness to participate in the explicit instruction of reading strategy. This teacher had MA in English language and literature from Haramaya University. He had also received different trainings in language teaching from different institutions (e.g. Ambo University). His experiences showed that he had sufficient experience, knowledge and skills to give reading strategy training for the treatment group. The selected trainer in this study told to the researcher that his teaching philosophy enjoys trying new teaching pedagogy. Additionally, he wins his students learning interest by his openness and friendly approach, which may have an impact on teaching reading strategies. Moreover, he is sociable with his students. This teacher taught both the treatment and the comparison groups.

The trainer taught both the treatment and the comparison groups. The researcher trained the trainer explicitly on the pedagogy of teaching reading before he trained the participants of this study for seven days. This means he should include all the students in the treatment group in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. The researcher trained him on how to deliver reading strategies instruction so that the strategy intervention could be implemented successfully. The trainer's role was teaching students metacognitive reading strategies by using lesson plans,

making students participate actively during the lessons such as giving opportunities to respond to questions, asking questions individually, in pairs, in small groups or whole class, discussing strategy together and evaluating their own strategy learning. In short, he engaged students in the process of reading strategy learning in the form of active learning. He was also trained on how to meet most of the students' needs by including wide ranges of classroom interactions. During the training of the trainer, Chinese proverb "Apply medication according to the sickness'', (Zhang, 2014, p.11) was used. This saying indicates that medical doctors should treat patients based on the patients' sickness. In a similar way, the trainer should treat each individual according to his or her needs.

He taught reading strategy by using metacognitive reading strategy instruction modules prepared by the researcher. The researcher prepared both reading strategy modules and lesson plans for strategy instruction. The trainer was supposed to use the lesson plans and those modules (instructional materials). The researcher supervised some of the classes in order to ensure the accuracy, accountability and appropriateness of the trainer's classroom reading strategy instruction delivery. After the supervision of some of the lessons, he gave immediate feedback for the trainer. The researcher and the trainer discussed each of the lessons supervised before and after the class. Depending on the discussions, the researcher gave feedback on the interventions. In general, the classroom was interactive. The trainer introduced a new strategy, as a new concept and provided support if the students needed it. Each lesson was built on skills that had been taught in the previous days. The trainer gave much support initially and gradually reduced the support so that most of the students performed independently. He also trained the comparison group students. However, he used traditional methods of teaching reading. He taught these metacognitive reading strategies using the teacher-centered approach. The trainer presented all the information. The students did not participate in the group discussions before or after the lesson. They also did not practice the strategies in and out of the classroom (see subsection under 1.8 in chapter one for more about the conventional way of teaching reading).

3.7. Description of the Reading Strategy Training Materials

The organization of the intervention was designed to support students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation to read and perception about metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. To do this, the participants of the study were provided with explicit classroom instruction on metacognitive reading strategy, with the chance to involve in the meaningful practice of the strategies in and out of the classroom in various contexts for eight weeks. The justification on the number of weeks is mentioned in Appendix G (see Appendix G). The participants were informed that they would not receive a grade in participating in the intervention.

To achieve the objectives of this study, the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) was used as a reading strategy instruction model (see section 3.9 for details). Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) divided the reading strategy into three subscales. The three types of the metacognitive reading strategies were included in the training of the participants of the study. The first type of Mokhtari and Sheorey's reading strategy is a global reading strategy, which is defined as 'intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading'. The other type of reading strategy is a problem-solving strategy, which represents strategies for solving problems when texts become difficult to read. The last type of reading strategy is supportive reading strategy, which Mokhtari and Sheorey refer to as reading strategy in which aids and tools used by readers to comprehend reading texts (see Chapter Two, section 2.17 for details).

Another important issue that needs to be considered in this study is choosing reading passages that are authentic and reflect the ability levels of participants. It is very important to select the reading materials that are appropriate for most of the students. The selection of appropriate reading materials should be done according to the students' reading levels since the texts that the students have little prior knowledge negatively affect their reading performances. The reading materials used for the strategy practice in this study were extracted from TOEFL and authentic texts from local newspapers, magazines, internet (web series) and students' textbooks based on the goal of the lessons, which were guided by the lesson plan. Scaffolding is very important during reading strategy practice in this kind of instruction in the classroom. The treatment group

discussed in the classroom with their classmates and their trainer what they have practiced at their homes. They did this for each of the strategies they have practiced.

3.8. The Procedure of Classroom Reading Strategy Practices

Participants of this study participated in several exercises around the metacognitive reading strategies throughout the treatment, which helped them to become more aware of these strategies. The trainer first introduced the topic of the reading passages to the participants. He made the students write down the topic. Then, they brainstormed what they knew about the topic. They wrote down their ideas and reported them to the class. The learners were informed of the usefulness of the activities and provided with training to ensure that they would continue to employ them in and out of the classroom reading tasks.

Global reading strategies took one month of training (see Appendix G for the action plans). These strategies consisted of seven types of reading strategies. These were activating prior knowledge, predicting what text is about, previewing text for content, skimming, and scanning, using context clues and using text structure. Out of these, using contextual clues also consisted of seven sub-reading strategies. These were word parts, definition, synonyms, examples, antonyms, punctuation marks and parts of speech. In addition, using text structure consisted of finding the main idea, finding details, finding linking words and finding a conclusion. Therefore, the global reading strategy had several components. This was why it took much time in the training.

The problem-solving reading strategy took 2 weeks of instruction. This strategy contained six types of reading strategies: 1) reading slowly, carefully and adjusting reading rate, 2) paying close attention to reading, 3) pausing to reflect on reading, 4) rereading, 5) visualizing information read and 6) guessing the meaning of unknown words. The last reading strategy included in the training was supportive reading strategy, which consist of eight of strategies. Supportive reading strategy instruction took two weeks and 2 days. In general, the reading strategy intervention in the three modules took two months, 8weeks and three times a week. Accordingly, more than 25 days were assigned to accomplish the treatment (See Appendix G for Action Plan for intervention).

3.9. Instructional Model

The metacognitive reading strategy instruction model used in this study was CALLA, which was proposed by Chamot and O'Malley (1994). CALLA is an abbreviation for Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach. This model was first designed to assist to learn how to read in English. CALLA was proposed in the USA in order to maximize the L2 secondary school students' academic achievements (Allen, 2003). There are three important components of CALLA in reading strategy instruction: Authentic materials, language learning strategies and academic language (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). Academic language function involves finding for information, classifying, ordering, comparing and evaluating information. Reading skills is one of the academic requirements. According to Adiguzel and Gurses (2013), CALLA is an effective model in order to examine the effectiveness of explicit instruction of reading strategy in L2 in terms of reading strategy use (Takallou, 2011) and reading achievements (Cubuku, 2008).

During its emergence, Chamot and O'Malley (1994) implemented CALLA in more than thirty schools in the USA and many other nonnative English countries. CALLA consists of six phases of strategy instruction. In this study, each stage of CALLA was used to investigate the effects of explicit instruction of reading strategy on students' reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. Among the six phases of CALLA, the fifth step (expansion) is used for out of classroom reading strategy practice. When they practice at their homes, they try to transfer new reading strategies they learned to other contexts. The founders of CALLA suggested that in strategy learning, each stage of CALLA should be adopted in a learning strategy so that the students' needs are met. The students in the treatment group were given and encouraged to read texts at their home in order to further practice strategy after each lesson. They were also encouraged to use strategies by combining them.

The trainer modeled the strategy use (what, when, how to use them) in the classroom strategy practice. He also explained each strategy explicitly. He remodeled and re-explained where trainees showed difficulties when necessary. He diagnosed the difficulties of the students' strategy use and adjusted the instruction based on the researcher's feedbacks before and after the classroom instruction. Furthermore, the strategy use monitor checklist helped the trainer to identify the participants' difficulties in reading strategy use. All of the three types of

metacognitive reading strategies, i.e. global reading strategy, problem-solving reading strategy and supportive reading strategy were demonstrated and modeled by using the CALLA. This model allows for more opportunities for the strategies practice so that the students could be strategic readers. It also facilitates the evaluation of what way the instruction affects their reading strategies that they learned. Since its development, CALLA was tried in several empirical studies, and it has been proven as an effective learning strategy instruction model. Researchers found that CALLA increases strategy use, supports strategy use and encourages the transfer of strategy to other contexts. Additionally, CALLA is an effective instructional method as it divides its components into different stages, which are applied systematically.

This approach was initially developed to teach students to read. However, in this study, it was used to teach students how to read and comprehend in English. The stages of CALLA help students to learn the strategies gradually so that they use the strategies independently. It also helps the students and the teachers to evaluate the strategies learnt to see how well students mastered the strategies (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). The six phases of CALLA are discussed as follows:

Phase 1: Preparation

Preparation is CALLA's initial phase. In this stage, the trainer asked the students about the strategies they learned before. The objectives of each strategy learning were explained before learning the strategies. The trainer also taught new vocabulary. This stage enhances learners' strategy awareness since it helps to activate their prior knowledge via discussion or brainstorming. In addition to this, it helped the trainer to identify what the students already knew and what they needed to learn about each strategy. For instance, he asked the students questions like ''What do you know about this picture?, "What kinds of clues helped you to predict about what will happen in the text?, "Do you use this strategy in your reading?'' The students were asked individually, and share their opinion in pairs and at last share in the classroom. On the other hand, he used discussions on the strategy the participants used while reading in English.

Phase 2: Presentation

The second step of CALLA is called presentation. In this stage, the students are given explicit training on each of the reading strategies. The trainer modeled the students' practice as part of

the presentation in this phase so that they monitor their strategy use. Here, modeling is a guided practice. In this study, each strategy was explicitly taught regarding what of the strategy, how to use, when, and why to use it. The presentation stage focused on declarative knowledge, situational knowledge and procedural knowledge of reading strategies (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Bracho (2007) advices strategy trainers to follow the following steps of informing the objectives of learning the strategy, ‘’reviewing skills as necessary for new information, presenting new information, questioning students, providing group instruction and independent practice, assessing learning and giving further practice’’ (p.73). All of the three types of reading strategies were taught explicitly for the treatment group. However, comparison group students learned those reading strategies in a conventional way. As mentioned earlier, reading strategy is divided into global, problem-solving and supportive reading strategies.

Phase 3: Practice

In the third phase, the students practiced the reading strategies taught, with authentic content and authentic reading texts through activities in the classroom. The strategy practice was done subsequently in order to encourage the participants’ independent strategy use. After they mastered one reading strategy component, they proceeded to the next one. If they failed to master the strategy, subsequently, they repeated it during the next class, with other authentic reading texts. For instance, in the practice phase, the students did comprehension questions about the Axum Obelisk in a group (cooperative learning). The trainer supplied scaffolding gradually until the participants used the strategy independently.

Phase 4: Evaluation

In this phase, the students evaluated their strategy use based on Chamot (2004, 2005). Self-assessment is an essential part of encouraging students’ independent reading. Independent readers are students who are more aware of their skills. In this study, the trainer may choose certain reading text and ask students to compare and contrast what they read (Dreher & Gray 2009). The participants in this study checked their difficulties by using the revised strategy use monitor checklist prepared by Schraw (1998) (see Appendix J). Then, they returned to the reading activities to deploy the specific reading strategy. The researcher also adapted this checklist for the students to evaluate themselves after each strategy practice. They ticked their monitor of strategy use. They were asked to list their difficulties in strategy use, which helped

the trainer to improve the next lesson. To give an example, the trainer heard the students' responses on the comprehension questions about the Axum Obelisk. He gave feedback to the students. The students' evaluated their use of prediction and confirming prediction. At the end of the teacher's teaching how to predict and confirm the predictions, the students used checklist to evaluate themselves after practice. They listed their difficulties in making prediction and confirming prediction. This helped the trainer to refine the next lesson.

Phase 5: Expansion

After the students evaluated themselves, they were required to transfer the strategy to new reading tasks. They were expected to read materials that had a relation with what they learned in the classroom to practice the strategies on their own paces (Chamot, 2004). In this study, the participants were asked to read simple texts. They were encouraged to connect what they studied in the classroom to their own experiences. During the reading strategy practice at their own pace independently, the participants of the study were encouraged to practice once a day. In this stage, the learners practiced the strategy by integrating with other strategies. This means that they practiced the current strategy with their previous strategies, by including their own life experiences. The authentic and familiar tasks helped them to relate the materials with their background knowledge. For instance, the students were given two texts to practice making predictions and confirming predictions. The first text was prepared on the *Abba Gada of Borana Oromo*. They used pictures to predict what will happen in the text. The second text was prepared on *Abebe Read a Book,* which aimed at practicing the students on how to use clues in the reading text.

Phase 6: Assessment

This phase included both assessments for learning and assessment for comparing pre-tests and post-tests results. The teacher should assess the students' reading strategy learning based on the objectives of the lesson. Before starting a new lesson in the next class, the students were asked to reflect their strategy use independently so that the trainer could assess their strategy use. This allowed the trainer to observe what they clearly understood and might need revision for the next lesson. Finally, the participant result post-tests were compared with their pre-test results to see

the effects of explicit instruction of reading strategy on their reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction.

3.10. Strategy Use Monitoring Checklist

A strategy use monitoring checklist proposed by Schraw (1998) was used in this study. This checklist is an instructional aid to develop cognition knowledge. It is also an effective way of enhancing the trainees' strategy knowledge (Schraw, 1998). Jonassen, Beissner and Yaccin (1993) recommend that strategy use monitoring checklist increases students' strategy learning. The researcher adopted this checklist to help him and the trainer to see how well the students in the treatment group mastered each reading strategy (see Appendix K). In this study, the trainer asked the students individually or in pairs to answer the questions. Based on their responses, he tried to revise some lessons before continuing the next lessons. The students had time to reflect on their understanding of the strategy. They were asked to write comments on their difficulties in strategy use. The strategy monitor checklist was prepared clear English language to regulate or monitor the strategy use as they read. They also reflected on their strategy use before starting learning new strategy**.**

3.11. The Lesson Plans for the Reading Strategy Instruction

Developing a lesson plan was part of the instructional activities in this study. The lesson plan guided each of metacognitive reading strategy learning. It was prepared for 22 reading strategies. The lesson plans were prepared according to the three modules, global reading strategy, problem-solving reading strategy and supportive reading strategy. They were based on Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) classification of metacognitive reading strategies in MARSI. Each of the lesson plans was prepared based on the six phases of the CALLA model of strategy instruction (see the structure of the lesson plan in Appendix H). At the beginning of strategy training, the teacher should inform the students about the purposes and values of strategy training. For instance, in reading classes, the teacher should explain clearly to the students that they would study the reading strategy, which is related to the course content and that reading strategies help them develop reading skills. In this reading strategy instruction, students were engaged in a variety of classroom activities designed to practice reading strategies. The lesson plans also included what the classroom instructions contained and the type of text the participants practiced

at their homes (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) (see Appendix G for the study action plan for metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction).

3.12. Procedure of Data Collections

The main study passed through similar procedures under taken in the pilot study. Before conducting this study, the trainer was recruited to train the treatment group. The inclusion of the treatment and the comparison groups was made. Two sections from Grade 11 were selected as participants of the study. Section P was selected as the treatment group while section W was selected as the comparison group by using a simple random sampling technique. The whole class students were randomly allocated to the comparison and the treatment groups. The participants were informed that the aim of this study was to improve their English skills, not to test them. They were communicated that their participation in the study would voluntarily and that they could even depart from the study at the time they want.

Quasi-experimental study was started out first and later was followed up with the interviews. Four types of data gathering instruments were used in this study. In order to collect quantitative data, three data collection instruments were used. First of all, reading comprehension test was administered to check the participants' levels of reading comprehension. Then, MARSI was administered to see the participants' levels of reading strategy awareness. Lastly, MRQs was administered to check participants' reading motivation in English. Next to the quantitative data, qualitative data was collected to see the possible potentials of the benefits of the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy after the intervention. Data collector characteristics and bias were minimized to control the threats to internal validity as the researcher himself collected data with the same research assistants across different phases of the data collection. The two research assistances gathered the data from respondents, with the researcher. The following figure 3.2shows the plan for validated data collection:

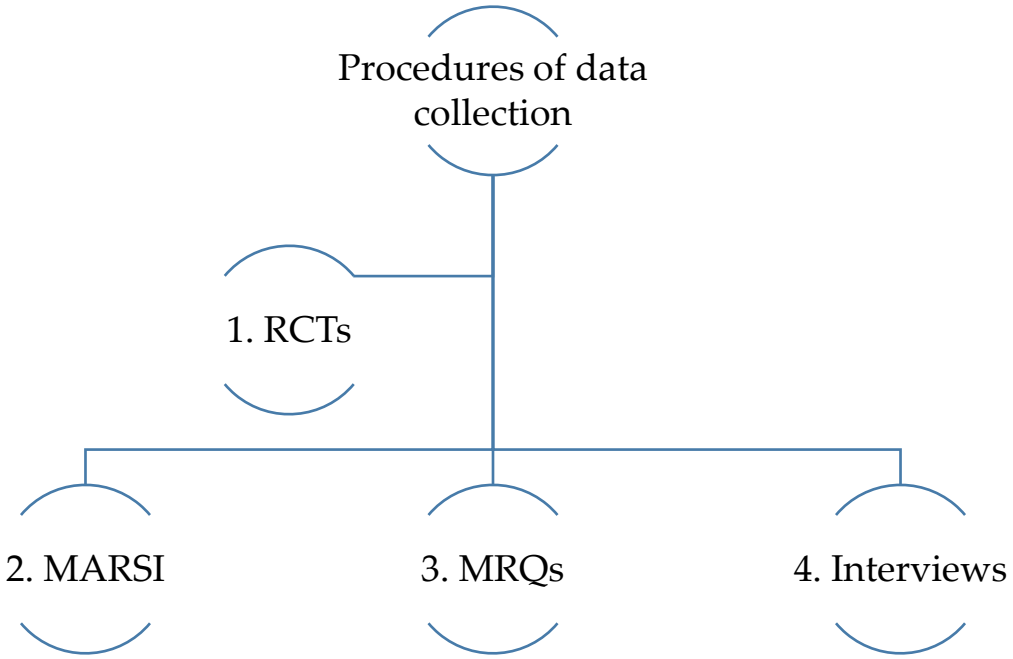

Figure 3: Procedures of data collection

3.13. Instruments of Data Collection

Various measures were utilized in this study to assess the participants' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception of reading strategy explicit instruction. The data were collected via multiple data collection methods using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Accordingly, three quantitative data gathering tools were used in order to reject or accept the hypotheses, and one qualitative data gathering method was used to support the quantitative data. The quantitative data were gathered using (a) a modified form of the Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSI), developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), (b) an adapted form of the Motivations for Reading Questionnaires (MRQs), devised by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) and (c) reading comprehension test (RCT)) adapted from Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). All the three quantitative instruments were administered before and after the intervention, while qualitative data was collected by using a semi-structured interview after the intervention. The interview was carried out next to the post-test administration.

3.13.1. Quantitative Data Collection Instruments

3.13.1.1. Reading Comprehension Test

The first step in reading strategy instruction should be considering the students' reading comprehension ability levels. Therefore, Grade 11 students' reading comprehension abilities were measured using Reading Comprehension Tests (RCT). RCT test was distributed both pretreatment and post treatment. The purpose of the RCT in this study was also to measure students' reading achievement after the completion of the reading strategy intervention. It helped the researcher to see the difference between the treatment and the comparison groups later with a post-test in order to investigate the improvement of reading comprehension after the metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The main goal of RCT in this study was to address research objective No. 1. Both the comparison and the treatment groups in this study were required to answer reading comprehension questions that followed the reading passages. These questions consisted of lower-order questions including vocabulary-based and detailed literal comprehension and higher-order questions including main idea, literal comprehension questions, summary questions and inference questions. The objective item types such as true/false, multiple-choice, and fill-gap questions were used for this study.

All the students in section P and W sat for the pre-test on January 09, 2020. The test was administered in the school's hall so that the students would not cheat in the test, with the help of two research assistants. It took about60 minutes to complete the reading test. Twenty-seven questions were given for them. Each of them had one point. Two types of short reading passages were presented for the two groups. The reading text which was entitled ''Characteristics of Bacteria'' provided a detailed message about the types, characteristics, measurement (in length) of bacteria. It was one page, three paragraphs, 302 words passage. The second passage was about the 'Lives of Insect'. It was one page, which contained four paragraphs and280 words. This text provided details about how insects escape from their enemies and some types of insects. Before these tests were used, their readability indexes were measured using the Flesch Reading Ease Formula, which is a well-known online free readability checker (available at http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/s2s/latest/readability1/src/index.cgi?lang=nglish&content=readability).

3.13.1.2. Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory

Metacognitive reading strategy awareness was measured by the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSI) in this study. The MARSI was administered before and after the strategy interventions to attain objective No. 2. MARSI evaluated the effects of reading strategy intervention on the participants' metacognitive reading strategy awareness. It was developed and validated by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) to investigate whether there is an increase from pre-test to post-test in all three areas of knowledge: global strategy, problem-solving strategy, and support strategy. It was developed by reviewing research literatures on metacognition and reading comprehension (e.g., Pressley, 2000; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Another effort made to develop MARSI was the use of expert judgment with respect to assignment and categorization of items within the inventory (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002), and the insights gained from existing reading strategy instruments regarding format and content (e.g., Miholic, 1994; Pereira-Laird & Deane, 1997) were utilized. Finally, the use of factor analyses to examine the structure of the scale was reviewed (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

Anderson (2004) calculated the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for overall reliability as well as for each of the three sub-scales. Accordingly, the Cronbach's alpha for the overall MARSI in reading strategies was good (a=.85). The alpha level was .05. The reliability for global reading strategy subsection was .74. It was .64 for problem-solving strategy and .67 for support reading strategy. Anderson concluded that MARSI is a reliable instrument for assessing the reading strategy awareness of L2 readers. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the overall modified items was calculated. In addition to this, the Cronbach alpha for each of the three subscales was calculated in order to check MARSI's reliability for assessing the participants' metacognitive reading strategy awareness. The original version of MARSI contained 30 items. In this study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for overall MARSI was .827. The Cronbach's Alpha of global reading strategies was.748. The problem-solving reading strategy had a .693 Cronbach alpha level. Finally, the supportive reading strategy had an internal consistency of .676. The three subscales' internal consistency seems small, which might be due to the small number of items in each subscale (Mokhtari, Dimitrov & Richard, 2018).

3.13.1.3. Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

It is imperative to determine the students' reading motivation before and after the reading intervention. Students' reading motivation is an effort (the time spent in reading and the drive of the learner), desire (the desire to become proficient in reading) and affection (the emotional reactions of the learning towards reading) (María & Eva, 2014). It is a student rated assessment of the extent to which each student is motivated to read. Having this in mind, the present study examined the participants' motivation to read prior to and after the reading strategy instruction. To this effect, survey questionnaire, Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) that was developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) was adapted to examine the effects of explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading motivation to achieve objective number 3.

The original scale of Motivation for Reading Questionnaire contained 82 items (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1995), but they revised to 53items after two years, and now it contains only 53 items. However, this study reduced to 51 items by omitting item number 22 'I read stories about fantasy and make believe' and item number 40 'I don't like it when there are too many people in the story' since they were more of for advanced learners. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) improved the MRQ by grouping questions into 11 constructs of reading motivation with the help of motivational interviews with students, classroom reading instruction observations (Guthrie et al., 1996), and alignment with motivational theory, the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, expectancy value theory, goal-orientation theory and the concept of socially-motivated goals (Komiyama, 2013). MRQ measures different dimensions of reading motivation.

Each item is responded by response format items 1 = very different from me, 2 = a little different from me, 3= a little like me and 4 = a lot like me (Guthrie, 2010). MRQ was validated and used in different studies in reading areas. Guthrie (1996) computed the internal consistency reliabilities of MRQ scales at different times. These reliabilities gave an indication of the extent to which the items on each scale cohere. According to Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), the reliabilities for all the aspects of the 53-item of MRQ ranged from .43 to .81. They had an alpha coefficient of .60 and .59 at different time point. In this study, MRQ's reliability was checked by calculating Cronbach alpha. Accordingly, the MRQ's Cronbach alpha coefficient was good (a= .906).

3.13.2. Qualitative Data Collection instruments

In qualitative survey, data collection instruments can be employed to collect data on topics such as values, motivations and experiences (Miller & Brewer, 2003). In order to collect qualitative data for this study, semi-structured interview was employed since it is used to achieve in-depth understanding that is best communicated through detailed examples and rich narratives employed by participants of the study (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The nature of the interview in this study is discussed as follows:

3.13.2.1. Semi-structured interview

The interview was conducted post-treatment. The interview was conducted on a one-on-one basis. Semi-structured interviews with six students from the treatment groups were conducted to elicit their views about reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and how the explicit instruction of reading strategy facilitated their reading comprehension. This means that data from the interview were used to address research objective number 4.

Sufficient time was given to each interviewee. The interview was conducted at Ambo Preparatory School's hall. The participants were given an interview packet in advance before conducting the interview. The packet consisted of a cover letter stating the purpose of the study, an informed consent form and a list of interview questions. The participants were allowed to communicate in their native languages (Afan Oromo, Amharic), throughout the interview. This was done to make them feel comfortable and minimize the language barriers to express themselves. Responding to interview questions were not limited to using the English language. Grenfell and Harris (1999) suggest that researchers may use the students L1 to get them to reflect on their own learning. Moreover, interviewees were requested to provide their honest responses. All the interviews were tape-recorded so that the responses were not lost for further analysis.

3.14. Measures Taken To Minimize the Effects of Confounding Variables on the Results of the Study

There are a wide-range of confounding variables which include participants' age, maturation, the decay of instruments, threats of testing, history, location, behaviors of data collectors, changing of the instruments, spreading or diffusing of treatment, control group's anger, competition of control group and equalization of intervention (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun(2012).In this study, the same pre-test and post-tests were used in order to minimize the effects of maturation. In addition to this, the trainer was deeply trained on how to teach reading strategies in the classroom. In a similar way, both the comparison and the treatment groups were taught by the same teacher in order to minimize the effect of threats of location. Readability of reading text is another important factor that led to the difficulty level of reading texts. The effects of the size of the print, quality of the printer, sentence length, word difficulty and polysyllabic words are the other factors. The readability of the reading comprehension tests was checked by using online software readability checker, Flesch Reading Ease Formula (See Appendix L for the results). The students in the treatment and comparison group used the same reading texts for practicing reading strategies at their homes.

3.15. Accountability of the Reading Strategy Instruction

Reading strategy instruction modules were prepared by the researcher for the study. In addition to the three strategy instruction modules, the lesson plans for each reading strategy were prepared and the trainer used them. How to deliver was already prepared in the lesson plans. The modules and lesson plans explained what, why and how to employ each reading strategy. They guided the trainer on how to help the participants in the classroom reading practice and their independent practice of strategy they already learned in the classroom. The strategies were classified into three categories: global reading strategy, problem-solving reading strategy and supporting reading strategy (see Appendix G). Modules were named from these three reading strategies. The researcher supervised some of the lessons. After each lesson, the researcher and the trainer discussed the effectiveness of the lesson, and the researcher provided feedback. The discussion was sometimes done both before and after the lesson. The students were informed about reading strategy instruction as 'English make up'/English class'. The researcher kindly invited them to participate in the study. The reading strategies were not explained during the

orientation. The fear was that if they were informed that they were taking part in the reading strategy instruction, they might do their best to do a better performance.

3.16. Reliability and Validity

3.16.1. Validity and Reliability of Quantitative Instruments

Reliability should be the concern of the process of research. Reliability has to do with the consistency of measuring test, while validity is whether the test measures what it is designed for. Test consistency can be measured using different strategies, such as test-retest reliability, internal consistency reliability, parallel form reliability, split-half reliability and inter-rater reliability (Groves et al., 2004). In this study, internal consistency reliability was used to check test reliability. Internal consistency reliability is used to see if responses to a set of similar items are uniform or consistent (Cohen et al., 2007). Cronbach's Alpha is the most popular method of examining internal consistency reliability. It reveals the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument. It is the extent to which measures are free from errors. If an instrument has few errors, it is reliable and if it has a great number of errors, it is unreliable (Cohen et al., 2007). McMillan and Schumacher (1997) comments the reliability coefficient ranges from .00 to .99 for a completely unreliable test (although technically it can dip below 0), and 1 for a completely reliable test. Alpha coefficient values above 0.7 are considered acceptable, and values above 0.8 are considered to reflect good test reliability (Cohen et al., 2007) (see Table 3.1, Table 3.2 and Table 3.3, for the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the RCT, MARSI and MRQ as found in pilot study).

Participants should be pre-tested and post-tested on valid and reliable instruments that identify knowledge about and use of learning/reading strategy (Chamot, 2005). Efforts were made to produce both valid and reliable quantitative data collection instruments.

Research validity should be the concern of the whole process of research. The whole research validities are research soundness (internal validity), and the findings' generalizability beyond the samples of the study (external validity). The validity of a questionnaire can be affected or threatened by the wording of the questions it contains, poor sequencing of questions or confusing structure or design of the questionnaire, not covering the research issues both in terms of content and detail, not covering the research area (zone of neglect) and some irrelevant questions to the study (zone of invalidity) (Dorneyei, 2007).

In order to ensure RCT's face and content validities, the test was checked by instructors at Ambo University who were offering English courses. Thus, the validity of the instrument was ensured by using judgmental validation by a committee of experts that was made by the researcher. They agreed that the tests were suitable to evaluate the students' reading comprehension. The nature of the research and the purpose of the questions were explained to the participants of the study. The judgmental validation committee was specifically asked to comment on aspects of any question/s was/were in any way unclear or misleading. All of the research instruments were refined in the light in the results of the testing. The focus areas included technical matters like clarity, layout and appearance, timing, length, ease/difficulty and identifying redundancies (Cohen et al., 2007).

The researcher supervised the consistency of the administration of the instruments. The participants were given orientation on the procedures of the test administration. The pre-test and post-test must be the same for the comparison and the treatment groups, but the pre-test may have questions, which differ in form or wording from the post-test, though the two tests must test the same contents (Cohen et al., 2007).

3.16.1.1. Reliability Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness Inventory

A Cronbach's Alpha level was computed to check the reliabilities of metacognitive reading strategy awareness inventory (MARSI) in this study. MARSI was tried out on February 27, 2019, with the treatment and comparison groups (see Appendix G). MARSI's pre-test aim was to assess initial scores of participants' levels of strategy awareness for checking later the metacognitive reading strategy treatment effects on their strategy awareness.

Table 3.1: Reliability Statistics for the MARSI

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.839	.840	29

A Cronbach's Alpha was computed to measure the reliability of the overall instrument and each MARSI subscale. The internal consistency of the overall reliability of MARSI was (α=.84), which implies that the MARSI questionnaire is reliable for this study. The alpha level was .05. These data helped to establish that the MARSI is a reliable instrument for assessing the reading strategy awareness of the participants of the study.

3.16.1.2. Reliability of Motivation to Read Questionnaire

A Cronbach's Alpha level was computed to check the reliabilities of Motivation to read questionnaire (MRQ). The pre-test of reading motivation questionnaires was distributed before conducting metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The items in MRQ's were revised for this pilot study in order to meet the subjects' background knowledge. Its language is also revised (see appendix C).

Table 3.2: Reliability statistics for pre-test Motivation to Read Questionnaire (MRQ)

Group	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Treatment group (N=67)	.904	.905	51
comparison group (N=74)	.798	.805	51

In order to see the internal consistency of the motivation to read questionnaire (MRQ), the questionnaire was distributed for the treatment group and comparison group. Then, Cronbach alpha was computed. Accordingly, the reliability coefficient result indicated that this survey questionnaire had high reliability. The output of reliability statistics shown in Table 3.3 indicates that MRQs had .904 with the treatment group and .798 with the comparison group. In general, all of the observed internal consistency of the instruments for this pilot study were greater than 0.76.The tests had an acceptable degree of reliabilities if they have more than 0.75 reliability values (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). In addition to computing the Alpha's levels, guidelines for commenting on questionnaires were provided for the participants of the study (see appendix L). Additionally, the comments ensured that suggestions from students and teachers to improve the instruments' qualities. Therefore, the data gathering instruments were suitable and appropriate in examining the metacognitive reading strategy instruction.

A pilot study is conducted before conducting the final main study. The researcher learned many things from carrying out this pilot study. He got practical experiences for conducting the main study since the pilot study included all aspects of the main study. The pilot study helped the researcher to test in reality how the whole process of the study works. The pilot study in this

study helped the researcher to identify mistakes, filter data gathering instruments, planned for the data analyzes for the main study. Pilot study brought some problems and uncovered issues in data collection instruments. The result obtained from pilot study revealed that no serious significant problems were observed in the instruments. Nevertheless, the comments and suggestions participants gave help the researcher to modify words and phrases so that it would easy for readers to understand. Some items were modified; orders of the items were arranged, and some items were omitted. The researcher experienced all of the data gathering instruments including questionnaires and interviews. The researcher adopted the survey questionnaires to the current study.

The pilot study discovered what types of data analyses were better for the main study. Lastly, the researcher learned how to manage and analyses data using SPSS. Additionally, the researcher learned how to report quantitative results using ANCOVA.

3.16.1.3. Reliability of Reading Comprehension Test

Table 3.3: Descriptive Statistics for the test-retest result of first and second time reading comprehension test scores

Descriptive Statistics	First time scores of reading comprehension	Second time scores of reading comprehension
N	72	72
Mean	36.92	39.31
Std. Deviation	11.091	10.186
Skewness	-.035	-.073
Kurtosis	-1.192	-1.021

The above paired sample T-test output descriptive statistics showed the number of participants in the test-retest, the mean of reading comprehension test scores and standard deviation. Additionally, it presented minimum and maximum scores on each time reading comprehension test. Accordingly, seventy-two students participated in the test-retest of reading comprehension. The mean statistics showed in the first time reading comprehension test is similar to the second time reading comprehension test results (Mean for the first time was 36.92, whereas the mean for

the second time reading comprehension test score was 39.31). The standard deviation indicated that there is a larger spread in the first test (11.09) than the second test (10.18) in the reading comprehension test. The skewness and kurtosis were also computed for the test-retest of reading comprehension. Accordingly, the skew was .03 and .07, which were greater than zero whereas the kurtosis for both the first time and the second time were -1.19 and -1.02 respectively. Skewness and kurtosis confirmed that the distribution was normal.

Table 3.4: The correlation between the first time and the second time reading comprehension test scores

		First time scores of reading comprehension	second time scores of reading comprehension
First time scores of reading comprehension	Pearson Correlation	1	.956**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	74	74
second time scores of reading comprehension	Pearson Correlation	.956**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	74	74

Pearson correlation was used to see the linear relationship between the first and the second time reading comprehension test scores. The reading comprehension test re-test showed strong test re-test reliability. As shown in Table 3.4, the overall test-retest Pearson correlation coefficient over a five-week period was r=.956, p=.001. The Pearson correlation ranges from a negative one (-1) to a positive one (+1). Negative correlation indicates a negative correlation while a positive one (+1) indicates a perfect positive correlation (Groves et al., 2004). Therefore, the Pearson correlation coefficient indicated a positive correlation.

3.16.2. Validity and Reliability of the Interview Questions

The validity of a qualitative research design is the extent to which analyses of concepts and interpretations have a joint connection between the samples and the researcher (Millan &

Schumancher, 2001). The validity of qualitative research can be checked by using fieldwork before administration of data, peer reviewing and field notes (Creswell, 2003). In interviews, inferences about validity are made too often on the basis of face validity, whether the questions asked look as if they measure what they claim to measure (Cohen et al., 2007). Silverman (1993) suggests that the reliability of interview questions can be enhanced by careful piloting of the instrument, training of interviewers and the extended use of closed questions. Bias can enter the research study in direct or indirect ways. For instance, while conducting an interview, the researcher's personality, tone of voice, or emphasis within a sentence can influence the participants' responses (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Iams (2013) suggests ways of controlling bias in interviewing with a person who is not connected to the present study in order to get feedback about whether or not the researcher's tone or sentence choices affected his or her responses. In this study, therefore, interview questions were carefully piloted. The interview questions were given to the experts in order to determine the extent to which they suit the targeted skills, duration, and difficulty level of the interview. Then, some modifications were made on a few of the items based on feedback from the experts, before administering the interview. According to Wellington (2000), before constructing the interview to gather data for the problem under investigation, the researcher needs to check its protocol. This means that interview questions were explored in some steps, that is, developing interviews (preparing it), piloting interview protocol, modifying interview protocol, planning for the interview and interviewing finally.

3.16.3. Validity of Instructional Materials

Reading strategy practices were made in this study. The treatment group read a variety of materials taken from different sources. They were engaged in several classroom activities that were designed to enhance their reading comprehension, their reading strategy awareness and their reading motivation. They were also engaged in out of classroom reading strategy practice. These texts need to be varied as much as possible with regard to aspects such as content matter, potential familiarity to participants, cohesion and vocabulary. The use of validated manual and intervention should be part of interventional research. This can be done by professional judgments, who have the knowledge about Grade 11 students' previous knowledge regarding

reading skills practice. Those professionals were selected based on their experience of teaching reading at secondary school students. Accordingly, the contents of the training materials were shown to the experts in order to determine the extent to which the texts suit the targeted skills, the number and duration of sessions and the overall duration of the program. They also commented on the level of difficulty in terms of vocabulary and text structure. Then, some modifications were made on a few of the items based on feedback from the experts, before the intervention.

3.16.4. Readability of Reading Texts

Reading comprehension difficulty may depend on the difficulty in the readability of a text. Young (2014) defines readability as ‘’how easy a piece of writing is to read and understand’’ (p, 1). Readability is the sum total of all elements within a given piece of printed material that affect the readers’ reading success (Vajjala & Muters, 2014). Readability depends on different factors such as structure, content, style and layout of the written text. The readability formula is one of the methods used to measure difficulty levels of reading texts (Young, 2014). It identifies average words and sentence lengths and indicates grade level for readers. The Flesch Reading Ease Formula was used in this study to measure difficulty levels of reading texts. Rudolph Flesch developed this formula in 1948 during his Ph.D. study. He was an Australian. The Flesch Reading Ease score generates a score between 1 to 100. In this formula, documents with a score of 30 are considered as ‘very difficult’ whereas documents with a score of 70 are seen as ‘easy’ to read. The document with the Flesch Formula Reading Ease score higher than 90 is equated with grade fifth student level. When the Flesch Reading Ease Formula measures difficulty levels of written materials, it uses two measures (Sirico, 2007). In the first place, it measures average number of words in a sentence. It also measures the number of syllables per word. The formula counts as a word any numbers (e.g. 35, 555), letters, abbreviations (e.g. WHO, i.e.) and symbols. Hyphenated words (e.g. second-grade) and contractions (e.g. couldn’t, they’re) are counted as one word.

According to Sirico (2007), a reading text with a score of 90-100 is taken as easily comprehended for Grade 5 to Grade 7 students. Grades 8-9 students easily understand the reading passages with a score of 60-70. In addition to this, if the text score ranges from 0-30,

college students can easily understand it. The readability of the reading comprehension tests in this study scored between 50-60 (see Appendix L). The reading texts were tested by using online readability checker, which isavailableathttp://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/s2s/latest/readability. The readability index of the texts showed that the texts were matched with the students' levels.

The researcher expertise himself in conducting a mixed approach. A quasi-experimental design is used in this study. Sample selection depends on research design, which is a quasi-experimental design in this study. The researcher understood that it is not possible to randomize in such kind of design. The researcher was forced to assign intact groups, that is, the treatment and the comparison groups. Three types of quantitative data gathering instruments are used in this study while one data collection instrument is used to collect qualitative data. This means more weights are given to the quantitative data.

The researcher also experienced the implications for the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) Model. This study used Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) CALLA as model metacognitive reading strategy instruction model. This model is implemented in five sessions (preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, expansion and assessment). This model integrated three features of reading strategy instruction. These were content area instruction, reading skill development in the academic area and direct instruction in reading strategy learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). During the first phase (preparation phase), the teacher identified what the students know about certain metacognitive reading strategies, inform the objectives of the strategy learning and check students' previous strategy learning. In the second phase (presentation), the teacher provided comprehensive input to teach the students new metacognitive reading strategy, explained strategy, talked about the usefulness of strategy and modeled learning and practice strategy. During the third phase (practice), the students were provided with authentic reading texts to practice each strategy in the classroom after the presentation. In this phase, the students got the opportunities to practice together and with the teacher. For instance, they discussed the main ideas of texts they read, discussed the strategies they used while reading, and sometimes they took turns discussing the strategies they do not understand. In the evaluation phase, the students evaluated their learning of each strategy. They also used the Strategy Instruction Aid (Strategy Evaluation Matrix) to assess their metacognitive reading strategy learning (See Appendix I). In addition to this, the teacher also asked open-ended

and closed-ended questions to the students in the treatment group to check their learning of metacognitive reading strategy. In the last phase, expansion, they got opportunities to apply the strategy they learned to new reading texts. They made the connection between classroom instruction, with teacher and students and out of classroom reading practice independently. This might develop their independent strategy application. Generally, the pilot study before the main study helped the researcher how to manage the process in the overall research designs. These developmental processes helped him to conduct the main study in a promising manner. It developed confidence in conducting the main study.

3.17. Lessons Obtained from the Pilot Study

Pilot study is conducted before the final main study. The researcher learnt many things from carrying out this pilot study. He got practical experiences for conducting main study since the former included all aspects of the latter. Pilot study helped the researcher to test in reality how the whole processes of the study work. The pilot study in this study helped the researcher to identify mistakes, filter data gathering instruments, plan for the data analyzes for the main study. Pilot study brought some problems and uncovered issues in data collection instruments. The result obtained from pilot study revealed that no serious significant problems were observed in the instruments of data collection. Nevertheless, comments and suggestions participants gave helped the researcher to modify words and phrases so that it would be easy for readers to understand. Some items were modified; orders of the items were arranged, and some items were omitted. The researcher experienced with all of the data gathering instruments including questionnaires and interview. The researcher adapted the survey questionnaires for the main study. Pilot study discovered what types of data analyses were better for the main study. Lastly, the researcher learnt how to manage and analyses data using SPSS.

Time and resources are needed to carry out the main study. Researcher learnt all aspects of study that will help to reduce time and costs for the main study. Time needed to administer questionnaires and interview also identified. In addition to this, the researcher gained experiences in developing instructional materials. The researcher prepared three types of modules for this study. Teaching materials contains many elements such as objectives, contents, teachers' activities and students' activities. Additionally, he got experiences in managing accuracy of intervention i.e. pilot study focused on the process of developing and implementation of

intervention from the beginning to the end. He experienced how to ensure trustworthiness of the intervention process as planned for the main study.

The researcher acquainted himself with conducting mixed methods research. Quasi-experimental design was use in this study. Sample selection depends on research design (quasi-experimental design in this study). The researcher understood that it is not possible to randomization in such kind of design. The researcher decided to assign intact groups, that is, the treatment and the comparison groups. Three types of quantitative data gathering instruments were used in this study while one data gathering instrument was used to collect qualitative data. This means more weights were given to the quantitative data.

3.18. Methods of Data Analysis

3.18.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, 21.0 version for windows) was employed for the statistical analysis, for quantitative data. The quantitative responses were converted into quantitative form into numerical data, which can be analyzed statistically. The dependent variables were reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness and reading motivation. The difference between the treatment and the comparison groups were analyzed using both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. When questionnaires are used, the number of responses that returned might vary (Creswell, 2012) since many copies are distributed. In order to maximize the return rate, pre-notification, follow-up procedures and clear instrument constructions were considered which could increase the return or response rate. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze quantitative data; both are discussed below:

3.18.1.1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics helps us to describe, classify and summarize numerical data in a meaningful way. It does not allow us to make conclusions beyond the data regarding on any hypotheses we might have (Hilton et al., 2004). Descriptive statistics allows us to observe the distribution of our data or the spread of the marks. We use both measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion to describe data. Measures of central tendency (mode, median and mean) describe the central position of a frequency distribution for a group of data, while measures of spread summarize groups of data by describing how spread out the scores are by using statistics like

range, quartiles, variance and standard deviation (Hilton et al., 2004). The mean and standard deviation scores of the pre-tests for the treatment group and the comparison group were compared in this study. Therefore, statistical analysis was made in the first step. Then, a more advanced statistics, that is, inferential statistics, was also computed:

3.18.1.2. Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics help to make judgments of the probability that observed differences between groups that might have happened by chance in a study (Creswell, 2014). Inferential statistics (e.g., Independent T-Test, ANOVA, factor analysis and multiple regression analyses) are techniques/methods which allow us to assess the strength of the impact of the independent variables (program inputs) on the outcomes (program outputs, objectives) (Cohen et al., 2007). In this study, ANCOVA was used to see the mean difference between the two groups. Reading comprehension, strategy awareness, and motivation pre-test scores were used as covariates to determine whether the two groups are initially equivalent. The independent variable in this study is explicit instruction of reading strategy whereas the dependent variables are the scores of the pre-tests and post-tests scores of reading comprehension, the strategy awareness and the motivation to read. Alpha level (0.05) was set for a significant test throughout the study.

According to Colliver, Markwell (2006), ANCOVA is seen as one ways of controlling selecting bias encountered with quasi-experimental design. ANCOVA is also used to adjust the post-test difference for the pre-test difference. In quasi-experimental design, if the intervention has no effect on the outcomes, ANCOVA shows a between-group difference.

3.18.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

The students in the treatment group were asked to explain the effectiveness of the explicit instruction of reading strategy. Qualitative data also focused on how the participants of the study experienced after the treatment. The interview results were analyzed using summarization and quotation. Important ideas were selected based on the purpose of the study. The data were divided into different themes depending on the interview questions. The treatment group students explained and interpreted the overall effects of the reading strategy training on their reading skills improvement.

3.19. Ethical considerations

Research ethics were considered in this study. For instance, Jimma University Review Board's (JURB) rules, regulations and procedures were considered to gather ethical data for this study. Permission to carry out the study was sought from the school principals. First of all, a letter of collaboration i.e. the ethical clearance was written from Jimma University to Ambo Preparatory School (see Appendix E). Then, consent to participate in the study was sought from the students and the teacher. Next, respondents were clearly informed about the purposes of the study and told that their responses were very important for the accomplishment of this study prior to the administration of the tests, the questionnaires and the interview questions. After the subjects were invited to participate in the study, the letters and consent forms were written for the subjects' parents to allow their children to participate in the study program that was carried out after the school time (see Appendix F).

Participants of this study understood that their participations were based on volunteers. The letters and consents indicated that the purpose and scope of the dissertation (attached under the appendices). Participants' information and identity were kept confidential and protected in analyzing data. Confidentiality was ensured using different ways. For instance, Participants of this study were advised not to write their names on the questionnaire and test sheets. Their names were not disclosed even to the researcher. They wrote their codes S1, S2, S3 …. The interview participants were also coded and the codes were used to analyze the data. Additionally, all of the respondents signed informed consent. Before starting collecting data, an attempt was made to arrange time and place of data collection. The interview was carried out at school time, with six students selected from the treatment group.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

4. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction with a particular focus on Ambo Preparatory School in Ambo, Western Shoa Zone, Oromia. This chapter presents the findings of both pilot and main study. Quantitative findings tested the three hypotheses. The hypothesis number 1, 2 and 3 are related to the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit on students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness and motivation. The objective number 4 was related to the students' perception of reading strategy explicit instruction. This chapter deals with the findings of the main study.

4.1. Information of Respondents of the study

Table 4.1: Number of students participated in the two groups

Comparison group	Treatment group	Total
87	82	169

There were about 2, 317 in the Grade 11 in Ambo Preparatory School in 2020. The subjects were selected randomly from Grade 11 students to both treatment and comparison groups. There were 87 students in the comparison group. There were 82 students in treatment group. All the students in comparison and treatment groups filled and returned pretests and posttests. These students had similar levels. The comparison group participated in the reading strategy instruction in a conventional way for eight weeks. The comparison group students participated in the learning of reading strategy in a way that they learn reading in their regular classes. However, the treatment group students participated in the explicit instruction of reading strategy. They were given in the classroom and out of the classroom reading strategy practice for two months. At the end of the eight weeks, all students in both groups took posttests. Finally, six students selected from the treatment group and were interviewed on how the explicit instruction of reading strategy affected

their reading comprehension, reading strategy awareness, and reading motivation. Simple random sampling technique was used to include these students. Among the six students, 33% (2) students were females and 67% (4) were males. Their ages were between 17 to 20. All the interviewees were taken from treatment group students.

Table 4.2: Sex distribution of the respondents

Groups	**Sex**	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**
Treatment	Female	33	40.2	40.2
	Male	49	59.8	59.8
	Total	82	100.0	100.0
Comparison	Female	36	41.4	41.4
	Male	51	58.6	58.6
	Total	87	100.0	100.0

Among 87 students in the comparison group, 51(58.6%) were male students and 36(41.4 %) of the were females. There were 82 students in the treatment group. Out of these, 49(59.75%) were male students and 33(40.25%) of them were females (see the Table 4.2 above). Among the six students who participated in the interview, 2(33%) students were females and 4(67%) were males.

Table 4.3: Age distributions of the students in the treatment group

Age	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
17	5	6.1	6.1	6.1
18	26	31.7	31.7	37.8
19	18	22.0	22.0	59.8
20	6	7.3	7.3	67.1
21	6	7.3	7.3	74.4
22	6	7.3	7.3	81.7

23	6	7.3	7.3	89.0
24	4	4.9	4.9	93.9
25	5	6.1	6.1	100.0
Total	82	100.0	100.0	

In a similar way, the majority of the students 26(31.7%) were 18 years old. The least of them, 4(4.9%), were 24 years old. Sixty-percent of the treatment group was between 17-19 age group; 40% were in the 20-25 years old age category (see Table 4.3 above). The students who participated in the interview were between 18 to 23 years old.

4.2. Findings of the Main Study

4.2.1. Quantitative Findings

This research was undertaken to examine the effect of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness and motivation at Ambo Preparatory School in Ambo Town, Oromia, Ethiopia. The study also planned to investigate Grade 11 students' perception about reading strategy explicit instruction. The study used quasi-experimental design to test the hypothesis of the study. This kind of design helps to assess the effectiveness of certain program outcomes (Gorard, 2004). In this design, it is not allowed to select participants using randomization. However, random assignment in this design is possible including full classes of students to treatment and comparison groups (Creswell, 2012). In order to see the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness and motivation, two similar groups were selected.

This section presents comprehensive analyses of data obtained using quantitative and qualitative data gathering instruments. Reading comprehension test (RCT), the adapted form of Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSI) and the adapted form of Reading Motivation Questionnaire (RMQ) and semi-structured interview were used for this study. The former three instruments were distributed pretreatment and post-treatment for both the treatment and the comparison groups while semi-structured interview was conducted with treatment group students after the metacognitive reading strategy explicit intervention. The first section of this section presents quantitative analyses of the data gathered from RCT, MARSI and

MRQ. The second section provides the qualitative analysis based on data collected through interview.

The collection of data was carried out during second semester starting from January 09, 2020 to March 13, 2020. The pre-test results were collected in January 09-10, 2020, and post-test results were collected during March 09-10, 2020. January, February and March were used for actual classroom strategy intervention (8 weeks intervention) and data collections. The analyses of data in this study passed through three stages. First, the homogeneity of variances was checked using Levene statistical test. A Levene's test was carried out to test the assumption of variances, which needed to be the same for the two groups. Next to this, the equality of the treatment and the comparison groups before intervention was tested. In order to determine this, the mean scores were computed for each the RCT, MARSI and MRQs. Finally, each hypothesis was presented and analyzed. ANCOVA was also computed to verify the two groups' equality prior to the intervention. SPSS version 21 was used to analyze quantitative data.

4.2.1.1. Reading Comprehension Test

Reading Comprehension Test (RCT) was used to address the first research objective: 'To find out the effect of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students reading comprehension in Ambo Preparatory School' The RCT instrument contained 27items comprehension questions. The RCT was derived from TOEFL online reading comprehension free practice. TOEFL's reading comprehension test is a criterion-referenced test that was prepared for lower, medium and advanced levels. In this study, reading comprehensions prepared for lower and medium were used. The two groups of this study completed the reading comprehension pre-test in the first week of the second semester, January 09, 2020and the post-test on March11, 2020. The test took an hour for each group. RCT scores were used as dependent variable for the research objective No 1.

4.2.1.2. Testing the Assumption of ANCOVA

The first hypothesis of the current study hypothesized that the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction outperform on reading comprehension score the students who participated in the learning of metacognitive reading in a conventional way. Before testing the hypotheses to make sure that running ANCOVA is appropriate for the data,

different assumptions of ANCOVA were tested, including the normal distribution of the test. To do this, the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis were checked.

4.2.1.3. Test of Normality

Table 4.4: Levene's test of equality of error variances for pre-test and post-test scores of reading comprehension

Tests	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Pre-test	.581	1	167	.447
Post-test	9.717	1	167	.002

The other assumption of ANCOVA that was tested was whether there were homogeneity of variances before using it in testing the hypotheses. If null hypothesis is accepted, the variances of treatment and comparison groups are equal. Table 4.4 indicates that the result of reading comprehension pre-test did not have significant since probability value is greater than .05, which indicated the test did not statistically significant difference between the treatment and comparison groups in the reading comprehension pre-test $F(1,167)=.581, p<.05$. If the probability value is greater than 0.05, the variances are assumed to be equal. However, if the p-value is less than 0.05, the variances are not similar (Hinton, 2004). In the above ANCOVA output, the p-value was. 447. Therefore, the null hypothesis is retained. The alternative hypothesis is rejected. The distribution of pre-test score of reading comprehension is the same across categories of groups. This means, the assumption of homogeneity was met. Therefore, the homogeneity of variance for the reading comprehension pre-test shows that the running of inferential statistics is appropriate. The error variance is equal across the two groups.

Table 4.5: Tests of normality for reading comprehension test

RCT	*Group*	*Shapiro-Wilk*		
		Statistic	*Df*	*p.*
Pre-test	Comparison	.974	87	.123
	Treatment	.972	82	.128

Post-test	Comparison	.954	87	.008
	Treatment	.975	82	.199

As it can be seen in Table 4.5, the probability value for the test of normality for reading comprehension test was greater than 0.05. Therefore, the test was normally distributed. However, the post-test result for the comparison group was 0.008. Ghasemi and Zahedias (2012) argue that the violation of assumptions of ANCOVA should not cause problems on the finding when the samples are more than 50; we can use parametric test of ANCOVA.

Table 4.6: Analyses of tests of between-subjects effects of reading comprehension pre-test

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Effect size
Correct Model	35.011[a]	1	35.011	.704	.403	.004
Group	35.011	1	35.011	.704	.403	.004
Error	8301.663	167	49.711			

To evaluate the levels of the two groups in reading comprehension pre-test before metacognitive reading strategy intervention, ANCOVA was conducted. Table 4.6 indicates that the difference between the scores of reading comprehension pre-test, the treatment group and the comparison group similar, F(1,167) .704, P=.403, Partial Squared =.004.This means that the two groups were similar in the reading comprehension test score before metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction.

4.2.1.4. Analysis of Reading Comprehension Post-test

Table 4.7: Tests of between-subjects effects of the post-test scores of reading comprehension for the two groups

	Source	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Post-test result of RCT	Group	591.784	1	591.78	179.41	.000	.519
	Corrected Total	8449.669	168				

ANCOVA was conducted to investigate effect of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' reading comprehension performance by using reading comprehension pre-test as a covariate. The finding indicated that there was statistically significant difference between treatment and comparison groups, which is reported as F(1,167)=179.415,P=.001. The effect size of Partial Eta Squared was .519. Partial Eta Squared measures the strength of reading strategy explicit instruction, which lies between 0 and 1 (Hinton, et al., 2004).The result of the finding simply means that reading strategy explicit instruction had positive effect on students' reading comprehension.

Table 4.8: Descriptive statistics of RCT pre-test and post-test for both groups

Tests	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pre-test of Reading Comprehension	Comparison	40.26	7.21	87
	Treatment	39.35	6.87	82
Post-test of Reading Comprehension	Comparison	40.69	7.23	87
	Treatment	43.57	6.66	82

Table 4.8 presents the two groups' mean scores on the RCT. The purpose of RCT post-test was to investigate whether there was difference between the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction (treatment group) and the students who participated in the learning of the strategy in a conventional way (comparison group). Accordingly, the students in the comparison group did not improve more than that of students in the treatment group. The mean score of the comparison group in RCT in pre-test was 40.26 and 40.69 in the post-test. The difference between post-test to pre-test was only 0.43. The students in the treatment scored mean of 39.35on the pre-test and 43.57 on the post-test, with an increase of 4.22. From this, there is evidence that metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction improved the experimental group students' reading comprehension.

ANCOVA was run to test the first hypothesis of the study. The finding showed that the interaction effect between the comparison and the treatment groups was statistically significant F(1,167)=704, P=.001 (see Table 4.6). The power of the explicit instruction was .519 (see Table 4.7), which was large according to Murjs (2011). The probability value was less than 0.05.

Therefore, alternative hypothesis is accepted while null hypothesis is rejected. This study thus found that the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction improved their reading comprehension performance more than the students who were taught the strategy using the conventional way.

4.2.1.5. Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness Inventory(MARSI) was used to address research objective No 2‘’To examine the effect of the explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students‟ reading strategy awareness in Ambo Preparatory School.’’ The overall metacognitive reading strategy was categorized into three: global metacognitive reading strategy (GLOB), problem-solving reading strategy (PROB) and supportive reading strategy (SUP), with each of these three types having several strategies. MARSI was analyzed in terms of metacognitive reading strategy awareness in general and the three types of metacognitive reading strategy: GLOB, PROB and SUP. MARSI consisted of 30 items. The participants reported their responses using Likert scale 1 to 5 (from 'I never or almost never' to 'I always or almost always'). Thirteen items of MARSI were statements about GLOB; eight items were PROB, and nine items were SUP (see Appendix B).

MARSI is standardized instrument adapted from Mokhtari and Reichard's (2002) to assess students’ metacognitive reading strategy awareness, which is found in the Journal of Educational Psychology, 94(4), 249-259. All the statements were about what to do when reading academic content texts. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze MARSI. Descriptive statistic methods were used to explain the frequency of reading strategies on the overall MARSI and each of the three subscales in it (global, problem-solving and supportive strategies). In this study, each of the respondent’s response for each item of MARSI was computed in order to obtain information on the overall awareness of MARSI and performance in the three subscales of MARSI.

4.2.1.5.1. Testing the Assumptions of ANCOVA in MARSI

Assumptions of ANCOVA should be met before testing the hypothesis "There is a significant difference in MARSI scores between the students who participated in the metacognitive reading

strategy explicit instruction and those who did not.". To begin with, there should be comparable sample size in comparison group (N=87) and treatment group (N=82).

4.2.1.5.2. Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Pre-test

Table 4.9: Descriptive statistics for the overall metacognitive reading strategy awareness of the comparison and treatment groups before the intervention

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Kurtosis	Skewness	N
Comparison	2.72	.18	1.06	-.156	87
Treatment	2.84	1.08	-.066	.090	82
Total	2.88	1.01			169

MARSI pre-test was aimed at assessing initial scores of participants' levels of strategy awareness for checking later the strategy explicit intervention effect on students' metacognitive reading strategy awareness. Table 4.9 displays the SPSS output on the overall MARSI's descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) for the two groups. The mean and standard deviation on MARSI between the treatment and the comparison groups need to be similar if the data are normally distributed. Coefficients of skewness and kurtosis also determine normal distribution of scores. If the coefficient of skewness is too extreme, the data are not normally distributed. Skewness coefficient is accepted if its value is between -1 and +1. The above table indicates that there was no big difference between treatment and comparison groups before the strategy explicit instruction. Comparison group scored (M=2.72, SD=.18) and treatment group scored (M=2.84, SD=1.08). This result is important later to compare the difference after the strategy explicit intervention. Both skewness and kurtosis also gave some insights of the normal distribution of the test. According to Azzalini and Capitanio (2003), if the kurtosis is greater than 3, the values are not normally distributed. Assumption of normality is met since the kurtosis and skewness values lie between -1 and +1.

Table 4.10: Levene's test of equality of error variances[a] for pre-test scores of MARSI

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.314	1	167	.130

The equality of variances was computed using Levene's Test. Table 4.10 above has shown the test of homogeneity variance for MARSI pre-test. The probability value was .130, which is bigger than 0.05. This shows that the variances were equal with the confidence level 95%, F(1,167)=2.314, p=.130). This indicates that the two groups were equal initially concerning their metacognitive reading strategy awareness prior to the treatment.

Table 4.11: Analysis of variance tests of between-subjects effects of mean score of MARSI pre-test

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	.257[a]	1	.257	.254	.615	.002
Group	.257	1	.257	.254	.615	.002
Error	169.376	167	1.014			

ANCOVA was computed to examine the difference between comparison and treatment groups before the strategy instruction. Table 4.11 shows that there was no statistical significant difference between the two groups, F(1,167) =.254, p=.615, Partial Eta Squared = .002. This implies that the comparison and treatment group were equal on their MARSI pre-test prior to the treatment of strategy explicit instruction; they had similar awareness concerning the strategy.

4.2.1.5.3. Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Post-test

Table 4.12: Tests of between-subjects effects of MARSI post-tests

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	22.199[a]	1	22.19	246	.000	.596
Intercept	1780.663	1	1780	19757	.000	.992
Group	22.199	1	22.19	246	.000	.596
Corrected Total	37.250	167				

The earlier p-value result for the MARSI pre-test was .130, while the p-value for MARSI post-test was .001. This indicates that there was statistical significance between the students who

participated in the strategy explicit instruction F(1,167), =246, P=.001, Partial Eta Squared=.596. However, before the treatment, there was no significant difference between the two groups, F(1,167)=2.314, P=0.130 (see Table 4.11). This implies that the students who got chance of explicit teaching accompanied by classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice improved their strategy awareness than the students who participated in traditional way of teaching of reading strategy accompanied by classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice. This means that the hypothesis, ‘’There is a statistically significant difference in the strategy awareness between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those who are not’’ was accepted.

Table 4.13: Comparison of MARSI's pre-test and post-test

Test	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MARSIPre-test	Comparison	87	2.79	.18
	Treatment	82	2.67	.13
MARSI Post-test	Comparison	87	2.88	.37
	Treatment	82	3.61	.19

The students who did not participate in the strategy explicit instruction did not increase MARSI' scores before (M=2.79, SD=.18) and after the treatment and M=2.88, SD=.37). However, the students who participated in eight weeks of strategy explicit instruction increased their MARSI scores after the treatment (M=2.67, SD=.13 to M=3.61, SD=.19) (see the implication in Chapter 5 and 6).

Table 4.14: The three subscales of MARSI (GLOB, PROB and SUP)

MARSI subscales	No of items	Mean	Standard deviation
Global Reading Strategy	13	3.23	0.93
Problem-solving Reading Strategy	8	3.21	0.96
Supportive Reading Strategy	9	3.38	1.01

Metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction positively affected the treatment group's strategy awareness. Table 4.14 indicates the three subcomponents of MARSI: Supportive reading strategy (M=3.38, SD=1.01) was mostly affected by the strategy explicit instruction. Problem-solving reading strategy was least affected by the instruction (M=3.21, SD=0.96). Mean score of global reading strategy was 3.23. As a result of the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction, the treatment group students increased their strategy awareness.

4.2.1.6. Motivation to Read

Research objective number 3 was as stated as 'To investigate the effects of the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading motivation in Ambo Preparatory School.'' Motivation to Read Questionnaire (MRQ) was developed by Dr. Allan Wigfield and Dr. John Guthrie at the University of Maryland in 1997. MRQ is widely used in today's motivation to read in English in L2 (Conradi, Jang & McKenna, 2014). The items in MRQ are responded by four alternatives using scales 1-4. Number 1 represents '*very different from me'*; number 2 represents '*a little different from me'*; number 3 represents '*a little like me*'; and number 4 represents '*a lot like me*.' This means that the first scale represents 'almost never', the scale number 2 means about once a month, the scale number three represents 'about once a week', the scale number four represents 'almost every day'. The first MRQ measure was distributed for the two groups on the January 10, 2020 (Appendix G) whereas MRQs post-test was administered on March13, 2020.

4.2.1.6.1. Motivation to Read Pre-test

Table 4.15: Descriptive statistics for the motivation to read questionnaire for the groups before the intervention

Groups	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Kurtosis**	**Skewness**	**N**
Comparison	2.61	.30	-1.26	0.46	87
Treatment	2.55	.43	-0.41	0.38	82
Total	2.61	.37	-0.84	0.42	169

As it can be seen from Table 4.15, there is no big statistical difference between total mean score of treatment group (M=2.55, SD=.43) and comparison group (M=2.61, SD=.30). The difference is only 0.06. This indicates that the reading motivation levels of the two groups were similar prior to the strategy instruction. This means, the classification of the groups into treatment and comparison was reasonable. Skewness and kurtosis of the MRQs of comparison group students range between the accepted areas. For instance, skewness is 0.46 and kurtosis is -1.26.

Table 4.16: Levene's test of equality of error variances[a] (MRQ pre-test)

F	df1	df2	Sig.
4.09	1	167	.45

Table 4.16 above has shown the test of homogeneity of variance for MRQ pre-test. The equality of variance for MRQ pre-test was computed using Levene's Test. The probability value was .45, which was bigger than 0.05. This shows that the variances were equal with the confidence level of 95%. The Levene's test of error variance indicated that there were equal initially concerning their reading motivation.

Table 4.17: Tests of normality for motivation to read questionnaires

Tests	Groups	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
MRQ Pre-test	Comparison	.938	87	.734
	Treatment	.979	82	.213
MRQ Post-test	Comparison	.898	87	.000
	Treatment	.905	82	.000

The normality of dependent variable in each group was checked using Shapiro-Wilk tests. Table 4.17 presents the results of the pre-test and post-test of normality using Shapiro-Wilk test. According to Hinton et al. (2004), if the p-value is less than probability value, the data came from normal distribution. If the p-value is greater than 0.05, the data is normally distributed (see

the significant levels of pre-test in Table 4.17). It can be observed that test scores were normally distributed.

Table 4.18: Analysis of variance tests between-subjects effect of mean score of MRQ pre-test

Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
.671	1	.671	4.944	.028	.029
22.677	167	.136			

ANCOVA was computed to see the difference between the treatment group and the comparison group before the strategy explicit instruction. Table 4.18 indicates that there is no statistical difference between the two groups, F(1,167)=4.944, p=.028, partial eta squared = .029. This implies that the two groups scored similar results on the motivation to read questionnaire before the strategy treatment.

4.2.1.6.2. Motivation to Read Questionnaires Post-test

Table 4.19: Total means score of treatment and comparison group in MRQs pre-test and post-test

Test of MRQs	Groups	Means	Standard Deviations	N of participants
Before treatment	Comparison	2.61	.30	87
	Treatment	2.55	.43	82
After treatment	Comparison	2.72	.33	87
	Treatment	3.31	.12	82

The students who did not participate in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction did not increase MRQs scores before and after the treatment (M=.2.61, SD=.30 and M=2.72, SD=.33). However, the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction increased MRQs scores after the treatment (M=2.55, SD=.43 to M=3.31, SD=.12).

Table 4.20: Tests of between-subjects effects (MRQ post-test)

Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared

15.324	1	15.324	180.530	.000	.519
14.176	167	.085			

MRQ aimed at achieving objective number 3 ’To investigate the effects of the explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students‟ reading motivation in Ambo Preparatory School’ As indicated in the above Table 4.20, the alternative hypothesis is accepted and the null hypothesis is rejected. The result is reported as, F(1,167)=180.530, P>.05. The effect size was .519, which was large according to Murjs (2011). This indicates the power of the explicit instruction of strategy on students' reading motivation.

4.2.2. Qualitative findings

Qualitative data in this study is used to achieve objective number 4: 'To identify Grade 11 students' perception of reading explicit instruction’, which is aimed at examining the possible effects of strategy explicit instruction on students’ strategy perception. To achieve this objective, interview was conducted with six students selected from the treatment group. It is easy to assess students’ strategy knowledge using interview (Walker, Oliver & Mackenzie, 2020)). Interview in this study is aimed at identifying the participants’ thought, feelings and their strategy use in their reading. The interview was conducted after the strategy instruction. It was carried out after the administration of RCT, MARSI and MRQs post-tests. It took 25 to 35 minutes to complete the interview with one interviewee.

The data were divided into different themes depending on the interview questions. The major themes were: a) the participants’ perceptions on the strategy explicit instruction, b) the participants' views about the effects of strategy explicit instruction on their reading comprehension, c) the participants' views about the effect of the strategy explicit instruction on their strategy awareness, d) the participants' opinions about the effect of strategy explicit instruction on their motivation to read, e) and the participants' perception about strategy instruction materials (modules). The confidentiality of the respondents was ensured by assigned codes (St1, St2, St3, St4, St5 and St6).

4.2.2.1. Students' Perceptions of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Explicit Instruction

The goal of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction is to enrich the minds of participants of the study. Therefore, positive perception of metacognitive reading strategy instruction is expected. The interview revealed the participants' perception about the strategy explicit instruction. The finding of this study showed that almost all of the interview participants had positive perception about learning reading strategy. All of them reflected positive views on the strategy instruction and enjoyed the presentation of the strategy teaching. The participants' perceptions about reading skills, strategy instruction and materials used in the strategy instruction are very important in their reading comprehension performance and motivation to read in English.

The interview result also examined whether strategy explicit instruction improved the treatment group students' reading comprehension. The interview result indicated that the students developed cognitive skills in strategy use. For instance, they were able to transfer strategy to other reading contexts. All of them explained that they enjoyed the instruction. They agreed that reading is easier when interacting with teacher, reading materials and classmates in the classroom. All of them responded that the intervention changed the way they read and perceived reading skills. For instance, the following quote is translated from St5 extracts.

Before the reading strategy instruction, I do not like reading unless my teachers ordered to read. The reason is it is difficult for me to understand texts written in English. I bored of reading since it takes me a lot of time to finish even short passage. I stop at the beginning of starting reading before going further. However, from metacognitive reading strategy instruction, I learned several reading strategies that help me to overcome reading problems.

To put it in brief, strategy explicit instruction improved the students' reading comprehension, changed the way they perceived reading skills and they developed cognitive skills in strategy use.

4.2.2.2. Students' Perceptions of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness

Awareness here is the knowledge or understanding of strategy after the strategy treatment. It is the conscious use of strategies. The interview questions in this study were also discovery-oriented. The respondents were asked to name the reading strategies they were taught in the classroom. Accordingly, many of them confidently explained several strategies. They explained that most of the reading strategies they learned were new for them. For example, *"I did not aware for example, predicting and confirming predicting, using text structures*….''(St4). They agreed that they were aware of the strategies they used when they read. They began to consciously use reading strategies they learnt. The other respondent, St3, reported about his reading strategy awareness by saying, "*I understand how to use questioning while I read.*'' One of the participants, St5, reported that she made the strategies her own strategy. She said, ''*I set reading purpose when I read in English, especially after the strategy instruction; I can summarize what I read; ask myself questions*." Almost all of the participants reported that they became aware of the strategies and their application of those strategies. This indicated that they were familiarized with strategies after the treatment.

All these mean that the students in the treatment group became familiar with the strategies. They also became aware of application of those strategies.

4.2.2.3. Students' Metacognitive Reading Strategy Use

Interview question also intended to identify participants' strategy use after the treatment. Accordingly, the result showed that the participants of the study improved their strategy use. For example, St6 replied that she was able to use most of the strategies she learnt during the treatment. She said, "*When I read, I set purpose for reading after the training.''* Similarly, interviewee St3 also said, *"I have purpose in my mind when I read*." In a similar way, St4 also replied, *"I am able to use most of the reading strategies after the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy*." Most of them replied that they learnt how to use questioning in their reading. For instance, St5 said, ‘*'I learned how to question when I read texts.*'' They also were able to monitor and evaluate their understanding of what they read. St1 replied, *"While I read, I try to check my understanding early from the beginning*." Most of them replied that they became aware of how to summarize what they read. This is also another way of checking their

abilities to evaluate what they read. They also reported that when they do not understand texts, they go back and read again to understand texts. In the classroom and out of the classroom practice of the strategies helped them to evaluate their own strategy use.

The interview respondents heavily depended on the bottom-up strategies than high-order thinking strategies when they read texts in English before the explicit teaching of metacognitive reading strategy. For instance, St3 said, ‘‘*I use texts' titles, headings, subheadings, and pictures before the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction, but now I understood that prediction is more than using titles and heading.*" All of the interviewees were asked the reasons why they developed reading strategy use after the treatment. They learned through interaction with teacher, peers and teaching materials and reading strategy practice texts. They received supports when they discussed reading with the teacher and the students. Gradually, they developed their metacognitive reading strategy use independently.

In reading skills development, the role of vocabulary is undeniable in any language. Vocabulary instruction and contextual guessing are inseparable (Perez, 2008). In this instruction, application of vocabulary in reading is emphasized. The participants of the interview also explained their vocabulary learning. After the reading strategy treatment, they were able to use word together to guess meaning of new words. For instance, St1 reported, ‘*’I able to use words together to guess the meaning of new words.*’’ Nearly all of the interview respondents responded that they spend most of their time while reading on looking up new English words in dictionary. Their views were that in order to read successfully in English, they should know all English words in the reading passage. An attempt was also made to ask them to state the types of reading strategies they use while they read. Accordingly, one of the interviewees, St2, responded skimming for unknown vocabularies, scanning for looking for new vocabulary, underlining, writing new words using dictionary. St3 also said, *"When I use dictionary, even I do not know which word to choose from the lists of meanings in the dictionary. I simply choose one of words and try to use them. Sometimes, I cannot understand even after I see words meaning."* This means that their reading skills were affected by shortage of vocabulary use awareness. According to Texas Education Agency (2004), teaching vocabulary should include explicitly teaching words through definition and explanation. This agency also suggests that the students should involve in learning and

independent use of those words. In general, awareness of words and how to use them in contexts help learners to develop reading comprehension ability.

4.2.2.4. Students' Abilities to Transfer Metacognitive Reading Strategies to Other Reading Contexts

The reading strategy explicit instruction successfulness is also seen in terms of participants' abilities to transfer the reading strategy they learnt into new reading contexts (Nashdizel, 2010). The interview question was aimed at identifying interviewees' abilities to apply strategies they learnt to their own reading. Accordingly, the respondents explained that strategy explicit instruction helped them to transfer reading strategies to new situations independently rather than tasks presented by the teacher. This also assisted them to improve their academic results. The explicit instruction of reading strategy supported them to improve their grades in all subjects. All of them improved their results not only in English subject but also in other subjects due to the explicit instruction of strategy than prior to the instruction. For example, St5 said, *"I can use the strategies with other teachers*." She also explained, *"I improved my marks*." St3 also reported, ‘*'I try to use the reading strategies I learnt in other subjects when I read*.’’

In general, metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction using CALLA model increased the participants' use of metacognitive reading strategies to new situation. Metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction helped the students to transfer reading strategies to new situations independently.

4.2.2.5. Students' Reading Motivation

Motivation is an abstract idea. It cannot speak itself. It is possible to see it by observing or verbal reports. The effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on the students' reading skills development can be seen in different ways. After the treatment, the students in the treatment group increased the time they spent on reading. For instance, St1 said, *"I spent much of my time on studying other subjects*.’’ In addition, as a result of the strategy explicit teaching, the students were motivated to do their assignments. In a similar way, most of the interviewees replied that they were interested in reading in general, which in turn have a significant effect on their academic work in school and career development after school. The respondents developed social motivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. For example, St1 replied, "*I*

enjoy reading.'' This is extrinsic motivation. The interviewee St6 also said, ‘*'I want to be best reader*.'' This is intrinsic motivation. Interviewee St3 replied, ‘*'I read at home with my friends*.'', which is social motivation. The effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on students' reading motivation can also be seen in terms of spending money on reading. For instance, they started buying books; they started planning reading for pleasure. Regarding how the intervention affected their engagement in reading, St6 replied, *"I pass most of my time on reading after the training since I found reading easier*." This shows that the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction had a positive impact on the students' motivation to read.

To conclude, explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy enhances reading motivation of students and their successful reading activities. They increased time they spend on reading activities; they were motivated to do their assignments; they started buying books, and they started planning for future reading.

4.2.2.6. Students' Perception about the Teaching Materials

The interview question was aimed at finding out the respondents' perception about the strategy instruction materials, which include both strategy teaching materials and strategy practice in the classroom and out of the classroom. 'Instructional materials', 'teaching materials' and 'modules' are used synonymously in this study. Most of the respondents had positive perception about the strategy teaching materials. An attempt was also made to identify which module(s) they preferred more. St1 said, ‘*'I liked all of the modules*.'' St4 also reported, ‘*'I enjoyed all modules*.'' This means, they showed their interest in and favored all of the modules, global reading strategy teaching material (module one), problem-solving reading strategy teaching materials (module two) and supportive reading strategy teaching materials (module three).

When it comes to their perception about strategy practice materials, they were interested in both classroom metacognitive reading strategy practice and out of classroom strategy practice. One of the respondents, St5, favored classroom strategy practice than out of classroom strategy practice at their homes. She argued that classroom strategy practices were full of teacher's corrective feedback than self-reading strategy practice. Participants were also asked how the materials helped them in learning about reading strategies to the objectives of the instruction. Accordingly, almost all of them reported that the notes in the modules helped them a lot to develop their reading skills. For instance, St6 said: ‘*'I have not experience such training before*.''St2 said,

‘*’reading materials were easy to understand*.’’ Most of them responded that the teaching and practice materials used were easier and enjoyable. The respondents St2 and St3 replied that the texts that they used during the study and test were related to their prior knowledge. They motivated and influenced their interests in reading.

Overall, the students’ perceptions about instructional materials used were generally positive which is fundamental for effective learning of something. This increases their interaction in learning reading strategy.

4.3. Summary of the Finding of the Main Study

Several survey researches were conducted in reading strategy areas. However, most of those reading strategies did not integrate reading strategies into explicit instruction rather than recommending the reading strategy-based practice. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of reading strategy explicit instruction. The study raised the following objectives: 1) to find out the effects of the explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students’ reading comprehension in Ambo Preparatory school; 2) to examine the effects of explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students’ reading strategy awareness in Ambo Preparatory School; 3) to investigate the effects of the explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students‟ reading motivation in Ambo Preparatory School and 4) to identify Grade 11 students' perception of metacognitive reading explicit instruction.

Objective No 1: Examining the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on the students’ reading comprehension was one of the elements of this dissertation. Reading comprehension is a complex process that consists of readers, texts and tasks. The objective No 1 was 'To find out the effects of the explicit instruction of reading strategy on Grade 11 students‟ reading comprehension in Ambo Preparatory school’ In order to achieve this objective, the researcher asked the students to do comprehension test. Reading comprehension scores (pre-test and post-test) were used and ANCOVA was run to see the effects of explicit teaching of metacognitive reading strategy on the students' reading comprehension.

The finding indicated that there was a mean difference between the treatment group (M=43.57, SD= 6.66) and comparison group (M=40.69, SD=7.23) after the treatment. The findings of this study revealed that strategy explicit instruction had positive effects on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension (M=43.57, SD=6.66, F(1,167)=704, P=.001. Eta squared size was .519 in RCT analyses. The students who participated in the explicit teaching of strategy performed well in reading comprehension tests adapted from TOEL online reading comprehension free practice, after receiving the instruction. This means that the implementation of strategy explicit instruction by using in the classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice contributed to the students' improvement of reading comprehension. From the students' reading comprehension scores, it is possible to conclude that this kind of instruction improved the students reading comprehension scores than the students who participated in the conventional way of learning metacognitive reading strategy.

Objective No 2:The second objective of this study addressed the issue of whether there was a statistically significant difference in strategy awareness between the students who participated in the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy and the students who participated in the conventional way of teaching of metacognitive reading strategy. By using pre-test and post-test via metacognitive reading strategy awareness inventory (MARSI), the two groups' mean scores were compared (see Table 4.12). Accordingly, the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction increased their MARSI' mean scores after the treatment (M=2.67, SD=.13 to M=3.61, SD=.19) than the students who participated in the conventional way of teaching of strategy (M=2.79, SD=.18 to M=2.88, SD=.37). The students in the treatment group improved their strategy awareness than the students in the comparison group.

In order to see the effects of the treatment, ANCOVA was run after assessing its assumptions. The finding showed that there was a statistical difference between the two groups. The ANCOVA analyses showed that there was a statistical difference between the treatment group and the comparison group post-test scores on strategy awareness, F(1,168), =246, P=.001. This is an indication that explicit instruction of strategy improves students' strategy awareness. Additionally, the treatment group scored highest mean score in supportive reading strategy (M=3.38) while they scored medium mean score in global reading strategy (M=3.23) and scored

3.21 mean in the problem-solving reading strategy (see Table 4.14: The three subscales of MARSI, under chapter 4).

The findings of the study showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction and the students who did not participate in the explicit instruction, $F(1,167)=180$, $p>.001$. The effect size was .519, which was large enough according to Murjs (2011).

The qualitative finding showed interviewed students were happy in receiving the treatment as a whole. They provided evidence that they became aware of many reading strategies they had not been familiar with before the intervention. They also believed that practicing reading strategies using a variety of topics helped them to improve not only reading ability but also other language skills. After the training was completed, all of the respondents agreed that they would continue to use the strategies in their future careers.

4.4. Conclusion

The findings from both quantitative and qualitative data showed that metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction using CALLA approach accompanied by in classroom and out of classroom practices benefited EFL/ESL students' reading comprehension, strategies awareness, reading motivation and perception of the reading strategy explicit instruction. The quantitative findings showed that the treatment group improved their reading comprehension scores, their strategy awareness scores and their motivation to read scores in English. In the same way, the qualitative findings showed that the treatment group had a positive perception of strategy instruction. In short, the statistical analysis showed that strategy explicit instruction had positive effects on preparatory school students' reading comprehension strategies awareness and reading motivation. The students also positively perceived strategy explicit instruction.

In general, the main study conducted at Ambo Preparatory School indicated that that strategy explicit instruction had positive effects on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception (see 4.3 summary of the finding).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS OF THE FINDINGS

5. Introduction

This study examined the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on EFL students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and strategy instruction perception among Grade 11 students of Ambo Preparatory School. Four types of data collection instruments were used in this study: Reading Comprehension Test (RCT), Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSI), Motivation to Read Questionnaire (MRQ) and interview. The former three data collection instruments were distributed both pretreatment and post-treatment while the latter, interview, was carried out after the intervention with six students selected from the treatment group.

Quantitative data were analyzed and their means were compared to identify whether there were differences between the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction and those who did not. In order to test hypotheses of this study, ANCOVA was run. Additionally, a semi-structured interview was conducted to investigate how the reading strategy treatment affected their perception of strategy intervention, motivation to read and reading comprehension. This chapter, therefore, presents discussion of both quantitative and qualitative findings of the study, which are presented in chapter four. The results in relation to the problem under investigation are explained in this chapter. The findings of the study are discussed by giving reasons for the findings and explaining why the findings are important. In addition, the results are compared and contrasted with previous literature. The results of this study are also compared and contrasted with previous studies to state the significance of findings of this study. The reviewed literature for this study was grounded on the cognitive theory in learning a second language. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), language learners should be strategic readers and conscious of their learning. The comparison was done by highlighting the way the results are similar or different.

5.1. Discussion of Quantitative Findings

This study used the cognitive theory as a theoretical framework and implemented metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction using the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) as reading strategy instruction model (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Chamot, 2004) to examine the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation to read in English and perception of strategy explicit instruction. This study used a quasi-experimental design. Two groups participated in this study. The treatment group (N=82) received a reading strategy explicit instruction for eight weeks while the comparison group (N=87) did not receive explicit instruction. The students in the comparison group followed strategy learning in a conventional way. Prior to strategy learning, the two groups sat for pre-tests of reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness and motivation to read questionnaires as quantitative data gathering instruments. Then, after the eight-week treatment with treatment groups, post-tests were administered for both groups to reassess their reading comprehension, strategy awareness and reading motivation. Semi-structured interview was conducted to assess the students' perception of the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction.

5.1.1. Discussion of Reading Comprehension

RCT score was used to address objective number 1: ''To find out the effects of the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension in Ambo Preparatory school'' The students' reading comprehension development was examined by the RCT by comparing pre-test and post-test scores of treatment and comparison groups. The students in the treatment group scored higher mean (M=43.57) than the students in the comparison group (M=40.69) after the treatment. The treatment group students' mean score on RCT shows that they increased their post-test scores after the treatment.

In order to test the effects of the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy, ANCOVA was run. The result from ANCOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the RCT post-test between the treatment and the comparison groups. The intervention had positive effects on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension $F(1,167)=704$, $P=.001$. The reason might be that the students in the treatment group received explicit instruction

in strategy based on the CALLA model of strategy instruction (see Appendix G for the lists of metacognitive reading strategies and the action plan for the interventions). Furthermore, the participants of this study participated in the classroom and out of classroom reading comprehension practice. This was to expose the students to intensive and extensive strategy practice so that they would practice the strategy independently. This idea of intensive and extensive reading strategy practice was based on the CALLA model of strategy instruction.

The finding of this study is similar to previous findings that support the significance of reading strategy explicit instruction on the improvement of students' reading comprehension scores (Paris & Hamilton, 2009).Yenus (2018) used a conventional approach for teaching comparison group, and comprehension strategy instruction for treatment group students for twelve months. His finding indicated that the students in the comparison group also showed an increment in reading comprehension scores from 58.61 to 60.56. However, the students who participated in the reading comprehension strategy instruction increased their reading comprehension scores from 58.27 to 62.73, which was greater than the score of the students in the comparison group.

Several studies conducted abroad show that the CALLA approach improved the learners' learning strategy use. For instance, Hameed's (2019) study revealed that the use of the CALLA model improved his samples' reading comprehension. This study was found to be in line with Tavakoli and Koosha's (2016) who conducted similar research on Iranian University EFL undergraduate students. They also used the CALLA model. Their experimental group received explicit metacognitive strategy instruction, but the control group was trained in reading strategy in a traditional way. The experimental group students scored higher mean (M= 31.96) than the control group students (M=18.92) in the post-test of reading comprehension. The finding of their study showed a statistical significant difference between the students who participated in the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy and those who did not. Hence, this study showed the applicability of the CALLA approach in improving students' reading comprehension. However, better results can be obtained when using multiple models to train reading strategies. Guthrie (2004) combined multiple reading strategies with motivational supports such as allowing participants to select materials of their own to practice reading strategies, practical activities and using interesting texts, and trained students to improve their reading skills. Empirical researches

indicated that reading strategy instruction that involves several reading strategies creates strategic readers, and improves students' reading comprehension (Keer & Verherghe, 2005).

About 35 metacognitive reading strategies were treated in this study. Different activities were used during different phases of reading activities. Therefore, it can be concluded that lessons were effective pedagogically in terms of treating different formats of experiences such as multiple-choice, filling gaps, true/false and summarizing that involve several metacognitive reading strategies.

5.1.2. Discussion of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness

Metacognitive reading strategy awareness is what the students know about reading strategy and aspects of other language learning. Metacognitive reading strategy awareness refers to being aware of the knowledge of reading strategies for processing reading texts. It also entails the ability to check reading comprehension (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2012). The objective number 2is concerned with the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' metacognitive reading strategy awareness. Thus, the awareness of students' strategy in this study was examined using MARSI. The participants of this study filled and returned 30-items questionnaires concerning the three types of metacognitive reading strategy: Global reading strategy (GLOB), problem-solving reading strategy (PROB) and supportive reading strategy (SUP).

The findings of this study indicated that the participants of this study scored similar mean score on awareness of strategy (pre-test) before the treatment. Accordingly, the mean and the standard deviation seemed similar across the groups (M=2.84 for the treatment group, 2.72 for the comparison group). However, after the treatment, the treatment group scored higher mean than the comparison group students did. The students who participated in the strategy explicit instruction increased their MARSI scores after the treatment (M= 2.84, SD=.13 to M=3.61, SD=.19) than the students who did not receive explicit instruction of strategy. The comparison group increased their MARSI' scores from 2.72 to 2.88 after the treatment. This means that the students in the comparison group showed improvement in MARSI mean score because of the treatment.

The classroom strategy practices were linked to out of the classroom strategy practice. The link between intensive and extensive strategy practices encouraged the trainer to provide better scaffolding in the treatment group class. Several reading texts were used in this study so that the students would become more aware of reading strategies. According to Sallabas (2008), students must practice reading strategies overtime using different reading texts. The two groups were engaged in reading more reading texts after each strategy teaching. The students in the comparison group also practiced strategies like visualizing the text in their mind, contextual word guessing, scanning for a specific purpose, skimming for general information, finding main ideas, use of prior knowledge and other reading strategies. The difference between the treatment group and the comparison group was the lack of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction.

ANCOVA was run to see the effects of metacognitive reading strategy on students reading strategy awareness. Accordingly, the finding indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the treatment and the comparison group in the metacognitive reading strategy awareness, $F(1,167)=.246$, $P=0.001$.This implies that the students who got the chance of explicit teaching accompanied by classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice improved their reading strategy awareness than the students who participated in the traditional way of teaching of reading strategy accompanied by classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice. This result ties well with previous studies wherein the reading interventions engage the students in interesting reading practices to help students to improve their reading strategy knowledge (Sanford, 2015).

One of the possible explanations for this difference between the treatment group and the comparison group might relate to the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategies. Another possible explanation might relate to the classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice. Due to the fact that the students in the treatment group discussed in the classroom what they read at their homes, they improved their reading strategy awareness. In a similar way, the teacher also made them discuss what they were going to learn before starting a new lesson. Scholars argue that new knowledge is constructed by linking previous experiences and new learning tasks (Tomlinson, 2010). Moreover, this study showed that the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy along with well-designed reading tasks, reading materials,

reading strategy practices is effective in developing the students' reading abilities, reading comprehension, strategy use and motivation to read in English. Language learning activities need to be in a format that increases students' learning motivation and their achievement in learning. Additionally, language learning tasks should contribute to the learning of language outside the classroom.

Yoshikawa and Leung (2020) also conducted a survey study on Japanese undergraduate students' reading strategy awareness and their use of reading strategy. Concerning the three types of reading strategies, the subjects scored the least mean score on a supportive reading strategy (M=2.78) while they scored the highest mean on problem-solving reading strategy (M=3.59). They also scored 3.25 mean on global reading strategy awareness. Taki (2016) also conducted a study on metacognitive reading strategy awareness of college students in Canada. Taki's finding showed that the subjects of the study became aware of problem-solving reading strategy (M=3.31) than the others: global reading strategy (M=2.84) and supportive reading strategy (M=2.59). The students in the treatment group participated in reading strategy instruction that was clear, which depended on the CALLA approach. For instance, when he taught how to take notes, the trainer started by telling them what it means taking notes, why it is important and how the students go about to take notes. After this, he modeled the process of taking notes for the students. Then, he asked them to take notes without assistance. When they did this, he offered feedback to his students to ensure they were on the right way. Next to this, he made the students take notes together in small groups or pairs. Then, he changed his students to take notes independently. During these phases, he still actively supervised his students' progress. Takallou's (2011) finding also supports this study's finding that the students in the treatment group received reading strategy explicit instruction accompanied by classroom reading strategy practice. The difference was that the current study used both in-class and out of classroom reading strategy practice after each strategy lesson.

An important finding of this study is showing that preparatory school students can gain substantial improvement in metacognitive reading strategy awareness from strategy explicit instruction. This implies that classroom teaching of reading strategy needs to be explicit, accompanied by classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice until the students have fully mastered the strategy.

Many scholars in previous studies evidenced that strategy explicit instruction affects students' strategy awareness. Tavakoli (2014) conducted a survey research on the effectiveness of strategy awareness in reading comprehension of Iranian university undergraduate students. Tavakoli's study also supports the findings of the current research. Tavakoli's participants scored the highest mean score in supportive (M= 3.26), moderate mean score in problem-solving strategy (M=2.37) and 2.91 mean score in global reading strategy. In a similar way, participants of this study scored the highest mean in supportive reading strategy (M=3.38) whereas a medium mean score in global reading strategy (M=3.23) and problem-solving reading strategy (M=3.21).

However, a study carried out in Saudi by Meniado (2016) found different results from the above findings. Meniado found that his respondents scored the highest mean in problem-solving reading strategy (3.55) while his respondents scored medium mean on the global reading strategy (M=3.15) and supportive reading strategy (M=3.43). This finding is consistent with that of Aghaie and Zhang (2012) who found that metacognitive reading strategy had an impact on high school students' reading skills. However, in line with the three types of reading strategies in this study, their study identified that among the three reading strategies, reading strategy intervention had moderate effect on supportive reading strategy, which is mostly affected by the strategy explicit instruction in this study.

The students in the treatment group were allowed to practice the reading strategy independently, which is an essential component of reading strategy instruction. Two reading texts were prepared for each strategy. After they learned formally and practiced in the classroom, the students in the treatment group repracticed at their homes and discussed again in the classroom with their classmates and teacher, which was vital for strategy awareness. Furthermore, the nature of the reading texts and teaching materials in this study were also authentic and meaningful as recommended in the literature (Prinhandini, 2014).

5.1.3. Discussion of Reading Motivation

Several studies found that reading motivation is the heart of reading skill improvement. The majority of the literature supports that there is a link between reading motivation and reading achievement, which was explained in the review of related literature. Research objective number 3of this study is concerned with the effect of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction

on students' reading motivation. As it was discussed earlier, the finding of this study indicated that the students who participated in the strategy explicit instruction increased their motivation to read mean score from2.55 to 3.31, F(1, 167)= 180.530, P=0.001. The effect size was .519. Several studies would agree that reading strategy intervention increases the students' motivation to read. Similarly, Macaro (2001) found that metacognitive reading strategy instruction increased the students' motivation to read. Moreover, this study used a clear intervention that engaged students in the classroom and out of classroom strategy practice, which gave them opportunities to apply strategies independently. This study used explicit instruction of strategy, which aimed at helping students to understand what and how to use those strategies. The study thus involved the students in regular strategy practice.

The other reason for the improvement of the treatment group's reading motivation was their engagement in hand-on activities after each strategy lesson, with corrective feedback based on the CALLA model of reading strategy instruction. The students' motivation might also be caused by the use of simple instructional materials, sharing and discussion with peers and the teacher, extensive reading practice and including reading texts from the students' textbook. The students in the treatment group received corrective feedback even on their individual reading strategy use progress. This might be the reason that the students started generating their opportunities for reading tasks. According to Lantolf and Thome (2006), language development resulting from the interaction of expert-novice has also been an interest of research in the socio-cultural theory.

How participants of this study developed motivation in the strategy study was also in line with previous studies. For instance, Arpacioğlu (2007) found that undergraduate students at Bilkent University in Ankra had little knowledge. Some of them did not know the existence of the strategies in reading activities before the four-week intervention. Nevertheless, after 12 reading strategies interventions, Arpacioglo's subjects showed improvement in reading comprehension. Contrary to the present study, Riany's (2010) study found that Australian undergraduate students had high motivation before and after the reading strategy intervention.

In this study, more than 30 metacognitive reading strategies were taught. Participants of this study also had various opportunities to interact with the teacher, peers and reading texts. The reading materials were not simply supplementary materials; different things such as students' levels and cultural relatedness were considered in preparing the materials. One can understand

that this was one of the reasons that led the participants of this study to be motivated readers. This study is in line with Takallou (2011) who suggests that when several reading strategies are taught, they should be treated together rather than teaching them separately.

The implication is that when the students enjoy reading they are motivated to read recreational reading materials. Such materials may take the form of newspapers, magazines, fictions, books, etc. The reading of such reading texts may help them to improve other English language skills, which in turn, develop a positive attitude towards reading skills. The findings of the current study seem to support previous findings on the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' attitudes toward reading strategy (Prihandini, 2014).Therefore, it can be concluded from the finding that strategy explicit instruction was effective, that is, it changed the students' reading motivation. When the students are motivated to read, they spend their time and their money on reading and they take all their own responsibilities to read more. Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) define the concept of motivation in a way that decides the direction and magnitudes of people's behaviors i.e. choice of actions, tenacity with actions and energy consumed on the actions. This can have a positive impact on students' academic achievements, which in turn may have an impact on their academic performance.

5.2. Discussion of Qualitative Findings

One of the assumptions in this study is that explicit teaching of metacognitive reading strategy means developing expertise in it. In this section, qualitative findings are discussed. The qualitative findings are also supported by previous researches and literature. An attempt is also made to connect them to the quantitative findings.

The results obtained from the qualitative data through semi-structured interviews indicated that the students received benefits from the explicit instruction of the metacognitive reading strategy. All the interview respondents said that they developed strategy knowledge throughout the explicit instruction. Quantitative findings also support this finding. For instance, Findings of this study revealed that strategy explicit instruction had positive effects on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension (M=43.57, SD=6.66, F(1,167)=704, P=.001. Eta squared size was .519 in RCT analyses. The interview result showed that the students in the treatment group developed

cognitive knowledge. They reported that they began to consciously use the strategies they had learned.

The respondents of this study answered that they had positive changes in their reading strategy use after the explicit instruction of the metacognitive reading strategy. They became aware of their improvement in their reading abilities because of the explicit instruction of strategy. One of the possible explanations of this finding is that the students improved their reading strategy use due to the classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practice. Furthermore, the interview result also showed that the students raised their strategy awareness due to explicit instruction. All the interviewees reported that the linkage of in the classroom and out of the classroom practice also raised their strategy awareness. Consequently, they started using the strategies in their reading tasks. They were also able to identify their weaknesses in using reading strategies. Quantitative findings of this study also support the interview findings in that there was difference between the treatment group and the comparison group, F(1,168), =246, P=.001.

The analysis of the interview also supported the finding that the students in the treatment group were motivated to engage in further reading activities in their future learning. They also perceived the strategy as useful to their general learning. The students' engagement in reading is high when they are interested in reading texts (Stoller, 2015). Additionally, they increased their self-confidence in reading skills because of the explicit instruction of the strategy. Dedication, confidence and interest are part of motivation (Sanford, 2015). If the students are interested in reading, they enjoy it. Literature also supports that the first intention of English teachers in teaching reading should be developing a love of reading in students (Starke, 2020).). Learners must accept the value of reading in order to use them in their future reading activities. Dedicated readers believe in the importance of reading. Confident readers engage in reading since they believe that they can do that.

According to Hendrix and Griffin (2017), at high school level, the students developed either the love of reading or the hate for reading. The students' reading motivation is high if the classroom teaching of reading is supported by interesting reading materials. One can expect that access to reading materials itself has a positive impact on students' reading motivation. The interview respondents reported that they observed improvement in English reading. One can imagine that

such texts engage learners cognitively in reading. Similarly, all of the students said that they increased their reading comprehension abilities after the explicit instruction of the strategies.

The students had good perceptions of their improvement in their reading due to the different techniques used in the teaching of the reading strategies by the trainer. The trainer influenced the emotions of the students in learning. All of them reflected a positive view on the strategy instruction and enjoyed the presentation of strategy teaching. Therefore, emotional involvement in learning can promote effective reading strategy learning. Positive emotions such as feeling happy, enjoyment, empathy and hope enhance the learning of language. The participants' perceptions of reading skills, strategy instruction and materials used in the strategy instruction are very important in their reading comprehension performance and motivation to read in English. Suns (2020) also conducted qualitative research on secondary school students in China. His respondents in an interview expressed that they showed good perception on out of classroom reading strategy. Therefore, the findings revealed that metacognitive reading strategy treatment has practicable techniques for developing positive perceptions about reading in general in Grade 11 students.

Participants of the study explained that they increased their academic achievements. The implication for this is the students' success in their academic work is high when they are interested in reading activities. This finding is in line with Bracho's finding (2007) who found that there is an association between students' reading strategy improvement and their academic achievements. Another study evidenced that the students' success in their academic work was high when they were interested in reading activities (Meng, 2009). Besides, Chamot and O'Malley (1994) argue that the use of CALLA (the model used in the current study) supports students' academic achievements since it enhances the students English language skills.

In a similar way, Bonds et al. (1992) and Garb (2000) suggest that one of the reasons for integrating metacognitive knowledge into language instruction is to develop learners who can take charge of their own learning. In every strategy instruction, the students (in this study) in the treatment group were involved in the self-evaluation process, who developed a sense of control over their reading. This study is in line with Jaleel and Premachandran's (2016) who concluded that metacognitive knowledge develops learners who challenge a new situation in their own learning. This shows that they become aware of their thinking as they read texts. Meniado (2016)

also argues that if the students are aware of metacognitive reading strategies, they can easily think about reading and check how to process cognitive tasks.

The trainer participated in the teaching of strategy explicit instruction used active teaching methods. The researcher trained the trainer in a way that he systematically makes group and supervises the group while his students were on reading activities. He encouraged the students in the treatment group to share their strategy use experiences on strategy practice. The respondents in the interview explained that the teacher made them discuss what they learnt together in pairs, groups and whole class. They were provided with opportunities to discuss how the metacognitive reading strategies they learned help them in reading activities. The trainer enabled the students to discuss during metacognitive reading strategy instruction, especially when making connection between previous strategy and the new strategy and how to transfer them to new situations since he taught them how to use and when to use the strategies. The students in the treatment group received feedback by using discussion in the strategy instruction. According to Secada (1991), cooperative learning enhances the development of higher-order thinking skills. In this study, the students discussed their reading strategy use. They were also able to transfer the strategy to new reading situations in which the interaction takes place between student-student, student-students, student-teacher and students-teacher. With regard to the students' ability to transfer reading strategy to other new reading contexts, Morvay (2015) found that reading strategy use can also be transferred from one language to another language.

The interviewees reported that they were satisfied with the nature of the teacher's support in classroom instruction and during strategy practice in the classroom. All of them satisfied with the teacher's support and the nature of feedback provision. Teacher's scaffolding is also necessary for reading skills development. Scaffolding refers to the assistance provided by more capable learners to their interlocutors and that enables them to do reading activities. It is also important to make students free from teachers' support in classroom reading instruction and practice. Peer support leads to self-support. Working together makes learners more effective deciphers of reading texts and collaborative meaning makers (McLoughlin et al., 2000).

The important thing in the interview result is that the participants of this study started valuing reading, which has its role in language skills development. This was why they started spending their time and money on reading. The results of this study also showed that strategy explicit

instruction made a contribution in enhancing positive reading strategy instruction. It was found that the participants of this study were interested in the instructional materials used to train students metacognitive reading strategy. The motivation was also caused by the use of simple instructional materials. Language tasks also need to be prepared in such away that they supply comprehensive input that engages students in learning cognitively (Richards & Renadya, 2002). According to Tomlinson (2010), to be effective in providing comprehensive input, reading texts should be connected to previously acquired knowledge. According to Protacio (2017), the students' reading challenges occur when most of them are not interested in reading activities.

The students in the treatment group developed their self-efficacy in reading. Self-efficacy is the belief readers have to be successful in reading tasks. Self-efficacy is also part of the motivation to read questionnaires. The evidence is that they believed that they would be successful in reading tasks. As a result of explicit teaching of reading strategy accompanied by classroom and out of classroom practice, the students saw themselves as better readers. Trainer's efforts, successful practices and concentration are necessary to promote students learning of metacognitive reading strategy. Reading strategy explicit instruction, with the students in the treatment group was full of corrective feedback, the use of authentic reading materials and scaffolding. The present study confirmed the findings of the best practices such as modeling reading strategies, choice of students' culture-related reading texts, encouragement and scaffolding to develop students' reading self-efficacy. This study is inconsistent with some studies (e.g. Day & Bamford, 1998) that identified that out-of-classroom reading affects the students' reading comprehension and their perception of reading skills.

5.3. Conclusion

This chapter focused on the discussions of both quantitative findings and qualitative findings. The first section, 5.1.1 discussion of quantitative findings, dealt with the quantitative findings from reading comprehension test, metacognitive reading strategy awareness inventory and motivation to read questionnaire which tested the hypotheses of the study regarding the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students’ reading comprehension, strategy awareness and motivation. The findings generated from the three data collection instruments indicated that the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction improved the reading comprehension, strategy awareness and reading motivation

scores than the students who participated in the conventional way of teaching strategy. The results obtained from the qualitative data through semi-structured interviews indicated that the students received benefits from the explicit instruction of the reading strategy. Finally, the findings of the pilot study and those of the main study were similar. This strengthens the conclusion that metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction improves preparatory school students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONTRIBUTIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. Introduction

This is the final chapter for this dissertation. The study dealt with both quantitative and qualitative findings that are presented in chapter 4 and discussed in chapter 5. Quantitative findings are concerned with the findings regarding the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness and reading motivation. Qualitative findings focused on how the explicit teaching of strategy affected the students' perception regarding the reading strategy explicit instruction. This chapter contains four main sections. The first section provides summary of the study. The second section focuses on the contributions of the study. The third section presents the conclusions of the study. The last section provides recommendations for different bodies.

6.1. Summary

This study used cognitive theory as its theoretical framework. It implemented metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction to investigate its effects on students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception of students on reading strategy explicit instruction. Cognitive theory is the theoretical foundation for the CALLA approach, which is the instructional model in this study. The students were explicitly instructed in the three types of metacognitive reading strategies proposed by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) over periods of eight weeks, which allowed the students to participate in the classroom and out of classroom practice of reading strategy on their own. This research provided a clear description of the strategy explicit instruction for secondary school students. The study also used standardized questionnaires and tests to measure students' strategy awareness, motivation and reading comprehension by focusing on preparatory school students. For instance, the metacognitive awareness of reading strategy inventory (MARSI) was used to measure students' reading strategy awareness. Sheorey and Mokhtari recommended that effective reading strategy learning must combine reading strategy assessment and reading strategy instruction.

This study aimed at improving students' metacognitive reading strategies by using explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategies. Even though metacognitive reading is the least researched among other language skills in Ethiopia, it is an essential issue since EFL students' academic achievements depends on their reading abilities. In order to develop students' reading abilities, this study utilized strategy explicit instruction. It employed a quasi-experimental design in order to investigate the effects of strategy explicit instruction on reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception among Grade 11 students in Ambo Preparatory School in Western Shoa, Oromia, Ethiopia. The effect of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction in this study was investigated based on main criteria: a) development of reading comprehension abilities; b) increment of students' strategy awareness and use; c) improvements of students' motivation in reading texts in English and) perception of reading strategy explicit instruction.

Several studies were carried out in the reading strategy area. They failed to provide meaningful tasks that support students to develop certain reading strategies. However, most of those studies found that English language teachers believe that their students develop reading skills by reading and reading texts in English. The gap attempted to fill in this study was that the linkage between the explicit instruction and in-classroom and out of classroom metacognitive reading strategy practices to see the effects on students' reading comprehension achievement, strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception toward strategy explicit instruction.

The statistics of the ANCOVA and descriptive statistics indicated that there was a significant difference between the treatment group and the comparison group with regard to reading comprehension, strategy awareness and reading motivation. The finding of this study revealed that the students who participated in the strategy explicit instruction have scored significantly higher on reading comprehension, strategy awareness, and motivation than students who did not receive explicit instruction of the strategy. This means the findings of the study indicated that all of the three alternative hypotheses were accepted while the null hypotheses were rejected.

The results of both pre-tests and post-tests were analyzed and their means were compared to identify to what extent the intervention affected the post-tests. There were differences between the pre-tests and post-tests reading comprehension scores after strategies instruction. The treatment group increased their strategies awareness in the three types of strategies, global,

problem-solving and supportive reading strategies (see Table 4. 14, under the chapter: The three subscales of MARSI). Therefore, it can be concluded that subjects' increment in the reading comprehension, strategy awareness and reading motivation may be the result of their involvement direct strategies and their extra practice of the strategies.

The findings of this study show that the students who participated in the learning of metacognitive reading strategy in a conventional approach did not increase their reading comprehension, strategy awareness and reading motivation. On the basis of this result, it can be concluded that the explicit teaching of strategy accompanied by in classroom and out of classroom strategy practice have positive effects on the students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and strategy explicit instruction perception.

The interview results in this study showed that participants of this study developed strategy awareness because of the two months intervention of the strategy. Prior to the treatment, the students reported that they had little knowledge about the strategies. They used some lower-level reading strategies. However, through the explicit learning of the strategies, they became aware of the right reading strategy they have to use when they read texts in English. The findings of this study also indicated that students' perceived the usefulness of the strategy explicit instruction. In addition to improving their reading comprehension abilities through practicing reading strategies, they developed self-confidence in reading skills. With the aforementioned findings, the study has the following contributions.

6.2. Contributions of the study

Like other scientific researches, the present study is expected to add to the literature by providing empirical evidence on the practicality of the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction in developing students' reading comprehension in English. Additionally, this study's results are expected to supply techniques to increase students' strategy awareness that helps them to know how to use those strategies. The study also provides the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction to enhance students' motivation to read. Few studies have investigated the students' perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction. Thus, one of the purposes of the current research was to investigate Grade 11 students' perception of explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The students were interviewed to explain how explicit instruction affected their reading comprehension, strategy awareness, reading

motivation and their overall perception of the instruction. It was identified that metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction enhanced the students' reading comprehension and promoted their perception towards reading skills. The gap in this study is that the previous studies lack interventional reading strategies, which examine the difference between explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction and traditional way of teaching. The use of the CALLA approach differs from many of the studies on reading areas in that it integrates the treatment into the classroom and out of classroom reading strategy practices. This study, therefore, adds knowledge to the existing literature on the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on the reading skills acquisition, the area that remains inadequately examined when compared to the other studies in L2 reading. Part of this dissertation was also published in the *'Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education'* (*Volume 12, number22).* This also can be explained as one contribution of knowledge in the field of English language education.

6.3. Conclusions

Depending on the main findings of this study, the following conclusions regarding the effect of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on the students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and their perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction are made: Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that strategy explicit instruction had positive effect on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, $F(1,167)=704$, $P=.001$. ANCOVA was also run to see the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on students' strategy awareness. Accordingly, the finding indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the treatment and the comparison group in the strategy awareness, $F(1,167)=.246$, $P=0.001$. The study also indicated that the students who participated in the metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction increased their motivation to read score from ($M=2.55$, $SD=.43$) to ($M=3.31$, $SD=.12$, $F(1, 167)= 180.530$, $P=0.001$. The effect size was .519. In short, the three alternative hypotheses of this study are accepted, and those of the null hypotheses were rejected. The three alternative hypotheses of this study were: H1) 'there is a statistically significant difference in reading comprehension scores between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategies and those who are not'; H2) 'there is a statistically significant difference in the metacognitive reading strategy awareness between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those

who are not', and H3) 'there is a statistically significant difference in reading motivation scores between students who are explicitly taught metacognitive reading strategy and those who are not.'

The respondents of this study answered that they became aware of their improvement in their reading abilities because of the explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy. The analysis of the interview also supported the finding that the students in the treatment group were motivated to engage in further reading activities in their future learning. They also perceived the metacognitive reading strategy as useful to their general learning. According to Ruiz (2015), the students' engagement in reading is high when they are interested in reading texts.

6.4. Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and their perception of metacognitive reading strategy instruction at Ambo Preparatory School. Students participated in an eight-week after school program, where explicit instruction was used as a means of delivery. Most of the students liked to participate in after regular class learning rather than before regular class learning. Based on the findings of the study, recommendations were forwarded for different concerned bodies.

6.4.1. Recommendations for Future Practice

6.4.1.1. Recommendation for English Teachers

The 21st century market calls for high reading ability (Melot, 2010). However, our students join higher institutions without fully acquiring the skills required of them, especially reading skills. They do not have enough awareness of reading strategies to use in their reading activities. They approach reading texts in an unsystematic way. EFL teachers do not teach how to use reading strategies (Dawit, 2014). Therefore, teachers need to use different reading strategies to minimize their students' reading abilities, especially their reading strategy use.

A number of studies witnessed the effectiveness of metacognition reading strategy training as an efficient program to solve students' reading problems (see chapter two). The readers who do not like reading are students who lack metacognitive reading awareness (Joseph, 2010). The findings obtained from the interview revealed that explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy

increased students' perception of reading strategy explicit instruction. Based on the findings, EFL teachers should consider explicit reading strategy instruction, practicing and modeling of reading strategies, with more opportunities practicing extensively.

Another implication of the treatment is that the students who are effective in reading comprehension are also increasing their motivation to read. The students in the treatment group raised their consciousness in using reading strategies. Therefore, EFL teachers need to translate the findings of the current study to classroom reading strategy practice. In doing so, they may enrich the curriculum by allowing sufficient practice and positive reinforcement for strategy use. By doing this, the teachers need to (1) make reading strategy learning beyond teacher-talk; (2) model reading strategy use; (3) apply reading strategy use in real EFL activities and (4) use authentic and interesting reading texts.

Another implication of the findings of the current study is that the link between research and practice using the CALLA approach is now ready to be used at any level among Ethiopian students. This can help EFL teachers in developing confidence in how to instruct reading strategies rather than expecting students to develop reading skills by themselves.

6.4.1.2. Recommendation for Education Leaders and Curriculum Developers

The ability to read in English is at the highpoint among the skills that are necessary for this 21st century. A possible solution for insufficient readers is found in the metacognitive reading strategy instruction (Joseph, 2010). Joseph identified that one of the differences between good and weak readers is metacognitive reading strategy awareness. Therefore, education leaders should develop a reading instruction program, which educates the students to be strategic readers.

Secondary school students lack reading instruction as a formal part of the curriculum. This led them to face serious and growing challenges as they encounter complex texts in their future education (Kamil et al., 2008). Ronzano (2010) concluded that for the complex reading comprehension used in real-life situations to be attained by students, metacognition must become part of the school curriculum so that learners will have a toolbox of strategies from which to pull. It is thus important to provide preparatory school students a balanced curriculum that combines

explicit instruction in reading strategies and in specific reading comprehension strategies with a great deal of time and opportunity for the actual reading of a text (Edmonds et al., 2009).

6.4.1.3. Recommendations for Future Studies

There are areas that have not been adequately investigated, which needs further studies. In order to investigate the effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategies, the following recommendations are forwarded for concerned bodies:

Future study is required in many ways. Length of time for the intervention is an area that future research may consider. Extended time of intervention allows discovering long term effects of the metacognitive reading strategy. Therefore, the first recommendation is concerning the length of the instruction because this study was carried out for eight weeks, only three days a week, 50 minutes each day. The length of the intervention was only half a semester; it was not full year. For this result, the finding of the study may not be generalized with the intervention, which carried out one year. Therefore, another study may expose learners to instructional materials for long time. The study examined the effects of explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategy instruction on students' reading comprehension, strategy awareness reading motivation and perception. Future study may also examine other skills with students who have problems with early reading problems (struggling readers) by allowing more instruction times since these students further behind the other students. Secondly, this study did not measure the students' out of classroom reading performances. Therefore, another study may use multiple testing methods to measure the students out of classroom reading performances.

The third recommendation focuses on the use of different instructional models. This study filled gaps in the literature by providing clear intervention of the metacognitive reading strategy for secondary school students. 21st century reading instruction should be task-based where researches used intensive reading strategies instruction followed by survey questionnaires, with other instruments of data collections prior to and after the instruction. Inquiry-driven, comprise more partnership, stress on higher-order skills, which consists of direct metacognitive reading strategy instruction (Asselini, 1995) since traditional reading skills classroom teaching will not meet the next generation's needs. It should also be research-based. This study covered one model

of strategy instruction i.e. CALLA. However, combining different models may yield significant improvements in reading comprehension, strategy awareness, motivation and perception.

This study engaged students in after school time for strategy instruction. Future studies may use regular times or hours. Another reading strategy instruction may identify the students who need more support rather than choosing one section as the treatment group.

The participants of this study were restricted to Grade 11 students. The next research should include students of different grade levels. It is also reasonable to recommend that strategy intervention to a variety of environments can be generalized to more schools. For example, the next researches may consider special needs schools, ability levels (low, medium, or high ability levels), model schools, private schools, both rural and urban schools.

This study also investigated how the treatment group students felt about metacognitive reading strategy instruction. Future research may add more data gathering tools such as think-aloud protocol, interview, reading observation, questionnaires, diaries, journals, and strategy uses self-report to collect data about the students' perception of the instruction.

This study did not cover the reading strategies used by different groups of students. Therefore, future research may investigate different groups' strategy use by dividing the learners into high achievers, low achievers, males and females. The strategy use between male students and female students is a current issue. For instance, Poole (2005) found that there is no difference between males and females in strategy use whereas Mokthari and Sheorey's (2008) study reported that female students use reading strategy more frequently than males. When looking into the difference between males and females strategy use, Phakti (2003) found that there is no difference between males and females in cognitive reading strategy use, while male students used metacognitive reading strategy than female ones. To better understand the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on male and female students, future studies are needed to consider gender difference in reading comprehension, strategy awareness, reading motivation and students' perception of the instruction.

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Appendix A

Reading Comprehension Test (Reading passage)

JIMMA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Timed given, 1 hour

Dear respondents,

The purpose of this reading test is to collect data about the effects of metacognitive reading strategies on grade 11 students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness and motivation to read: The case of Ambo Preparatory School in 2018/2019 academic year. The study is very important to improve reading strategy in our country. Your answer will be kept secret and used for the purpose of this study. Therefore, your are kindly requested to read and answer the comprehension questions. The reading passages are adapted from online TOEFL reading comprehension practice. Doing this test depends on your voluntary. If you want to leave the test, you can leave it at any time. Do not write your name on the paper. Write only your code.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Instruction: Read the following passages and answer the comprehension questions that follow

PARAGRAPH 1

1) Bacteria are extremely small living things. While we measure our own sizes in inches or centimeters, bacterial size is measured in microns. One micron is a thousandth of a millimeter a pinhead is about a millimeter across. Rod shaped bacteria are usually from two to tour microns long, while rounded ones are generally one micron in diameter Thus if you enlarged a founded bacterium a thousand times, **it** would be just about the size of a pinhead. An adult human **magnified** by the same amount would be over a mile(1.6 kilometers) tall.

2) Even with an ordinary microscope, you must look **closely** to see bacteria. Using a magnification of 100 times, one finds that bacteria are barely visible as tiny rods or dots. One cannot make out anything of their structure. Using special stains, one can see that some bacteria have attached to them wavy - looking "hairs" called flagella. Others have only one flagellum. The flagella rotate, pushing the bacteria though the water. Many bacteria lack flagella and cannot move about by **their** own power while others can glide along over surfaces by some little understood mechanism.

3) From the bacterial point of view, the world is a very different place from what it is to humans. To a bacterium water is as thick as molasses is to us. Bacteria are so small that **they** are influenced by the movements of the chemical molecules around them. Bacteria under the microscope, even those with no flagella, often bounce about in the water. This is because they collide with the water molecules and are pushed this way and that. Molecules move so rapidly that within a tenth of a second the molecules around a bacterium have all been replaced by new ones even bacteria without flagella are thus constantly **exposed** to a changing environment.

Instruction I: Write true if the following statement is correct about the above passage and write false if the statement is wrong on the provided spaces (1 point each = 5%).

_____1. We measure bacteria’s size in centimeter

_____2.Flagella looks like a tiny rods or dots.

_____3. All of the bacteria have flagella.

_____4. Bacteria are as thick as molasses is to humans.

_____5. There is only one type of bacteria.

Instruction II: Choose the best answer for the following questions and circle your answer (1 point each = 6%)

6.Which of the following is the main topic of the passage?

(A) The characteristics of bacteria (B) How bacteria reproduce

(C) The various functions of bacteria (A) How bacteria contribute to disease

7. Bacteria are measured in (A) inches (B) centimeters (C) microns (D) millimeters

8.Which of the following is the smallest?

(A) A pinhead (B) A rounded bacterium

(C) A microscope (D) A rod-shaped bacterium

9.According to the passage, someone who examines bacteria using only a microscope that magnifies 100 times would see (A) tiny dots (B) small "hairs" (C) large rods (D) detailed structures

10.The relationship between a bacterium and its flagella is most nearly analogous to which of the following?

(A) A rider jumping on a horse's back (B) A ball being hit by a bat

(C) A boat powered by a motor (D) A door closed by a gust of wind

11**.** In line 16, the author compares water to molasses, in order to introduce which of the following topics?

(A) The bacterial content of different liquids

(B) What happens when bacteria are added to molasses

(C) The molecular structures of different chemicals

(D) How difficult it is for bacteria to move through water

Instruction III (A): Gap filling questions

The following words are taken from the above reading passage. Find their contextual meaning in the texts

12. it… in paragraph 1, line 5 refers to _____

A) Micron B) centimeter C) bacterium D) size

13. …**magnified**… in paragraph 1, line 6 refers to_____

A) understated B) exaggerated C) small size D) medium size

14. …. Closely… in the paragraph 1, line A) getting near B) carefully C) watchfully D) all can be answer

15...t**heir**..in paragraph 2, line 6 refers to _____

A) all types of bacteria B) flagella C) microscope D) organism

16.**they** …. In paragraph 3, line 2 refers to __ A) Bacteria B) molecules C) human D) microscope

17.… **exposed**… paragraph 3, line 7 refers to _____

A)cover something B) allow something seen C) reveal something D) B and C are correct

Instruction III(B) (gap filling questions): Give short answer based on the question for the following three questions (one point each question)

18. Bacteria is measured in _____.

19. Rod shaped bacteria are usually _____long.

20. Rounded bacteria are generally _____long.

PARAGRAPH 2

The following second reading passage is also taken from TOEFL online reading comprehension practice for free. Read them again carefully and answer the comprehension questions that follows

1) Insects' lives are very short and they have many enemies, but they must survive long enough to breed and perpetuate their kind. The less insect-like they look, the better their

chance of survival. To look "inedible" by resembling or imitating plants is a deception widely practiced by insects. Mammals rarely use this type of camouflage, but many fish and invertebrates do.

2) The stick caterpillar is well named. It is hardly distinguishable from a brown or green twig. This caterpillar is quite common and can be found almost anywhere in North America. It is also called "measuring worm" or "inchworm." It walks by arching its body, than stretching out and grasping the branch with its front feet then looping its body again to bring the hind feet forward. When danger threatens, the stick caterpillar stretches its body away from the branch at an angle and remains rigid and still, like a twig, until the danger has passed.

3) Walking sticks, or stick insects, do not have to assume a rigid, twig-like pose to find protection; they look like inedible twigs in any position. There are many kinds of walking sticks, ranging in size form the few inches of the North American variety to some tropical species that may be over a foot long. When at rest their front legs are stretched out. heightening their camouflage. Some of the tropical species are adorned with spines or ridges. imitating the thorny bushes or trees in which they live.

4) Leaves also seem to be a favorite object for insects to imitate. Many butterflies can suddenly disappear from view by folding their wings and sitting quietly among the foliage that they resemble.

Answer the following comprehension questions. Choose your answer and circle it

21.What is the main subject of the passage?

(A) Caterpillars that live in trees (C) How some insects camouflage themselves

(B) The feeding habits of insects (D) Insects that are threatened with extinction

22. In lines I and 4, the word "enemies" refers to

(A) other creatures competing for space (C) creatures that eat insects

(B) extreme weather conditions(D) inedible insects

23. According to the passage, how does the stick caterpillar make itself look like a twig?

(A) By holding its body stiff and motionless (C) By changing the color of its skin

(B) By looping itself around a stick (D) By laying its body flat against a branch

24.Which of the following is true of stick insects?

(A) They resemble their surroundings all the time. (C) They are camouflaged only when walking.

(B) They make themselves look like other insects. (D) They change color to make themselves in visible.

25.Which of the following are NOT mentioned in the passage as objects that are imitated as a means of protection?(A) Thorns (B) Flowers (C) Leaves (D) Sticks

26.In which paragraph does the author describe the way in which stick caterpillars move?

(A) Paragraph one (C) Paragraph three B) Paragraph two(D) Paragraph four

27.Where in the passage does the author describe the habitat of tropical stick insects?

(A) Line 7(B) Lines 10-11(C) Lines 13-15(D) Lines 16-17

Appendix B

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness Inventory

Jimma University

College of Social Sciences and Humanities

Department of English Language and Literature

PhD in TEFL

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI)

(Adopted from Mokhtari & Reichard (2005, 2006, 2007)

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of training metacognitive reading strategies on grade 11 EFL students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategies and reading motivation at Ambo Preparatory School. Therefore, your genuine response for these questionnaires help to achieve the purpose of the study.

Directions: Five numbers follow each statement (1, 2, 3, 4, 5). The statements are about what you do when you read academic or school related materials such as textbooks, library books etc. Each number means the following:

1 - means 'I **never or almost never** do this.'
2 - means 'I do this **only occasionally.'**
3 - means 'I **sometimes** do this.' (About **50%** of the time.)
4 - means 'I **usually** do this.'
5 - means 'I **always or almost always** do this.'

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that applies to you using the scale provided. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers to the statements in this inventory.

TYPE	STRATEGIES	SCALE

GLOB	1. I have a purpose in mind when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	4. I preview the text to see what it's about before reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	6. I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	8. I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 9	9. I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	12. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	13. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	14. I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	15. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	16. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	17. I use tables, figures and pictures in text to increase my	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	18. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	19. I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	20. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	21. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read	1	2	3	4	5

GLOB	22. I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	23. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	24. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	25. I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	26. I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	27. When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	28. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	29. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	30. I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	1	2	3	4	5

Reference: Mokhtari, K., & Reichard, C. (2002). Assessing students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94 (2), 249-259.

Appendix C

Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)

Jimma University

College of Social Sciences and Humanities

Department of English Language and Literature

PhD in TEFL

Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)

Dear respondents,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on the effects of metacognitive reading strategy instruction on grade 11 students' motivation to read. You are kindly requested to answer them. Your answer will have great contribution on reading strategy instruction in Ethiopia. The statement tell you how you feel about reading. Read each statements and decide whether it talks about a person who is like you or different from you. There are no right or wrong answers. I only want to know how you feel about reading. For many of the statements, you should think about the kinds of things you read in your class.

1=very different from me

2= a little different like me

3= a little like me

4= a lot like me

If the statement is **very different from you**, what should you circle?

If the statement is **a little different from you**, what should you circle?

If the statement is **a little like you,** what should you circle?

If the statement is **a lot like you**, what should you circle?

When you give your answers, you should think about the things you are reading in your class. There are no right or wrong answers; I just are interested in your ideas about reading. To give your answer, circle one number on each line. The answer lines are right under each statement.

Thank you for your cooperation!

No	STRATEGIES (11 constructs)	1	2	3	4
1	I don't know that I will do well in reading next year				
2	I am a good reader				
3	I learn more from reading than most students in the class				
4	I like hard, challenging books				
5	If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material				
6	I like it when the questions in books make me think				
7	I usually learn difficult things by reading				
8	If a book is interesting I don't care how hard it is to read				
9	If the teacher discusses something interesting, I might read more				
10	I have favorite subjects that I like to read about				
11	I read to learn new information about topics that interest me				
12	I read about my hobbies to learn more about them				
13	I like to read about new things				
14	I enjoy reading books about living things				
15	I like mysteries				
16	I make pictures in my mind when I read				
17	I feel like I make friends with people in good books				
18	I read a lot of adventure stories				
19	I enjoy a long, involved story or fiction book				
20	It is very important to me to be a good reader				
21	In comparison to other activities I do, it is very important to me to be				
22	I don't like vocabulary questions				
23	Complicated stories are no fun to read				
24	I don't like reading something when the words are too difficult				
25	I try to get more answers right than my friends				
26	I like being the best at reading				

27	I like to finish my reading before other students				
28	I like being the only one who knows an answer in something we read				
29	It is important for me to see my name on a list of good readers				
30	I am willing to work hard to read better than my friends				
31	I like having the teacher say I read well				
32	My friends sometimes tell me I am a good reader				
33	I like to get compliments for my reading				
34	I am happy when someone recognizes my reading				
35	My parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading				
36	Grades are a good way to see how well you are doing in reading				
37	I look forward to finding out my reading grades				
38	I read to improve my grades				
39	My parents ask me about my reading grade				
40	I visit the library often with my family				
41	I often read to my brother or my sister				
42	My friends and I like to trade things to read				
43	I sometimes read to my parents				
44	I talk to my friends about what I am reading				
45	I like to help my friends with their schoolwork in reading				
46	I like to tell my family about what I am reading				
47	I do as little schoolwork as possible in reading				
48	I read because I have to				
49	I always do my reading work exactly as the teacher wants it				
50	Finishing every reading assignment is very important to me				
51	I always try to finish my reading on time				

Appendix D

Interview Questions for Students

JIMMA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

POSTGRADUATE PROGRAME (PhD in TEFL)

Dear respondents,

The purpose of this interview is to gather information about the effects of metacognitive reading strategies on the students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness and motivation to read in English. In addition to written questionnaires, this face-to-face interview helps the researcher to understand in depth your experiences of the implementation of metacognitive reading strategy. This is why interview is going on after the treatment. You can use your mother tongue in responding to the interview. There is no right or wrong answer to the interview questions as I tried to mention in the consent.

Thank your willing to participate in the interview!

1. How do you perceive the metacognitive reading strategy instruction?

2. Do you think the metacognitive reading strategy instruction improved your reading comprehension? How?

3. How could you describe the trainer (teacher)?

4. Do you think you can improve your grade after the metacognitive reading strategies? Can you apply those reading strategies to new reading contexts to their own or independent reading?

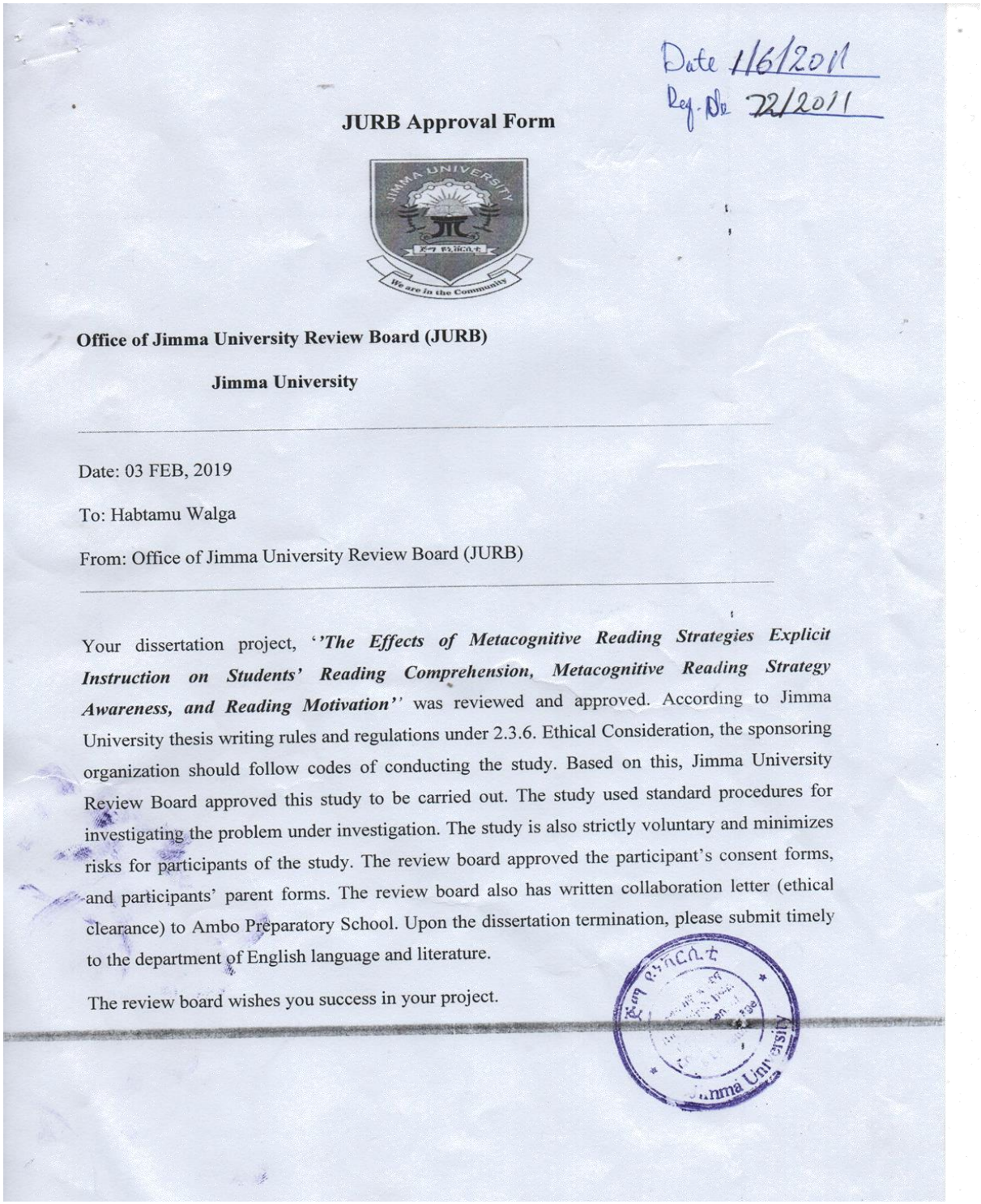
5. Do you think the metacognitive reading strategies are useful? Why? Which part (s) of instruction do you like most? Why?

6. Do you metacognitive reading strategy instruction will help you in your future reading tasks?

7. Could you able to apply the strategies you learnt to other reading situations?

Appendix E

JURB Approval Form



Date 1/6/2011
Ref. No 72/2011

JURB Approval Form

Office of Jimma University Review Board (JURB)

Jimma University

Date: 03 FEB, 2019

To: Habtamu Walga

From: Office of Jimma University Review Board (JURB)

Your dissertation project, ***''The Effects of Metacognitive Reading Strategies Explicit Instruction on Students' Reading Comprehension, Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness, and Reading Motivation''*** was reviewed and approved. According to Jimma University thesis writing rules and regulations under 2.3.6. Ethical Consideration, the sponsoring organization should follow codes of conducting the study. Based on this, Jimma University Review Board approved this study to be carried out. The study used standard procedures for investigating the problem under investigation. The study is also strictly voluntary and minimizes risks for participants of the study. The review board approved the participant's consent forms, and participants' parent forms. The review board also has written collaboration letter (ethical clearance) to Ambo Preparatory School. Upon the dissertation termination, please submit timely to the department of English language and literature.

The review board wishes you success in your project.

Appendix F

Consent Form and Invitation Letter for Students

Invitation letter

Dear participants,

My name is Habtamu Walga. I am conducting a research titled ''**The Effects of Metacognitive Reading Strategies on Grade 11 Students' Reading Comprehension, Metacognitive Reading Strategy awareness, and reading motivation**''. This research is my doctoral dissertation study at Jimma University. The findings of the study will be helpful for EFL training in Ethiopia.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. Your withdrawal in any means will not affect your grade points in any subject. Nobody knows your answers for each questions except the researcher. Your responses will be kept confidential. The code used instead of using your name is to ensure anonymity.

Indicate the following (use √ in front of yes I agree), andif you are no agree to participate indicate the mark in front of the no I do not agree, and if you agree, read the consent form on the next page.

Yes, I agree to participate in the study.

No, I do not agree to participate in the study.

Your code: _____ Signature_____ Date _____

Consent of participation in the study

Aim of the study

You are requested to take part in this study conducted by Habtamu Walga from Jimma University School of Graduate Studies of Social Science and Humanities. This dissertation is designed to instruct metacognitive reading strategies to enhance grade 11 students' reading skills.

Procedures of participating in the study

The researcher of this study request you to do the following things:

1. Participate in metacognitive reading strategies for 16 week, 50 minutes a day, 100 a week, classroom intensive practice of the strategies.

2. Fill two survey questionnaires about the training.

3. Participate in interview, with audio recording

Participant benefit

Your participation in strategy instruction is helpful for you to learn more about the metacognitive reading strategies for your career development after your school.

Privacy/confidentiality

The information gathered for the study will be used only for the purpose of this study.

Taking part or refusing participating

Taking part in this study is completely based on your voluntary. If you get bored of participating in the study, you may withdraw at any time without any punishment.

Contact

The researcher of this study, Mr. Habtamu Walga can be contacted via 09-20-23-15-13, and duressaw@gmail.com. He is located at Ambo University main campus in the Department of English Language and Literature.

Appendix G

The study action plan for Metacognitive Reading Strategy Explicit Instruction

The training manuals were classified into three rounds. The first round was on the global reading strategies, which took three weeks and two days training. These strategies consisted eleven types of strategies. Out of this, using text structure consisted of other sub-strategies such as finding main idea, finding details, finding linking words and finding conclusion. In addition to this, using contextual clues also consisted of seven sub-reading strategies. These are: word parts, definition, synonyms, examples, antonyms, punctuation marks and parts of speech. Therefore, global reading strategy has many reading strategies.

The second metacognitive reading strategy was problem solving reading strategies, which lasted two weeks and two days reading strategy instruction. These strategies contained six types of reading strategies: 1) reading slowly, carefully and adjusting reading rate, 2) paying close attention to reading, 3) pausing to reflect on reading, 4) rereading, 5) visualizing information read and 6) guessing meaning of unknown words. The last metacognitive reading strategy included in the training was supportive reading strategies, which consist of eight types of strategies. Supportive reading strategies took two weeks and two days, three times a week strategy intervention. In general, the metacognitive reading strategy intervention in the three modules took two months and 1 day, three times a week (Monday, Wednesday and Friday) interventions. Accordingly, twenty-five days were assigned to accomplish the instruction. The instruction started on January 13, 2020; ended on March 09, 2020.

R.No	**Orientation and pre-test administration**	**Date**	**Week**	**Time**
1.	Orientation and pre-test administration			
1.1	Orientation was given	Jan, 08/2020		8:30-11:30
1.2	Pre-test of RCT was given to both groups	Jan, 09/2020		8:30-3:30
1.3	Pre-test of MARSI and MRQs were given to groups	Jan, 10/2020		8:30-3:30
2	**1. Global reading strategies, which took 3 weeks and 2 days training**	**Date**	**Week**	**Time**
2.1	Setting purpose	Jan, 13/2020	W-1	3-4:00pm
2.2	Activating prior knowledge	Jan, 15/2020		3-4:00pm
2.3	Predicting what text is about	Jan, 17/2020		3-4:00pm

2.4	Previewing text for content	Jan, 20/2020		3-4:00pm
2.5	Skimming and scanning	Jan, 22/2020	W-2	3-4:00pm
3	**Using context clues**			
3.1	word parts	Jan, 24/20		3-4:00pm
3.2	Definition	Jan, 27/2020		3-4:00pm
3.3	Synonyms	Jan, 29/2020	W-3	3-4:00pm
3.4	Examples			
3.5	Antonyms			
3.6	punctuation marks	Jan, 31/2020		3-4:00pm
3.7	parts of speech	Feb, 03/2020		3-4:00pm
4	Using text structure		W-4	
4.1	Finding main idea, details, linking words and conclusion	Feb, 05/2020		3-4:00pm
5.	**Problem solving reading strategies, which lasted 2 weeks reading strategy instruction**	**Date**		**Time**
5.1	reading slowly and carefully, adjusting reading rate	Feb, 07/2020		3-4:00pm
5.2	paying close attention to reading	Feb, 10/2020	W-5	3-4:00pm
5.3	pausing to reflect on reading	Feb, 12/2020		3-4:00pm
5.4	Rereading	Feb, 14/2020		3-4:00pm
5.5	visualizing information read	Feb, 17/2020	W-6	3-4:00pm
5.6	guessing meaning of unknown words	Feb,19/2020		3-4:00pm
6.	**Supportive reading strategies, which consist of eight types of strategies (took 2 weeks and 2 days strategy intervention)**	**Date**		**Time**
6.1	Asking self-questions	Feb, 21/2020		3-4:00pm
6.2	Taking notes while reading	Feb, 24/2020	W-7	3-4:00pm
6.3	Underlining text information	Feb,26/2020		3-4:00pm
6.4	Paraphrasing text information	Feb,28/2020		3-4:00pm
6.5	Discussing reading with others	Marh,02/2020	W-8	3-4:00pm
6.6	Writing summaries of reading	March,4/2020		3-4:00pm
6.7	Using reference materials as aid	March,6/2020	W-13	3-4:00pm
6.8	Revisiting previously read information	March,9/2020		3-4:00pm
7.	**Administration of post-tests**	**Date**	**Week**	**Time**
7.1	Post-test of RCT was given to both groups	March,11/2020		9-10:00am
7.2	Post-test of MARSI and MRQs were given to both groups	March,13/2020		**9-10:00am**
7.3	Interview was conducted with treatment group	March,13/2020		4-5: 30pm

Where W=week, RCT=Reading Comprehension Test, MARSI=Metacognitive Reading Strategy Inventory, MRQ=Motivation to Read Questionnaires NB: Time is Gregorian

Appendix H

Lesson Plan Format

Name of teacher:_____name of school:____Minute**:**_____
Type of Reading Strategy:_____Topic: _____

Objective of the lesson: At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to:

_____
_____
_____

Stages of Lesson	**Time**	**Contents of strategy**	**Teacher's activities**	**Students' activities**	**Aids**	**Interaction**
Preparation phase						
Presentation phase						
Practice phase						

Self- evaluation phase						
Expansion phase						
Assessment						

Researcher's name:_____signature:_____date: _____

Teacher's name:_____signature:_____date:_____

Director's name:_____signature:_____date: _____

Appendix I

Strategy Instruction Aid (Strategy Evaluation Matrix)

Strategy instruction aid (strategy evaluation matrix) is the description of each strategy, how to use, when to use, and why to use the strategy. The strategy's name and its definition, how the strategy is used, the context in which the strategy is used are explained in the matrix.

Strategy Instruction Aid (Strategy Evaluation Matrix)

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Name	**How To Use**	**When To Use**	**Why To Use**
predicting/ Verifying	• Thinking ahead while reading and anticipating information and events in the text. • After making read through the text and refine, revise and verify the predictions.	Prior to reading	Actively engages readers and connects them to the text by asking them what they think might occur in the story.
Previewing	• Search for headings, highlighted words, previews, summaries	• Prior to reading an extending text	• Provides conceptual overview, help to focus one's attention.
Using Background Knowledge	Pause and think about what you already know. Ask what you don't know.	• Prior and during reading or performing an unfamiliar task	• Makes information easy to learn and remember and allows you to see links between subjects. Information is less daunting if you already know something about the topic
Self-Questioning	• Identifying cues from information heard or read. • Ask who, what, when, where, which and why	• It is used before, during and after reading texts.	Helps with questioning, predicting, confirming, correcting and reconciling information

Scanning	It is sweeping your eyes over part of a text to find specific pieces of information	to quickly locate specific information from a large quantity of written material	When you find specific ideas in the texts
Skimming	quickly running eyes over the text to gain overall understanding of the text	When you find main ideas of text	It allows you to pick up some of the main ideas without paying attention to detail. It is a fast process. A single chapter should take only a few minutes
Determining the Purpose of Reading	• Set a purpose for reading informational text by turning the title and subtitles into questions.	Before reading	To increase knowledge about a topic by linking new information to that already known
Slow down or reread	Stop, read and think about information	When information seems important. If you realize you don't understand what you have just read.	Improves your focus on important information.
Using context clues	It is the ability to infer the meaning of an expression using contextual clues like linguistic or situational.	The use of word parts, definitions, examples, synonyms, antonyms, comparison, own experience, punctuations,	figure out new words is to use context clues. The context is the words, sentences and ideas that come before and after a word or phrase
Use of text structures	to identify different organizational patterns and find easily information in systematic way	The use of text structure to predict what they are about to read, comprehend/understand text, observe the way the author has organized the text, look for key words and concepts	This strategy helps students understand that a text might present a main idea and details, a cause and then its effects and/or different views of a topic
Note-taking	Take notes on main ides using abbreviation, lists, symbols	Write down key words, concepts using numbers, symbols, abbreviation, graphics	Write down key concepts to understand main idea easily

Questioning	Using questioning words to ask questions	When to clarify concepts or information	The use of questioning to get verification fromexperts (e.g. teacher,classmates…)
Connecting	Relate main ideas to one another. Look for themes that connect the main ideas, or a conclusion	When thinking about complex information, when deep understanding is needed.	Once you know how ideas are related they are easier to remember than learning as if they are separate facts. Also helps to understand them more deeply
Making inferences	The use of information in the texts to guess meaning of mew items or predicting what will happen in the text	Use of context clues to guess the meaning of texts	Making inferences to guess meaning of mew items or predicting what will happen in the text
Visualization	Making a picture in mind	Creating image of ideas in the mind	Using mental pictures to comprehend texts
Summarizing	Connecting important ideas to each other and using text to support comments/judgments.	During and after Reading	Synthesizing information facilitates comprehension.
Discussing reading with others	Reading and discussing with each other or with teacher	Working with classmates to complete reading tasks	To learn from each others

Adapted from Schraw, G. (1998).Promoting general metacognitive awareness.

Instructional Science, 26, (1 & 2), 113-125.

Appendix J

Strategy Use Monitor Checklist Planning

Planning

1. What is the nature of the task?

2. What is my goal?

3. What kind of information and strategies do I need?

Monitoring

4. Do I have a clear understanding of what I am doing?
5. Does the task make sense?
6. Am I reaching my goals?
7. Do I need to make changes?

Evaluating

8. Have I reached my goal?
9. What strategy did you learn successfully?
10. What strategy did you learn unsuccessful?
11. What factors hinder you not to fully understand the strategy?
12. Would I do things differently?
13. Please, write difficulties you faced in strategy use
14. Do you think you can reading and comprehend texts in English afterward? Yes no
15. Write the types of mistakes you made in your strategy transfer?
16. Did you successfully attended all the strategy instruction? Yes no

Adapted from Schraw, G. (1998).Promoting general metacognitive awareness. Instructional Science, 26, (1 &2), 113-125.

Appendix K

Commenting data gathering instruments guidelines

JIMMA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Data gathering instruments guidelines

Dear respondents, the following questions are guidelines for commenting on questionnaires after you fill them, which help the researcher to revise them. Depending on the questionnaires, answer them.

Thank you in advance!

1. Do you understand all the questions?

2. Which question do you find difficult to understand?

3. Which question do you find difficult to answer?

4. How long does it take you to complete the questionnaire?

5. What comments do you have about the content of the questionnaire?

6. Do you have any other comments about the questionnaire?

Appendix L

Sample Flesch Reading Ease

Readability level of the reading texts

According to the '*Flesch Reading Ease'* software readability check, both of the reading passages readability level was **'fairly difficult to read'**. This readability formula uses two measures. Firstly, it measures average number of words in a sentence. Lastly, it measures the number of syllables per words. Accordingly, the results were put according to the following:

No	**Scores**	**difficulty levels**	**Grade levels**
1	90-100	Very easy	5th to 7th students
2	80-90	Easy	
3	70-80	Fairly easy	
4	60-70	Normal	8th to 9th students
5	***50-60***	***Fairly difficult***	***10th to 12th***
6	30-50	difficult	
7	0-30	Very difficult	College students

Word Statistics of the first reading passage (Characteristics of Bacteria)

Reading Level: **fairly difficult to read**.

Grade level: 11th to 12th

Total # of words: **302**

Total # of unique words: **171** (57% of total text)

Total # of repeat words: **131** (43% of total text)

Average # of words per sentence: **16**

Total # of sentences: **19**

Total # of characters: **1421**

Average # of characters per word: **4.7**

Average # of syllables per word:**2**

Total syllables in text: **500**

Total # of words with double syllables: **61**

Percent of double syllables in text: **20%**

Total # of words with single syllables: **192**

Percent of single syllables in text: **64%**

Percent of 3+ syllables in text: **16%**

Total # of words with 3+ syllables: **49**

Word Statistics of the second reading passage (Lives of Insects)

Reading Level: **fairly difficult to read**.

Grade level: 11^{th} to 12^{th}

Total # of words: **280**

Total # of unique words: **172** (61% of total text)

Total # of repeat words: **108** (39% of total text)

Average # of words per sentence: **16**

Total # of sentences: **18**

Total # of characters: **1313**

Average # of characters per word: **4.7**

Average # of syllables per word:**1**

Total syllables in text: **437**

Total # of words with double syllables: **58**

Percent of double syllables in text: **21%**

Total # of words with single syllables: **191**

Percent of single syllables in text: **68%**

Percent of 3+ syllables in text: **11%**

Total # of words with 3+ syllables: **31**

Appendix M

Teacher's Teaching of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Checklist

R.No	Items	Scale			
		Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
A	**How understandable of teacher's speech**				
1	My speech is clear and understandable				
2	My speaking is normal (neither fast nor slow)				
3	My speaking is normal (neither loud nor soft)				
4	My tone of voice warm and engaged				
5	I explain new vocabularies through definition				
6	I explain ideas clearly				
7	I stop or pause when necessary				
8	I avoided clichés and taboo words				
B	**How I give feedback and information**				
9	I am knowledgeable about my lesson				
10	I create positive climate in during my lesson				
11	I organize my lesson in logical order				
12	I explain or give feedback as my students need				
13	I provide auditory contexts and visual when necessary during my presentation of lesson				
14	I give chance to my students to respond certain information instead of responding directly				
C	**How I organize my classroom**				
15	I hold attentions of all of the students during my strategy instruction				
16	I give clear instruction for the students during pair, group or whole class work				
17	I provide meaningful task during pair, group or whole class work				
18	I monitor class work to ensure cooperative learning				

Appendix N

Reading Strategy Treatment Truthfulness Checklist

Observing strategy instruction: Treatment Truthfulness Checklist

Teacher:_____ Observer: ____

Date:_____/_____/_____ Day Time: _____month_____year_____

Number of students:_____

Type of Reading Strategy:_____: _____

Instruction: place a tick mark in the given column during the strategy instruction for the actions observed. Write 'x' mark if the action does not apply in the lesson.

Actions	**Strategy instruction**	**Observed**	**Do not observed**
1	Introduced concepts, discussed the strategy		
2	Set goals for reading		
3	Teacher discuss and analyze strategy and give feedback		
4	Use metacognitive reading strategy development methods (planning, monitoring, evaluating and checking)		
5	Teacher encourage the students' independent strategy out of the classroom instruction		

6. Other points observed:

_____

_____

7. Strengthen of the instruction:

_____

8. Points need to be improved for the next class:

_____

Appendix M

Approval Letter from Guder Preparatory School

Date: Oct 11, 2020

To: Jimma University, College Of Social Science and Humanities Department of English Language and Literature

From: Guder Preparatory School

This is to confirm you that Habtamu Walga Adaba conducted his thesis on the effects of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction on grade 11 students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction in our school. He carried out this study from February 24, 2019 to June 06, 2019.

Regards

Appendix O Approval Letter from Ambo Preparatory School

Date: Oct 08, 2020

To Jimma University Postgraduate Studies

This is to ensure that HabtamuWalgaAdaba conducted his thesis on the Effects of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Explicit Instruction on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy awareness, reading motivation and perception of metacognitive reading strategy explicit instruction in our school. He carried out this study from January13, 2020 to March 09, 2020.

Regards

Hayiluu Dastaa WTsaadiiq
ሀይሉ ደስታ ወ/ሳዲቅ
Itti Gaafi/Mana Barumsaa
የትብብር ርዕሰ መምህር