

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|-----|
| DECLARATION | i |
| DEDICATION | ii |
| ACKNOWLEDGMENTS | iii |
| ABSTRACT | iv |
| LIST OF TABLES | ix |
| LIST OF FIGURES | x |
| ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS | xi |
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY | 1 |
| 1.1 INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| 1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY..... | 1 |
| 1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT | 3 |
| 1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY..... | 4 |
| 1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY | 4 |
| 1.6 RESEARCH QUESTION..... | 5 |
| 1.6.1 Specific Research Questions..... | 5 |
| 1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES | 5 |
| 1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY | 6 |
| 1.9 METHODOLOGY | 6 |
| 1.10 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY..... | 7 |
| 1.11 SCOPE OF THE STUDY..... | 8 |
| 1.12 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS | 9 |
| 1.13 ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION..... | 10 |
| 1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY | 10 |
| CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE | 12 |
| 2.1 INTRODUCTION..... | 12 |
| 2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK..... | 12 |
| 2.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF READING | 16 |
| 2.4 MODELS OF READING PROCESS IN SECOND LANGUAGE..... | 17 |
| 2.4.1 Bottom-up Reading Model | 17 |
| 2.4.2 Top-down Reading Model..... | 18 |
| 2.4.3 Interactive Reading Model | 19 |
| 2.5 READING DIFFICULTY | 20 |
| 2.5.1 Difficulties with Decoding..... | 20 |
| 2.5.2 Difficulties with Reading Rate and Reading Fluency | 20 |
| 2.5.3 Difficulties with Comprehension..... | 21 |
| 2.6 CAUSES OF READING DIFFICULTIES..... | 21 |
| 2.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS WITH READING DIFFICULTIES | 24 |
| 2.8 LEARNING TO READ | 26 |
| 2.9 RESEARCH CONDUCTED ON READING | 27 |
| 2.9.1 Evaluation of the Previous Studies | 29 |
| 2.9.2 Implications of the Previous Research for the Current Study | 30 |
| 2.10 COGNITIVE FOUNDATIONS OF LEARNING TO READ (CFLR)..... | 31 |
| 2.10.1 Language Comprehension | 35 |
| 2.10.1.1 Linguistic knowledge..... | 35 |
| 2.10.1.2 Background knowledge..... | 36 |
| 2.10.2 Decoding | 36 |
| 2.10.2.1 Cipher knowledge | 36 |
| 2.10.2.2 Lexical knowledge | 37 |
| 2.10.2.3 The basis of cipher and lexical knowledge | 37 |
| 2.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY | 39 |

| | |
|--|----|
| CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY | 40 |
| 3.1 INTRODUCTION | 40 |
| 3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM | 41 |
| 3.2.1 The Positivist Research Paradigm | 41 |
| 3.2.2 Constructivist Research Paradigm | 42 |
| 3.2.3 Pragmatism Research Paradigm | 43 |
| 3.3 DESIGN OF THE STUDY | 44 |
| 3.3.1 Quantitative Part | 45 |
| 3.3.2 Qualitative Part | 48 |
| 3.4 STUDY AREA | 49 |
| 3.5 SAMPLES AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE | 49 |
| 3.5.1 The Population of the Study | 50 |
| 3.5.2 Samples and Sampling Technique | 52 |
| 3.5.2.1 Quantitative part | 52 |
| 3.5.2.2 Qualitative Part | 53 |
| 3.6 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION | 53 |
| 3.6.1 Pre-test and Post-test (Reading Achievement Test) | 53 |
| 3.6.2 Questionnaires | 55 |
| 3.6.3 Classroom Observations | 55 |
| 3.6.4 Semi-Structured Interviews | 56 |
| 3.6.5 Intervention | 56 |
| 3.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS | 57 |
| 3.7.1. Quantitative Data Analysis | 57 |
| 3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis | 57 |
| 3.7.2.1 Data of classroom observations | 57 |
| 3.7.2.2 Semi-structured interviews | 58 |
| 3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS | 58 |
| 3.9 PILOT STUDY | 60 |
| 3.9.1 Result of the Pilot Study | 60 |
| 3.9.2 The Results of the Pilot Study | 61 |
| 3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY | 62 |
| CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS | 63 |
| 4.1 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS | 63 |
| 4.1.1 Introduction | 63 |
| 4.1.2 Demographic Details of Participants | 64 |
| 4.1.2.1 Gender distribution of the samples | 64 |
| 4.1.2.2 Age distribution of the samples | 65 |
| 4.1.2.3 Parentage background of the learners | 67 |
| 4.1.2.4 Education of parents | 69 |
| 4.1.2.5 Employment Status of Parents | 70 |
| 4.1.2.6 Learners' access to books, computer, time and motivation at home and presence of reading difficulty | 71 |
| 4.1.2.7 Conclusion on the analysis of participants' demographic data | 76 |
| 4.1.2.8 Schools and Teachers Profiles | 77 |
| 4.1.3 Result from Achievement Test | 78 |
| 4.1.3.1 Levene's test for homogeneity of variance | 78 |
| 4.1.3.2 The homogeneity of regression assumption | 79 |
| 4.1.3.3 Analysis of learners' performance by pre-test and post-test scores | 80 |
| 4.1.3.4 Classification of participants performance by score | 82 |
| 4.1.3.5 Areas of learners' challenges | 84 |
| 4.1.3.6 Conclusion | 84 |
| 4.2 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS | 85 |
| 4.2.1 Introduction | 85 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 4.2.2 Learners' Participation during the Implementation of CFLR | 86 |
| 4.2.3. Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) Lesson | 87 |
| 4.3 LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION | 90 |
| 4.3.1 Linguistic Knowledge (Phonology, Morphology and Syntax) | 90 |
| 4.3.2 Knowledge of the Alphabetic Principle | 93 |
| 4.3.3 Morphemes | 94 |
| 4.3.4 Syntax | 95 |
| 4.3.5 Background knowledge (Schema) | 99 |
| 4.3.6 Decoding | 101 |
| 4.3.6.1 Cipher knowledge | 101 |
| 4.3.6.2 Lexical knowledge | 101 |
| 4.3.6.3 Letter knowledge | 104 |
| 4.4 RESULTS FROM SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS | 104 |
| 4.4.1 Addressing Study Objective 3 | 105 |
| 4.4.1.1 Theme 1: The essence of reading | 106 |
| 4.4.1.2 Theme 2: The effect of reading difficulty | 107 |
| 4.4.1.3 Theme 3: The instructional approach used by teachers | 108 |
| 4.4.1.4 Theme 4: The implementation of cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) | 111 |
| 4.4.2 Addressing Study Objective 2 | 113 |
| 4.4.3 Analysis of the Themes of Learners' Interviews | 115 |
| 4.4.3.1 View of learners from control schools | 116 |
| 4.4.3.2 View of learners from experimental schools | 117 |
| 4.4.4 Analysis of The Themes of Parents' Interview | 119 |
| 4.4.4.1 View of parents from control schools | 120 |
| 4.4.4.2 Views of parents from experimental schools | 121 |
| 4.4.5 Classroom Observation | 122 |
| 4.2.5.1 Observations of teachers | 123 |
| 4.2.5.2 Observations on learners | 124 |
| 4.4.6 Conclusion | 125 |
| 4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY | 125 |
| CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION | 127 |
| 5.1 INTRODUCTION | 127 |
| 5.2 DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY IN TERMS OF STUDY'S OBJECTIVES | 127 |
| 5.2.1 Research Objective 1 | 127 |
| 5.2.2 Research Objective 2 | 130 |
| 5.2.2.1 Learners' diversity | 130 |
| 5.2.2.2 Large classroom size | 138 |
| 5.2.2.3 Learners' psychological issues | 140 |
| 5.2.3 Research Objective 3 | 143 |
| 5.2.3.1 Learners' motivation | 143 |
| 5.2.3.2 Learners' familiarity with English language | 150 |
| 5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY RESULTS | 150 |
| 5.3.1 Epistemological Implications | 150 |
| 5.3.2 Pedagogical Implications | 150 |
| 5.4 MODEL OF READING INSTRUCTION DEVELOPED BY THE RESEARCHER | 151 |
| 5.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY PREDICTORS OF GOOD READING SKILL | 154 |
| 5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY | 155 |
| CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS | 156 |
| 6.1 INTRODUCTION | 156 |
| 6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY | 156 |
| 6.3 SUMMARY | 157 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 6.4 CONCLUSIONS | 158 |
| 6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS | 160 |
| 6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH | 161 |
| REFERENCES | 162 |
| APPENDICES | 188 |
| APPENDIX 1: PROOF OF PROPOSAL APPROVAL | 188 |
| APPENDIX 2: PROOF OF ETHICAL CLEARANCE | 189 |
| APPENDIX 3: PERMISSION LETTER TO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION | 191 |
| APPENDIX 4: PERMISSION LETTER TO SCHOOLS | 192 |
| APPENDIX 5: PERMISSION LETTER TO TEACHERS TO TAKE PART IN INTERVIEW | 193 |
| APPENDIX 6: PERMISSION LETTER TO PARENT TO ALLOW YOUR CHILD IN A STUDY | 194 |
| APPENDIX 7: PERMISSION LETTER TO LEARNER TO TAKE PART IN THE STUDY | 195 |
| APPENDIX 8: PERMISSION LETTER TO PARENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY | 195 |
| APPENDIX 9: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM SNNPR GOVERNMENT EDUCATION BUREAU TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY | 197 |
| APPENDIX 10: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM SIDAMA ZONE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT PILOT STUDY | 198 |
| APPENDIX 11: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM HAWASSA CITY ADMINISTRATION EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY | 199 |
| APPENDIX 12: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM GEDEO ZONE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY | 200 |
| APPENDIX 13: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM DILLA CITY ADMINISTRATION EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY | 201 |
| APPENDIX 14: ACHIEVEMENT TEST | 202 |
| APPENDIX 15: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS | 206 |
| APPENDIX 16: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR LEARNERS | 207 |
| APPENDIX 17: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARENTS | 208 |
| APPENDIX 18: QUESTIONNAIRE ON BACKGROUND OF LEARNERS WHO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY | 209 |
| APPENDIX 19: QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER'S PROFILE INSTRUCTIONS | 210 |
| APPENDIX 20: QUESTIONNAIRE ON SCHOOL PROFILE | 211 |
| APPENDIX 21: OBSERVATION CHECK LIST FOR TEACHERS | 212 |
| APPENDIX 22: OBSERVATION CHECK LIST FOR LEARNERS | 213 |
| APPENDIX 23: STORIES | 214 |
| APPENDIX 24: DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDIT | 214 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 3.1: Summary of the pragmatism framework | 43 |
| Table 3.2: Profile of schools in the experimental and control schools..... | 51 |
| Table 3.3: Activities done in pilot study | 61 |
| Table 4.1: Aggregate value of parentage status | 64 |
| Table 4.2: Gender distribution of the samples | 65 |
| Table 4.3: Age distribution of the samples..... | 66 |
| Table 4.4: Parentage background of the learners..... | 67 |
| Table 4.5: Learners' access to books, computer, time and motivation at home and presence of reading difficulty..... | 72 |
| Table 4.6: Levene's test for equality of variance..... | 79 |
| Table 4.7: The test between subjects effects | 80 |
| Table 4.8: Paired samples correlations | 81 |
| Table 4.9a: Paired samples t-test result of the achievement test..... | 82 |
| Table 4.9b: Paired samples t-test..... | 82 |
| Table 4.10: Classification of learners' achievement test scores..... | 82 |
| Table 4.11: Comparison of achievement tests performance between the two groups | 83 |
| Table 4.12: CFLR lesson plan..... | 89 |
| Table 4.13: Classification of teachers' interview questions | 105 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|---|-----|
| Figure 2.1: A schema of a word organised in brain | 16 |
| Figure 2.2: Model of Reading Comprehension | 20 |
| Figure 2.3: Graphic representation of Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read(CFLR)..... | 31 |
| Figure 2.4: Graphical representation of language comprehension-1 | 34 |
| Figure 2.5: Graphic representation of language comprehension-2 | 38 |
| Figure 3.1: Experimental design of the study | 47 |
| Figure 3.2: Map of South Nation Nationality and People Region | 49 |
| Figure 4.1: Age distribution of the whole learners..... | 65 |
| Figure 4.2: Age distribution of learners in experimental and control groups..... | 67 |
| Figure 4.3a: Parentage status of learners in the whole group..... | 68 |
| Figure 4.3b: Parentage statuses of learners in each group | 68 |
| Figure 4.4a: Education levels of parents in the whole group..... | 69 |
| Figure 4.4b: Education levels of parents in each group | 70 |
| Figure 4.5a: Parents' employment status in the whole group | 71 |
| Figure 4.5b: Parent Employment of the experimental and control group | 71 |
| Figure 4.6: Learners' access to books..... | 73 |
| Figure 4.7: Learners' access to a computer at home..... | 74 |
| Figure 4.8: Learners' have enough time to read at home | 74 |
| Figure 4.9: Parents or someone motivate reading at home | 75 |
| Figure 4.10: Learners with reading difficulty | 76 |
| Figure 4.11: Analysis of participants' achievement test scores at pre-test and post-test stage | 84 |
| Figure 4.13: Consonant phonemes by place and manner of articulation | 90 |
| Figure 4.14: Model to teach phonemes and morphemes..... | 91 |
| Figure 4.15: Consonant phonemes in words | 92 |
| Figure 4.16 Consonant phonemes in words | 93 |
| Figure 4.17: Pictorial presentations of pronouns | 96 |
| Figure 4.18: Prepositions | 97 |
| Figure 4.19: Action verbs | 98 |
| Figure 4.20a. Word-spider activity | 99 |
| Figure 4.20b: Word spider activity | 100 |
| Figure 4.21: Words with silent phonemes..... | 103 |
| Figure 5.1a: Model of reading instruction developed by the researcher..... | 153 |
| Figure 5.1b: Model of reading instruction developed by the researcher..... | 154 |
| Figure 5.1c: Model for word teaching developed by the researcher..... | 154 |

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|--------|--|
| AAC | Alternative and Augmentative Communication devices |
| ANCOVA | Analysis of Covariance |
| ASD | Autism Spectrum Disorder |
| BA/Sc | Bachelor of Art or Science |
| CFLR | Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read |
| CP | Cerebral Palsy |
| CRI | Conventional Reading Instruction |
| CSA | Central Statistical Agency |
| CTM | Conventional Teaching Method |
| EFL | English Foreign Language |
| EGRA | Early Grade Reading Assessment |
| ESDP | Education Sector Development Program |
| ESL | English as Second Language |
| ETQAA | Education and Training Quality Assurance Agency |
| ICT | Information Communication Technology |
| IEP | Individualized Education Plan |
| IQPEP | Improving Quality in Primary Education Program |
| MoE | Ministry of Education |
| NRP | National Reading Panel |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PA | Phonemic Awareness |
| RAN | Rapid Automatized Naming |
| RSVP | Rapid Serial Visual Presentation |
| RTI | Reading Test Inventory |
| SA | Syntactic Awareness |
| SDS | Situational-Discourse-Semantic |
| SNNPR | South Nation Nationalities and People Region |
| SNNPR | South Nation Nationalities and People Region |
| SPE | Structure-Proposition-Evaluation |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for Social Sciences |
| SSPI | Severe Speech and Physical Impairments |
| TGE | Transitional Government of Ethiopia |

| | |
|-------|--|
| TSRS | Text Structure Reading Strategy |
| TTI | Teachers' Training Institute |
| UNISA | University of South Africa |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Reading is a process that involves a simultaneously extracting and creating of meaning by coordinating many complex processes including language ability, phoneme awareness, word recognition and fluency (Cain, Oakhill & Bryant, 2004). Guastello, Beasley and Sinatra (2000) and Hengari (2007) also define reading as a complex cognitive process that involves decoding (recognition, perception, construct meaning and interpretation). Furthermore, Catts and Kamhi (1999) state that reading is a means by which the reader communicates with the writer by employing his/her ability to organise letters, words, phrases and clauses in order to convey meaning. According to Stanovich (2000) and Leipzig (2001), reading is a multifaceted interaction of the learner with the text, which is shaped by the reader's previous knowledge, experiences, attitude, culture and language of the community that requires continuous exercise, progress and improvement.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Reading difficulty has an influence on a learner's academic success, job-related activities and other practical skills used in daily routine life activities. Rose (2004) and Ngwenya (2010) indicate that the academic success of learners depends on their reading skill. Furthermore, Pikulski (1998) depicts that a learner with good reading skill is more likely to perform better in school and pass examinations than learners with poor reading skills. In addition, Bohlman and Pretorius (2002), Ngwenya (2010), Nunes (1999) and Rose (2004) found that the reading ability of learners considerably contributes to their academic success. This indicates that learners should strive to develop their reading skills since they play a significant role in their education.

Learners enrolled in primary schools in various regions of Ethiopia have reading difficulties and are thus challenged in attending to their education (EGRA/Ethiopia, 2010; MoE, 2008; Yirgashewa, 2013). Furthermore, the Ethiopian Education Sector Development Program (ESDP-V) (2016) shows that a lack of basic skills in early grades prevents Ethiopian learners from learning their mother tongue, Amharic, and second language English.

Similarly, Rose (2004) and USAID (2009) state that learners should have basic educational skills that include reading ability and text comprehension skill. Hernandez (2012) and Ngwenya (2010) also show that without basic literacy skills, it might be difficult for the learner to be successful at higher levels on the academic ladder as these learners have a high risk of repeating grades or dropping out of school.

The Early Grade Reading Assessment conducted in Ethiopia (EGRA/Ethiopia, 2010) investigated the reading achievement of early grade learners. The study assessed the letter knowledge, word recognition, phonological awareness, alphabetic principle, fluency and comprehension skills of the learners. It covered six languages, eight regions and involved over 13,000 learners who attended Grade 1 to 4 in primary schools in Ethiopia. The results of the study indicated that 80% of Ethiopian learners in the early grades (Grade 1-4) are not meeting the minimum learning competence of the MoE in terms of literacy (EGRA/Ethiopia, 2010).

The Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) conducted in other African countries also indicates that early grade learners face reading difficulties. For instance, Crouch and Korda (2008) revealed that 34% of Liberian learners tested at the end of Grade 2, could not read a single word. In addition, the baseline assessment conducted in South Africa revealed that initial reading skills of learners were very limited (EGRA/South Africa, 2009). Besides, the EGRA/Kenya (2009) report also indicates that primary school learners performed below the middle range of acceptable reading fluency standards. The EGRA/Egypt (2009) report also shows that early grade learners assessed on nearly all subtasks scored less than half of the average reading assessment score.

Prasse (2006) states that learners should be successful readers and teachers should be accountable for the development of learners' reading skill. Besides, there should be due consideration for reading instruction which is scientific and evidence-based. Otherwise, as Richards and Anderson (2003) indicate, schools with no effective reading intervention strategy worsen the problems of learners who have reading difficulties, and do not contribute to the building of a reading nation.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Learners should develop reading and writing skills to be successful in their future lives. USAID (2009) indicates that, without an effective reading intervention strategy, reading problems are more likely to be exacerbated, and the future of the learners might be adversely affected because reading, writing and basic mathematics can be regarded as prerequisites for employment at any level.

According to the Annie E. Casey Foundation (2010) and Hernandez (2012), Grade 3 is the transitional year for learners as they transfer from learning to read (developing awareness about phonemes, morphemes and concept about print) to reading to learn (comprehending concepts from text books). Lloyd (1978) and Chang and Romero (2008) also state that learners who did not develop appropriate Grade 3 reading skills often face difficulties in the subsequent grades and may dropout before earning a high school diploma. Chang and Romero (2008) state that Grade 3 is a critical period in the academic progress of the learner, since prior to this grade level, the education of the learner mainly emphasizes teaching basic skills which include identification of shapes, phonemes and morphemes as well as the way to read and write. However, from Grade 3 onward, learners must take responsibility for building on the previous foundation to learn new concepts through reading on various subjects (ibid.).

Therefore, the study sought to investigate the effect of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) instruction on the reading skill of Grade 3 English learners. The study compares the conventional instructional approach used by regular teachers in selected primary schools with the new instructional approach, CFLR. The new approach is designed based on the cognitive framework of reading acquisition to help teachers prepare effective and learner-centered reading instruction.

August and Shanahan (2010), Erdos, Genesee, Savage and Haigh (2010), Lesaux, Crosson, Kieffer and Pierce (2010); Lesaux, Lipka and Siegel (2006), Lervag and Aukrust (2010) and Nation and Snowling (2004) confirm that reading skill is strongly correlated with oral language proficiency in English. In addition, Catts, Adlof and Ellis-Weismer (2006), Droop and Verhoeven (2003), Mancilla-Martinez and Lesaux (2010), Nation, Clark, Marshall, and Durand (2004); Nation, Cocksey, Taylor, and Bishop (2010), Verhoeven (2000) and Verhoeven, Reitsma and Siegel (2011) showed that the

reading skill of learners is significantly associated with knowledge of spoken language. As the findings of the above studies indicate, reading instruction should familiarise learners with the skill of oral language comprehension and written language decoding. Therefore, CFLR reading instruction was selected as the theoretical basis for the study because it addresses both oral and written language comprehension simultaneously.

In the implementation of CFLR, teachers will periodically follow up the progress and challenges faced by the learners and provide immediate support. As the framework indicates learners to develop their reading skill in English, they will learn it as a second language. However, Brown (2007), Clinton (2011), Demirel and Epçaçan (2011), Finney and Schraw (2003), Habibian and Roslan (2014), Hidi and Renninger (2006), Kirmizi (2011), Liu and Huang (2011), Lukhele (2013), Montano and Kasprzyk (2008), Sani and Zain (2011), Naseri and Ghabanchi (2014), Schunk (1996) and Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi and Alzwari (2012) show that learners who learn English as a second language face various psychological challenges related with motivation, attitude, interest, self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-regulation, confidence and anxiety. Therefore, keen observation and timely support of the teacher is essential for the reading improvement of learners.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study sought to investigate the effect of a Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the Reading Skills of Grade 3 learners in 10 selected primary schools in Hawassa and Dilla towns in Ethiopia.

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

English in Ethiopia is the 1st medium of instruction starting from Grade 7 up to secondary school, college and university levels, and learners are expected to be acquainted with basic skills and knowledge of English language as a language of academic instruction. To this effect, English language is taught as a subject right from preschool level. Like any other language, it involves learning the skills of listening, speaking, writing and reading. Among these skills, reading is an essential one for learners to be successful in academics. However, according to EGRA/Ethiopia (2010), the reading skill of Ethiopian early grade learners is very poor. There is no effective instructional approach, which comprises essential supports to equip learners with good

reading skills. There is also a scarcity of local studies, which explain the specific challenges that learners face in learning by means of the traditional reading instructional approach. There is also shortage of studies that show the effect of the new instructional approach over the traditional one. Therefore, this study investigated the effect of CFLR on the reading skill of Grade 3 English learners.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTION

What is the effect of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) on English reading skill of Grade 3 learners?

1.6.1 Specific Research Questions

- What is the difference between the Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) INSTRUCTION and Conventional Reading Instruction (CRI) to teach reading skill in English for Grade 3 learners?
- What are the challenges in incorporating CFLR instruction to teach reading skill in English for Grade 3 learners?
- How do teachers, learners and parents view the implementation of CFLR instruction to teach reading skill in English for Grade 3 learners?

1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The researcher formulated the following null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis:

Null Hypothesis (H_0): Implementation of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) instruction does not enhance learners' reading skills.

$H_0: \mu$ Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read Instruction (CFLR) = Conventional Reading Instruction (CRI).

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The implementation of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) instruction enhances learners' reading skills.

$H_1: \mu$ Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read Instruction (CFLR) Instruction $\neq \mu$ Conventional Instruction (CRI).

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study has the following objectives. It seeks to:

- investigate the difference between CFLR instruction and conventional reading instruction (CRI) for Grade 3 English learners;
- determine the challenges that may arise in the incorporation of CFLR instruction in teaching reading skills to Grade 3 English learners; and
- evaluate the view of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of CFLR in teaching reading skill for Grade 3 English learners.

1.9 METHODOLOGY

The study employed a triangulation concurrent mixed-methods approach using quantitative and qualitative data separately and then convergent merging them for analysis. The qualitative part used a quasi-experimental design which employed a non-equivalent control group and the quantitative part utilized a qualitative case study design. The study selected samples by means of the convenience sampling technique. According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2007), random assignment of participants in a quasi-experimental research is not applicable. Hence, the study used a non-random sampling method to select the sample schools and respondents. The study selected intact classrooms by using a non-equivalent group design in the experimental and control groups.

Therefore, intact groups of Grade 3 English learners selected from five schools of Dilla town participated in the experimental group. The study used a similar arrangement in selecting the control schools in Hawassa town. Hence, the researcher did not use random selection and assignment of samples in either the experimental and control schools.

The quantitative part of the study involved 1,325 Grade 3 learners drawn from 10 township elementary schools to complete the questionnaire and take achievement tests in the experimental and control groups. From the total learners, 673 (339 boys & 334 girls) participated in the experimental group in Dilla town; and 652 (352 boys & 300 girls) took part in the control group in Hawassa city. The qualitative part of the study involved 10 Grade 3 English teachers (five from each group); 10 Grade 3 English

learners (five from each group) and 10 parents of Grade 3 English learners (five from each group) selected by means of purposive sampling.

The researcher used achievement tests, semi-structured interviews and observation to collect data. The researcher first conducted a pre-test (reading achievement test) with the experimental and control groups followed by a post-test after the CFLR intervention. The researcher assigned numbers to the respondents to ensure anonymity, and the respondents used the codes to identify themselves in the pre-test and post-test.

The study analysed quantitative and qualitative data separately and triangulated them to supplement each other. It analysed quantitative data by the use of independent t-tests to investigate statistical differences between pre-test and post-test results. ANCOVA also helped the researcher to measure the interaction between the covariate (learners' pre-test scores) and the independent variable (CFLR) in order to predict its degree of influence on the dependent variable (learners' post-test scores). In addition, the study considered an alpha level of 0.05 for the interpretation of statistical significance. Concerning the qualitative data generated from observation and semi-structured interview, the study employed thematic analysis. Data were transcribed, coded, classified and grouped in to similar themes and major themes were formed from each category in order to carry out further interpretation.

1.10 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

The knowledge of learners' reading difficulties in the area of language comprehension, decoding, cipher knowledge, lexical knowledge, letter knowledge, and phonological awareness are important to intervene in the early grade literacy. Teachers, who have sufficient knowledge about how learners go through the reading process, will give due emphasis to the learners' reading problems and reduce their challenges through appropriate reading instruction (Richards & Anderson, 2003).

Furthermore, the study will assist in understanding how all Grade 3 learners can be effectively included in the education system. It also helps to equip educators with knowledge to be able to face and overcome challenges in the inclusion of learners with reading difficulties in the mainstream schools. The research gives feasible direction to

improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school-based supports provided for children with reading difficulties.

Besides, the finding of the study will be relevant to the field of psychology of education. Reading is the process by which a reader extracts visual information from a piece of written text and makes sense of it (Cain, Oakhill & Bryant, 2004). Learners who attend reading in second language face various psychological challenges related with motivation, attitude, interest, self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-regulation, confidence and anxiety (Suzanne Hidi (2001). Therefore, keen observation and timely support of the teacher is essential for the reading improvement of learners. This makes psychologists to be interested in how we learn to read and what underlies individual differences in reading skill. Due to this, psychologists are interested in questions such as how readers extract this visual information, what writing is, how it relates to speech, and precisely how a reader makes sense of the text during reading. Therefore, the study contributes to the knowledge body of psychology of education by giving glances to theory of individual differences that every child has different mental ability and learns with different pace.

The finding of the study will also act as a spring board for other researchers who wish to pursue similar research.

Generally, the findings of the study will help learners to improve their reading skills through improved instructional method of reading. The Ethiopian Ministry of Education, as well as the primary school education stakeholders, including teachers and parents, can benefit by using the findings of the study to create a favourable learning environment for the development of reading skills of Grade 3 learners.

1.11 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Geographically, the study was confined to 10 selected primary schools found in Hawassa and Dilla towns in the region of SNNPR, Ethiopia. It was also conceptually delimited to investigate the effect of CFLR on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners.

1.12 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

- **Comprehension:** The ability of learners to accurately understand text and construct meaning by making connections between what they read and what they already know.
- **Conventional Instruction:** A direct method that de-contextualises tasks and uses verbal explanation in the absence of supportive examples. It does not use a wide range of non-verbal strategies and teaching aids to make personal, action and picture/object reference with basic strategies. It generally relies on chalkboard, talking, book-based teaching, repetition and reinforcement and reviewing sessions ending with comprehensive exams.
- **Morpheme:** The smallest meaningful units of language that are combined to form words.
- **Phoneme:** The smallest interchangeable speech sounds of language that are combined to form words.
- **Reading:** A complex cognitive process of decoding symbols to derive meaning. It is a means of language acquisition, of communication, of sharing information and ideas. It is a complex interaction between the text and the reader and is shaped by the reader's prior knowledge, experiences, attitude, and language of the community.
- **Reading Anxiety:** The type of anxiety resulting from various linguistic, cognitive, and affecting factors including the pedagogical style, strategy, and attitudinal factors such as a fear of participation in reading activity, reluctance and unwillingness to communicate, and compete in the classroom activity
- **Reading Motivation:** The learners' psychological factor which provides an activating and energising role for cognitive processes, which, in turn, can impact reading achievement
- **Reading Self-efficacy:** The learners' competence in dealing with their individual challenges. It is also the learners' personal belief in their potential to be knowledgeable or to carry out an assigned task or use a course of action to achieve the targeted level.
- **Self-esteem:** An individual's overall subjective attitude, emotional evaluation and judgment of his or her own worth and beliefs It is also defined as the combination

of feelings about ourselves that guides our behavior, influences our attitudes, and drives our motivation.

- **Syntax:** A meaningful combination of words that denotes sentence structure.

1.13 ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

The study has six chapters that are organised to address the questions posed in the study.

Chapter 1 covered introduction, contextual background, problem statement, purpose, rationale, research question, research hypothesis, objectives, methodology, relevance, scope, organisation of the dissertation and operational definition of important terms.

Chapter 2 provided comprehensive review of related literatures. This chapter presented theoretical framework, conceptual framework and researches conducted on reading.

Chapter 3 described research methodology employed in the study. More specifically, this chapter presented research design, population and sampling technique used in the study. Furthermore, chapter 3 addressed tools of data collection, procedures of data collection, method of data analysis and ethical issues.

Chapter 4 presents major findings and analysis of the data.

Chapter 5 discussed the findings of the study. This chapter explained and interpreted the findings in relation to objectives of the study and review of related literature.

Chapter 6 comprised summary, conclusion and recommendation of the study. Therefore, the organisation of the study contributed to address and clearly present the research questions and objectives that framed the study.

1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented an introduction to the study. It defined reading as a process that involves a simultaneously extracting and creating of meaning by coordinating many complex processes including language ability, phoneme awareness, word recognition and fluency. In its background part it also disclosed that reading difficulty has influence on the learner's academic success, job-related activities and other

practical skills used in daily routine life activities. It also depicted that learners enrolled in primary schools in various regions of Ethiopia have reading difficulties and thus, are challenged in attending to their education. Therefore, in the section of problem statement, the chapter indicated that the study sought to investigate the effect of CFLR instruction on the reading skills of Grade 3 English learners. The chapter also presented purpose of the study, rationale for the study, research questions, research hypothesis, objective of the study, methodology, relevance of the study, scope of the study, organisation of the dissertation, operational definition of terms. Therefore, the chapter introduced readers with the thesis by giving clear picture of the study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Reading is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning. It is a means of language acquisition, communication, and of sharing information (Michel, 2000). It is also a language in itself that involves a complex interaction between the text and the reader, which is shaped by the reader's prior knowledge, experiences, attitude, language, and community, which is culturally and socially situated (Grabe, 2004).

Reading is an intensive process in which the eye quickly moves to assimilate text. It is also an understanding of visual perception and eye movement in order to understand the reading process that requires continuous practice, development, and refinement (Stanovich, 2000). In addition, reading requires creativity and critical analysis. Readers deal with each piece of text, innately deviating from literal words to create images that make sense to them in the unfamiliar places the texts describe. Because reading is such a complex process, it cannot be controlled or restricted to one or two interpretations (Eid, 2017).

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Creswell (2009), a theoretical framework has a significant role in a given study to identify a core set of connectors within a topic and indicating how they fit together. It also shows direction to the researcher in conducting the research; and determines what should be measured and the type of statistical relationship that should be employed. Henning, Van Rensburg and Smith (2004) also state that a theoretical framework guides the investigator to position the study in his/her field of study and make clear the assumptions of the research concerning firm relationships between themes.

Therefore, the theoretical framework that guided this study was "Schema theory". Schema theory provides sufficient ground to conduct research in the area of reading comprehension (Richards & Anderson, 2003). It also gives guidelines to understand how reading comprehension occurs and how inferential reasoning takes place (Lerner,

1993; McCormick, 1992). Moreover, schema theory helps the establishment of mental mappings or schema, which in turn guides the ability to organise information and make inferences (Al-Issa, 2006; Ajideh, 2006; Lerner, 1993; 2002).

The schema theory was one of the leading cognitive learning theories introduced by Frederic Charles Bartlett, the first British professor of experimental psychology in 1932, and was further developed in the 1970s by Richard Anderson. The concept of schema was further developed by Bartlett to provide a basis for a sequential option to the traditional spatial storage theories of memory to portray how knowledge is acquired, processed and cerebrally organised. Ajideh (2003:3-4) says that “Bartlett posited that people’s understanding and remembrance of events is shaped by their expectations or prior knowledge and that these expectations are presented mentally in some sort of schematic fashion”.

A schema is an arrangement in semantic memory that indicates the general structure of a body of knowledge. The concept of schema is familiar in the field of psychology. It is commonly linked with the early work on story recall by Bartlett (1932). Bartlett argued that schema is a fitting term to define every human cognitive reaction – perceiving, imaging, remembering, thinking and reasoning—as an effort after creating meaning. He also indicates that memory is active, constructive, and schematically determined (Brewer, 2000). Later schema theory was introduced in reading by Rumelhalt (1982) in discussing the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension. Al-Jahwari and Al-Humaidi (2015) indicate that prior knowledge plays a significant role in EFL reading comprehension.

Ayres and Van-Gog (2009) define a schema (plural schemata or schemas) as a knowledge arrangement that stands for a set of objects, incidents and circumstances. Anderson and Pearson (1984) and Al-Issa (2006) also describe schema as a cognitive construct that can systematise the elements of information according to the way in which they will be utilised. It also represents a mental structure used to organise knowledge in the memory. The mental structure serves as a platform for patterns that systematise conceptual order or complexity of ideas, separate pieces of data connected together to construct more logical wholes, and integrate obscure patterns into consistent chains of ideas in the brain (Al-Issa, 2006).

According to Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) and Georgeon and Ritter (2011), a schema is a mental configuration attained in the course of several experiences by setting up expectations for what will usually happen, interpreting what does happen, and remembering what in fact did occur in specific circumstances. Rentsch, Mot and Abbe (2009) identify content schema and formal schema as the two types of schema. Content schemata contain general or specific information on the subject matter. Formal schemata present information about how expressions are structured. The central idea of the theory is that human memory encompasses high levels of configuration known as schemata, each of which encapsulates our knowledge concerning the whole thing linked with a specific object or incident (Georgeon & Ritter, 2011).

Schema theory underpins the value of past experience to learning and utilises tools such as concept organisers and memory aids to link new knowledge to previous experiences accumulated in schema (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007). Prior experience and knowledge significantly contribute to native and second language reading comprehension in providing new meaning to new information, new concepts, and new ideas when they are associated with something the individual previously experienced. Besides, schema theory is also referred to as a general knowledge structure used to assist second language learning because it usually involves reading several texts in the target language (Al-Issa, 2006).

According to An (2013), the basic principle of schema theory is that a text does not directly give meaning by itself to the reader; however, it provides a way for readers to create meaning from their prior knowledge. This previously-obtained knowledge is called the readers' background knowledge, and its structures are called schemata (Adams & Collins, 1979; Bartlett, 1932; Rumelhart, 1982).

Zhang Li (2006) and Chao (2010) state that comprehending a text is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text with the help of the schema. Efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge. Reading comprehension operates in two directions, from the bottom-up to the top and from the top-down to the bottom of the hierarchy. Bottom-up processing is activated by particular information from the text to general idea, while top-down processing starts with general concept and goes down to verify the

predictions made. These two kinds of processing work concurrently and interactively so as to enable the reader to create meaning from the text (Carrell & Eiserhold, 1983).

Bottom-up processing is called data-driven since it is activated by external information (Rumelhart, 1982). As the bottom-level schema converges into higher levels, more general schemata are activated. Top-down processing, on the other hand, occurs as the system provides general predictions on the basis of higher level general schemata; and then searches the input for information to fit into this partially satisfied, higher-order schema. Therefore, top-down processing is conceptually-driven. The central aspect of top-down and bottom-up processing is that both of them are occurring at all levels at the same time (*ibid.*). Bottom-up processing asserts that the readers will be identify information that is meaningful or that does not fit their ongoing hypothesis about the content or structure of the text. Top-down processing assists the readers to determine uncertainties or to select between alternative possible interpretations of the incoming data (An, 2013).

There is also an interactive model in addition to top-down and bottom-up models. An (2013) explains that the interactive model basically encourages the expansion of theories in reading, especially schema theory. In the schema-theoretical view, reading is an interactive process that occurs at three levels (between bottom-up and top-down processing; between lower-level and high-level skills; and between a reader's prior knowledge and the background knowledge presupposed in the text). Bottom-up processing is activated by specific data from the text. Top-down processing starts with general predictions based on higher level schema and searches at the more specific level to confirm these predictions. Bottom-up processing and top-down processing always occur simultaneously and interactively in reading. Readers consciously or unconsciously use the two types of processing interchangeably to construct comprehension. Schema theory guides readers as they make sense of new experiences and enable them to make predictions about what they might expect to experience in a given context (Al-Issa, 2006).

Thus, the reader's failure to activate an appropriate schema during reading results mostly in a mismatch between what the writer anticipates the reader can do to extract meaning from the text and what the reader is actually able to do. There are at least

three possible reasons to account for this. For one thing, readers may not have the appropriate schema the writer anticipated. Therefore, they simply cannot understand the concept being communicated. Readers also may find a consistent interpretation of the texts, but may not find the one intended by the writer. In this case, readers will understand the text, but will misunderstand the writer. Finally, readers may have the appropriate schema, but the writer does not provide sufficient clues in the text for them to effectively utilise a bottom-up skill to activate the content schema the reader may already possess (Rumelhart, 1982; Zhang, 2006).

According to Rumelhart (1982), schema represents knowledge at all levels– from ideologies and cultural truths to knowledge about the meaning of a particular word, to knowledge about what patterns of excitations are associated with what letters of the alphabet. Therefore, we have schemata to represent all levels of our experience, at all levels of abstraction. The following diagram illustrates how a schema of a given word is organised in our brain (Rumelhart, 1982:3).

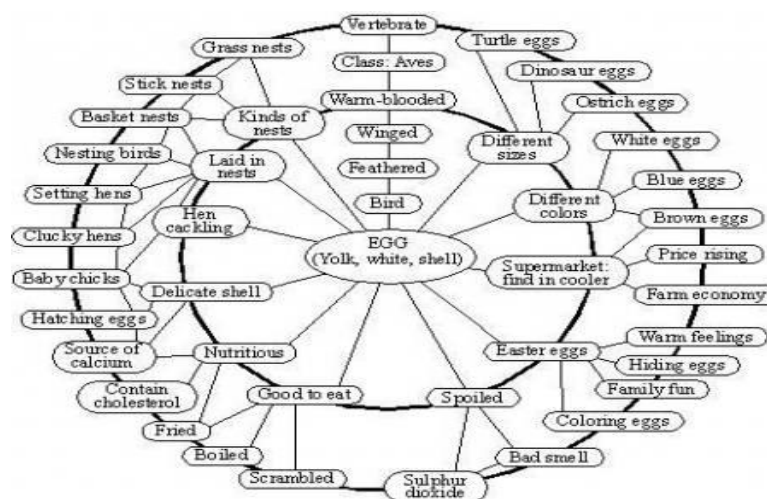


Figure 2.1. A schema of a word organised in brain

Source: Rumelhart (1982:3)

2.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF READING

Students should strive to develop their reading skills since they can play a significant role in their education. Educational researchers, Nunes (1999) and Bohlman and Pretorius (2002), indicate that there is a strong correlation between reading and academic success. In other words, a student who is a good reader is more likely to do well in school and pass exams than a student who is a weak reader. Good readers

can understand the individual sentences and the organisational structure of a piece of writing. They can comprehend ideas, follow arguments, and detect implications. They do not only know most of the words in the text already, but they can also determine the meaning of many of the unfamiliar words from the context – failing this, they can use their dictionary effectively to do so. Generally, good readers can extract from the writing what is important for the particular task they are engaged in (Pikulski, 1998; Pretorius, 2002).

Nunes (1999) found a strong correlation between reading and vocabulary knowledge. Learners who are enriched with vocabulary are usually good readers. This is not very surprising, since the best way to acquire a large vocabulary is to read extensively, and if a learner reads extensively, he/she is likely to be or become a good reader (Bohlman & Pretorius, 2002). Therefore, if there is a need that learners to be successful at school, they should be encouraged to read (Ngwenya, 2010; Rose, 2004).

Research findings in applied linguistics and reading research consistently show a strong correlation between reading proficiency and academic success at all ages, from the primary school right through to university level. Learners who read a lot and who understand what they read usually attain good results (Ngwenya, 2010).

2.4 MODELS OF READING PROCESS IN SECOND LANGUAGE

According to Grabe and Stoller (2002) and Hood, Solomon, and Burns (1996), there are three main models proposed to describe the nature of reading in second language: (i) the bottom-up processing model, which focuses on developing the basic skill of matching sounds with letters, syllables, and words written on a page; (ii) the top-down processing model, which emphasises on the background knowledge that a reader uses to comprehend a text; and (iii) the "interactive" model which integrates both top-down and bottom-up processing models and considers text processing as a non-linear, constantly developing phenomenon where both the former explanations constantly react and influence one another.

2.4.1 Bottom-up Reading Model

Gough (1972) developed the Bottom-up Reading Model to indicate that reading is a process of decoding letter-by-letter. He also states that readers can build their textual meaning after they begin to decode the letters of word level and syntactic features of

text. Readers focus on linguistic forms at the level of word and sentence for their reading. This will help them to increase familiarity with words. As the result of this familiarity, the readers will automatically recognise the words and read fluently. Furthermore, comprehension is produced when readers decode the letter, encode the sound and then construct the meaning from the text.

However, there are some limitations on this model. For instance, Chen (2002) and Johnson (2001) indicate that the spelling-sound correspondence is complex and unpredictable. Adams (1990), Nunan (1999) and Nuttall (1996) also state that this process of reading causes slow and laborious reading because of short-term memory overload, and readers' easily forgetting what they have read at the end of the reading. Besides, Day and Bamford (1998) argue that if a reader cannot keep a sentence long enough in the short-term memory, comprehension will be less than satisfactory. As a result, readers may remember only isolated facts but cannot integrate them into a cohesive understanding. This limits the ability of the reader to combine bottom-level information with higher-level information.

Despite of the criticism given to Bottom-up Reading Model that it has only unilateral aspects of the reading process; the model has made a paramount contribution to reading research. Adams (1990), Adams (2000), Alderson (2000) and Lipson and Cooper (2002) show that vocabulary knowledge is an important component in reading since learners with a high level of vocabulary can read easily with less dependence on background knowledge. Hsueh-chao and Nation (2000) found that a broad knowledge of grammar, background knowledge and reading skills also contributes to text comprehension. Furthermore, Haynes and Baker (1993), Hunt and Beglar (2005) and Park (2004) found that the bottom-up skills or ability in vocabulary, grammar, background knowledge, and reading skills are important in second language reading comprehension

2.4.2 Top-down Reading Model

According to Eskey (2005), the Top-down Reading Model focuses on the process of reading from brain to text. It emphasises what readers bring to the text than what the text brings to the reader. According to this model, the reader relies more on existing knowledge and makes minimal use of written information (Hayes, 1991; Smith, 2004). Furthermore, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Chia (2001) and Chinwonno (2001)

revealed that readers' predictions and background knowledge play a significant role in their reading. Readers guess about the message of the text and checking the text for confirming or rejecting signals with the help of their personal schemata.

2.4.3 Interactive Reading Model

Researchers in second language reading, Carrell (1991), Eskey (2005), Grabe (2004) and Scarcella and Oxford (1992), explain that comprehension is a complex process and success is achieved through the interaction of both bottom-up and top-down processes. Due to this, they advocate the balanced view between language and reasoning process. Grabe (2004) also indicates that readers actively combine their bottom-up processes; for example, the ability to decode and recognise words and grammatical forms with their top-down processes, such as using background knowledge to predict and confirm meaning.

The Interactive Reading Model also gives emphasis to most important variables, which determine the level of reader's comprehension of the text. These variables are reader variables and text variables. The reader variables are interest level in the text, reading purposes, knowledge of the topic, target language abilities, awareness of the reading process, and level of willingness to take risks, whereas the text variables include text type, text structure, and vocabulary (Sarcella & Oxford, 1992). The Model of Reading Comprehension (Figure 2.2) developed by (Chun, 2000) illustrates this model in detail.

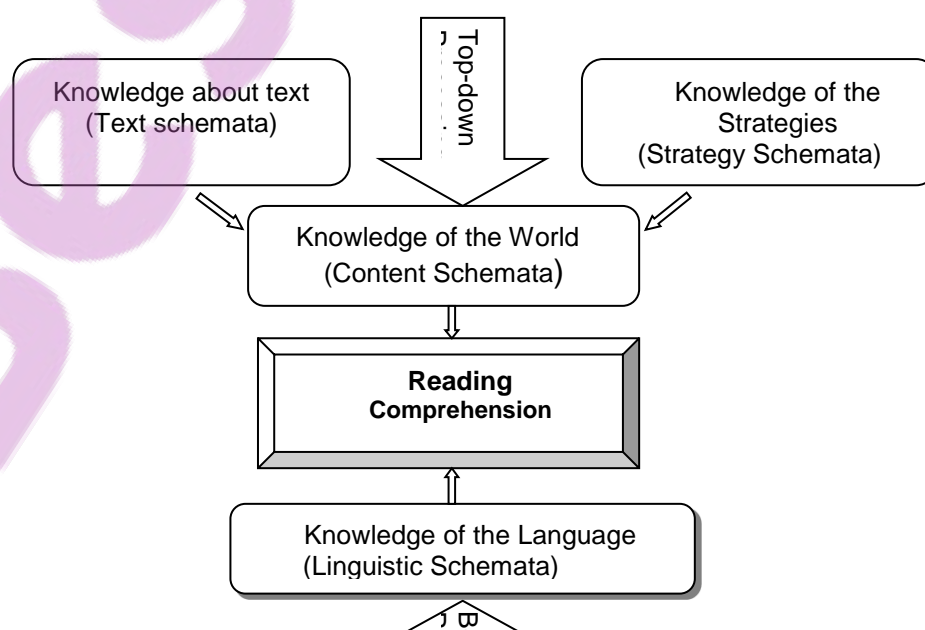


Figure 2.2: Model of Reading Comprehension

Source: (Chun, 2000)

2.5 READING DIFFICULTY

2.5.1 Difficulties with Decoding

Learners who are unable to create meaning from a given text are referred to as poor decoders. These learners show difficulties in acquiring the basic knowledge of sound-letter correspondence rules, specifically phonological skills that include identifying and using phonemes, words and syllables. Furthermore, poor language skills are often evidence of weak morphological and syntactic knowledge of poor decoders (Catt, Hugh, Kamhi & Alan, 2011).

2.5.2 Difficulties with Reading Rate and Reading Fluency

Learners who have accurate word recognition and normal comprehension skill may exhibit difficulty with reading rate (Catts et, al., 2011). These learners often take longer time to call the sounds of scattered letters, read words and simple sentences. There are suggested reading instructions that may improve the difficulties of these learners. Learners may also have difficulty with reading fluency, or accurate, smooth, and appropriately-paced reading with accurate expression (National Reading Panel, 2000). Learners who have difficulties with reading fluency should be supported with appropriate teaching strategies. The National Reading Panel (2000), and Snowden, Kindell, Thompson, and Richardson (2012) recommend that problems in reading rate would be improved through partner reading, guided reading, repeated reading, and silent reading, and listening to another person read fluently.

2.5.3 Difficulties with Comprehension

A difficulty with reading comprehension is also the challenge of learners who may have skills within the normal range on the above factors. These learners have challenges in understanding the central idea of a text by creating meaning from the text with help of their background knowledge (Snowden et al., 2012). Therefore, teachers of learners with comprehension difficulties are advised to help the learners through building oral and auditory language skills, including skills in: vocabulary knowledge, narratives, listening comprehension, and figurative language (National Reading Panel, 2000). Furthermore, when working toward increasing reading comprehension for specific texts, one can pre-teach vocabulary words and discuss prior knowledge on a topic related to the text before reading (Snowden, et al., 2012). Furthermore, children can have difficulties in more than one of the areas previously listed. In other word, children with mixed reading difficulties suffer a lot on their reading concerning with their pace of reading, fluency, and comprehension (ibid.).

2.6 CAUSES OF READING DIFFICULTIES

Reading is the construction of meaning from text through background knowledge, interest, attitude, purpose, and ability. There are essential areas for success in reading, which include phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. It is essential to scaffold these factors in order to produce literate individuals (Jennings, Schudt-Caldwell & Lerner, 2006).

The development of reading skill of learners would be affected by several factors including physiological, hereditary, emotional, socio-cultural, educational, cognitive, language, and attitude toward reading and reading self-perception. Physiological factors include sensory impairment and neurological difficulties. For instance, Taylor, Ahlgrim-Delzell and Flowers (2010) indicate that visual performance of a learner is significantly related to reading performance. Boden and Brodeur (1999) also indicate that learners with reading disabilities have temporal visual processing deficits that compound difficulties in processing verbal information during reading.

Cognitive factors related to reading delays center around intelligence, preferred learning modality, left and right brain hemispheric functions, memory, learning ability,

understanding, meaning construction ability, eye movement and text scanning skill (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2005).

Learners' language factors which include problems with sentence structure (syntax) and meaning (semantics) lead to reading delays since reading is a language based activity (Catts, Hogan & Adlof, 2005; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Nation & Norbury, 2005).

Learners' negative reading self-perception influences their reading skill. For instance, Corbiere, Fraccaroli, Mbeki and Perron (2006) indicate that readers who continually have poor or unsatisfactory experiences with text may develop a negative reading self-perception. Furthermore, Hamachek (1995) also shows that there is a strong interactive link between self-concept and academic success. Furthermore, learners' self-perceptions of academic competence develop as the learners advance through elementary school (Bouffard, Marcoux, Veseau, & Bordeleau, 2003).

Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) pinpoint that a positive attitude facilitates active engagement of the learner in the reading activity; while a negative attitude toward reading demotivates the learner and contributes to poor reading skill. Personal and social adjustment, home conditions, peer relationships, teacher-pupil relations, and the instructional programme all influence attitudes toward reading (ibid.).

The other underlying causes of reading difficulty are optilexia patterns, eye-tracking weakness patterns, contrast sensitivity patterns, short-term memory weakness patterns, attention weakness patterns, stress sensitivity patterns, rapid word recognition weakness patterns, auditory processing weakness patterns, poor comprehension pattern on oral language, among others (Stanovich, 2000). Optilexia patterns are the characteristics of people who tend to use sight-reading strategies. This group of individuals is characterised by lots of guessing, particularly with short words, can read a word on one page, but not the next, transposes one word for another word with the same first letter, atrocious spelling, poor comprehension, and very weak decoding ability with unfamiliar words (ibid.). Individuals who have eye-tracking weakness patterns exhibit the following characteristics: they skip words or whole lines of text, get word endings wrong, are worse at reading when tired or toward the end of the day, feel overwhelmed by a full page of text, are better with large fonts, and read better with a finger on the page (Boden & Brodeur, 1999).

A contrast sensitivity pattern is also a challenge for people suffering from reading difficulties. This group of individuals shows characteristics such as complaining of the text moving around on the page, lots of rubbing of the eyes or watery eyes, and sensitivity to bright lights and strong contrasts (Stanovich, 2000). Short-term memory weakness also influences the reading skills of an individual. For instance, a learner with short-term memory weakness has trouble in decoding long words, finds it hard to follow the meaning of a sentence, hardly remembers things in the short-term, and cannot recall a string of more than 3 or 4 digits (ibid).

Elley (1994), Fredriksson (2002), Lehmann (1996), OECD (2001; 2002) and Taube (1988) emphasise that parents' level of education, socio-economic position of the family and cultural heritage play an important role in the learning and reading achievements of learners. The actions taken by parents at the preschool age are of great importance in students' reading literacy.

Several research findings indicate that reading aloud at the preschool age positively influences a child and his/her literacy achievements. Beck and Juel (1999), Denton, Reaney and West (2001), Lyon (1999) and Snow, Burns and Griffin (1998) emphasise that reading aloud is necessary and that the experience gained in such a way helps to create comprehension about the relationship between the written word and the spoken word. Therefore, learners who do not have such opportunities may lag behind their counterparts.

Motivation is the key to developing successful readers. It also affects how students approach school in general, how they relate to teachers, how much time and effort they devote to their studies, how much support they seek when they are struggling, how they perform on tests, and many other aspects of education. If students are not motivated, it is difficult to improve their academic achievement, no matter how good the teacher, curriculum or school is (Memiş & Bozkurt, 2013). Furthermore, Pachtman and Wilson (2006) found that motivation arises from intrinsic or extrinsic stimuli. Intrinsic motivation is developed through the choice of literacy activities based on individual interest and the learner's beliefs that he/she can successfully complete the reading task.

Hidi (2006) found that all types of interests (topic and situational) serve as powerful determinants that contribute to students' increased recognition, comprehension and

recall. Interest is a clear indicator for the quality of learning derived. Students' interest influences readers to go beyond the surface elements of the text and focus on more elaborate, higher-order thinking skills, to help them uncover the underlying meaning of the main ideas.

2.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS WITH READING DIFFICULTIES

Most of the time there are two types of students with reading problems that school educators are likely to find. These are learners with IQ-reading achievement discrepancies and those with a combination of low ability and low reading achievement (Richek, Caldwell, Hennings & Lerner, 1996). Learners with IQ-reading achievement discrepancies are likely to show average to high IQ and listening comprehension scores. Learners with developmental dyslexia are included in this group of poor readers. Dyslexia is often associated with some neurological impairment that results in poor word recognition skills and poor phonological awareness (ibid.). Slow rate of reading, erratic oral reading, misuse of function words and suffixes, and reading comprehension difficulties on timed reading tasks are among the symptoms commonly associated with dyslexia (Snow et. al., 1998; Walton, 1998).

Low ability readers make up the largest number of poor readers. They tend to have lower IQ and have below grade level listening comprehension, word recognition, and reading comprehension performance. Although, there is a tendency to classify learners with severe reading problems as low ability readers or IQ-achievement discrepant readers, current research indicates that there are no significant differences between these two groups of readers on how they develop reading precursor skills (Wristers, Francis, Foorman, Fletcher & Swank, 2000).

The inability to sound out words can be attributed to weak phonological processing, which accounts for the largest population of students classified as having dyslexia or individuals with severe word recognition difficulties (Pressley, 2000). Phonological awareness is a crucial component to becoming literate. This has been verified through studies that examined long-term effects of phonological awareness training in preschool and kindergarten on subsequent reading achievement performance of first, second, and third graders (Helland & Kaasa, 2005).

Phonemic awareness means knowing that spoken language is made up of discrete, operable sounds. Rhyme production, sound blending, sound deletion, sound substitution, and sound segmenting are among the many ways individuals can operate on spoken words (Helland & Kaasa, 2005). Developmentally, children begin with rhyme activities and then progress to segmenting sounds in words. Among phonemic awareness exercises, phonemic segmentation is the best predictor of word identification for primary grade children. An example of a phonemic segmentation exercise would be to pronounce a word such as "cat" and ask a child to say each sound as three separable sounds in the word such as /c/ /a/ /t/ (Nation & Snowling, 1998).

Some children develop phonemic awareness through literacy experiences at home before entering school while others have limited exposure to print and role models who engage in reading and writing. Some children, regardless of their environmental conditions, struggle with grasping phonemic awareness. Thus, children who lack phonological skills and have a limited vocabulary will have difficulty in phonologically "recoding" letters back into their constituent sounds when they encounter print (Farnia & Geva, 2013; Kendeou, van den Broek, White & Lynch, 2009).

When most children initially encounter a printed word, they go through a process of sequentially decoding the word by attempting to make letter-sound conversions. Phonological recoding occurs as children check to see if the word they made matches a word that has been stored in their memories (Daneman & Newson, 1992). At advanced stages of this process, children learn to decode words hierarchically. Hierarchical decoding involves using letters in words to cue the sounds of other letters. For example, using the "e" at the end of the word "came" to say the "a" as a long vowel sound (ibid.).

Related to phonological recoding is orthographic processing. Orthographic processing refers to recognising and remembering letters, which includes noting about sequences of letters in words and being able to distinguish among spelling patterns of words (Stanovich, 2000). Although smaller in population compared to those with phonological deficits, some children with reading and spelling problems have difficulty processing words orthographically (ibid.).

Children need to become automatic at recognising words to free up their cognitive energies to gain meaning from text. Poor readers not only struggle with recognising words in text but also have difficulty suppressing irrelevant information in text, which places limitations on the use of their short-term capacity for comprehending printed material (Pressley, 2000). These students have particular difficulty in grasping and understanding of texts that contain words with multiple meanings.

Beyond the word reading level, poor readers have difficulty in making inferences about the content presented in text. According to Pressley (2000), poor readers do not connect ideas well and may not grasp the conceptual nature of the material. Problems with making inferences are partly due to poor readers' lack of prior knowledge about the content (*ibid.*). On the other hand, good readers read more and gain more knowledge each time they read material. Good readers also have a repertoire of comprehension strategies to help them construct meaning from text. Poor readers know very few strategies that aid in the construction of meaning from text or strategies for monitoring understanding of text (Pretorius, 2002).

2.8 LEARNING TO READ

As Rayner, Foorman, Perfetti, Pesetsky and Seidenberg (2001) state, learning to read is the process of acquiring the skills necessary for reading; that is, the ability to acquire meaning from print. For an adult who is a fairly good reader, reading seems like a simple, effortless and automatic skill but the process builds on cognitive, linguistic, and social skills developed in the years before reading typically begins (*ibid.*).

A child's ability learn to read, known as reading readiness, begins in infancy, as the child begins attending to the speech signals in their environment and begins producing spoken language. Children make some use of all the material that they are presented with, including every perception, concept and word that they encounter (Rayner et. al., 2001). Thus, the environment in which a child develops affects the child's ability to learn to read. The amount of time that a child spends together with parents or other important caregivers while listening to them read is a good predictor of the level of reading that the child will attain later in life. As a child sits with a caregiver, looking at pictures and listening to stories, he or she will slowly learn that all the different lines on each page make different symbols and then together they make words (Pretorius, 2002; Rayner et. al., 2001).

Taking time to read is the most important precursor to a child's development of reading. Preschool-aged children with limited exposure to books and reading in their home, including limited experience of reading are at risk of reading difficulties. For example, these children tend to have less exposure to literary phrases, such as "Once upon a time", and have smaller vocabularies, both factors that affect the ability to read by limiting comprehension of text. The environment in which a child lives may also affect their ability to acquire reading skills. Children who are regularly exposed to chronic environmental noise pollution, such as highway traffic noise, have been known to show decreased ability to discriminate between phonemes as well as lower reading scores on standardised tests (Wolf & Stoodley, 2007).

Thus, the ideal process of emergent or early literacy begins in the relationship between hearing spoken language, seeing written language and feeling loved. The positive feeling that arises from spending time with books in a loving context provides a strong foundation and intrinsic motivation for the long and cognitively challenging process of learning to read (Wolf & Stoodley, 2007).

2.9 RESEARCH CONDUCTED ON READING

Delrose (2015) investigated the effect of an encoding framework. Learners are actively engaged in the process relying on their current level of knowledge to construct words. Any attempt was viewed as a success that can be gradually improved by feedback and increased phonological and phonemic awareness. This study investigated whether encoding practice embedded in a narrative context would improve participants' developmental spelling patterns across intervention sessions, and whether scores on measures of phonological awareness, alphabetic knowledge, print knowledge, language abilities, and spelling would improve following the 18 intervention sessions. Findings of the study suggest that students with developmental disabilities have the potential to learn early reading skills when given direct instruction and practice.

Tausch (2012) investigated the effects of a six-week intervention designed to increase syntactic awareness, including meta-awareness of key structures of English for young ESL students in the upper elementary grades. Twenty typically-developing ESL students in the fourth and fifth grades participated in an intervention programme that consisted of 35-minute training in syntactic awareness (SA) or phonemic awareness

(PA) for three times per week. The ability to produce embedded and conjoined structures, including changes in both oral language and reading, were examined. The results indicated that the time spent on higher-level language was not at the expense of word recognition skills, consistent with an interactive model of reading that suggests an interaction between higher level language (i.e., top-down) and decoding print (i.e., bottom-up) occurs to result in word recognition.

The purpose of a study by Brazier-Carter (2008) was to explore whether storybooks designed to elicit talk about letters and sounds, termed “alphabet-storybooks” would generate more print referencing behaviours from Head Start teachers than traditional storybooks, and if there would be a concomitant positive impact on the learning of the children in these classrooms. In addition, the meaning reference behaviours of adults and impact on children were measured to determine if meaning was sacrificed at the expense of print referencing. Results revealed that Head Start teachers changed their book reading interactions following four training sessions in all categories of behaviours measured, as demonstrated by significant main effects for time for both meaning and form. Similarly, children improved across time in both book reading conditions as demonstrated by significant main effects for time for measures of vocabulary, print concepts, and PA.

Downey (2010) investigated how three-, four-, and five-year-old children use referring expressions across increasingly more decontextualised tasks as defined by the Situational-Discourse-Semantic (SDS) Model. The participants included four 3-year-old children, 12 four-year-old children, and 20 five-year-old children. Through this study, the researcher gained insights into referring expressions, including what they are and how they are used in contextualised and decontextualised language samples. In examining the language samples, the researcher explored how children use referring expressions, including the use of cohesive ties and types of errors children produce. Although looking at the language samples from this syntactic perspective is useful, this study also considered the effects of context and meaning and how these semantic-pragmatic variables affect the use of referring expressions.

The purposes of a study by Dentisak (2010) were (i) to compare the reading comprehension test scores of the students who learned with the Text Structure Reading Strategy (TSRS) CALL programme and those who studied texts from the

Voice of America Special English Programme web pages, and (ii) to explore the students' opinions toward the TSRSCALL programme and its usefulness. The findings of the study indicated that the students with medium English proficiency who learned with the TSRSCALL programme did not have significantly higher post-test scores than the medium proficiency ones who did not learn with the programme. The students with low English proficiency who learned with the TSRSCALL programme had significantly higher post-test scores ($p < .01$) than the low proficiency students who did not learn with the programme. Overall, the students who learned with the programme had significantly higher post-test scores ($p < .01$) than the students who did not learn with the programme. The students who learned with the TSRS CALL programme had very positive opinions toward the programme and its usefulness ($X = 3.86$, S.D. = .64).

The purpose of Rego (1991) study was to investigate the possibility of two meta-linguistic factors, one operating at the level of the word, namely phonological awareness and the other operating at the level of the syntactic and semantic constraints of sentences, which may interact in the initial stages of reading. To investigate this possibility a two-year longitudinal study comprising 60 children from the age of 4-11 was setup. The children were seen in five different testing sessions and given phonological, syntactic and semantic awareness tasks before they began to make progress in reading. They were also given standardised intelligence and vocabulary tests. Short-term verbal memory was also measured. The findings indicated that children's knowledge of the alphabetic codes develop gradually and that incomplete knowledge of word spelling may interact with sentence level information to help children read unfamiliar words.

2.9.1 Evaluation of the Previous Studies

An important finding gained from the evaluation of the previous studies is that instructional approaches and intervention programmes on reading comprehension were not the prime focus in most of the 1990s studies. The researchers aimed at studying the variables related to reading such as goals of reading style, motivation and success in reading, parental involvement in reading, reading ability and attitude, home environment and reading achievement, reading habit and school factors and so on.

However, in the early 21st century, researchers shifted their emphasis to designing a certain instructional programmes to improve the reading skills of learners and students

at primary, secondary and tertiary level. For instance, effects of encoding practice (EP) on alphabet and phonemic awareness (PA) (Delrose, 2015); a syntax-based reading intervention (SBRI) for English as second-language learners (Tausch, 2012); enhancing English reading comprehension through a “Text Structure Reading Strategy Call Program” (TSRS) (Dentisak, 2010); and an evaluation of the teaching of reading skills of English (Brazier-Carter, 2008, & Downey, 2010).

The major gap between the current study and the previous research is that all of them did not give due consideration to Grade 3 learners specifically. Since this grade level is a pivotal point and a critical period in learners’ educational development (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2011; Chang & Romero, 2008; Hernandez, 2012; Lloyd, 1978), the current study addressed reading instruction for Grade 3, which was not widely addressed in previous studies.

Moreover, the CFLR framework was selected as the intervention for the current study which is different from the interventions used by the previous studies. It involves most important elements essential in reading (linguistic knowledge, cipher knowledge and lexical knowledge). CFLR gives emphasis to oral language comprehension and written language comprehension. According to Catts, Adlof, Hogan and Ellis-Weismer (2006), Scarborough (2005) and Scott (2004), these two elements contribute to the reading of early grade learners. They also pointed out that one of the major difficulties for school-age learners is the discrepancy between oral and written language that becomes more apparent by third or fourth grade. Thus, the current study investigates the effect of CFLR to improve the reading of Grade 3 learners through oral and written language development.

2.9.2 Implications of the Previous Research for the Study

The noteworthy feature identified in the above studies is that they studied reading comprehension along with variables like attitude, school and home environment, habit, resource facilities, and intervention strategies to solve the reading problem of learners at the various level of schooling. This has greatly assisted the present investigation to focus on language comprehension and decoding variables that have not been investigated previously.

The previous studies were used as a foundation investigating the effect of CFLR on reading skill of Grade 3 learners. For instance, variables such as reading problems, library use, home conditions, school conditions, reading habits, skills-based instruction and reading programmes as well as various psychological variables such as reading attitude, motivation and self-concept were identified as factors affecting the skill of reading comprehension of learners in the current study.

In the process of data collection, many of the investigators developed reading passages and comprehension questions from similar grade level text books. The validated tools and questionnaires were very helpful for the present investigation, as they provided the current researcher with clear direction on preparation of data-collection tools. Therefore, the current researcher conducted the study in a scientific way based on previous research.

2.10 COGNITIVE FOUNDATIONS OF LEARNING TO READ (CFLR)

The Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) framework provides a concise and very understandable summary of the research findings related to how children learn to read. A graphical representation of the framework presented below (Figure 2.3) helped the researcher to become more familiar with the cognitive elements that are essential in learning to read and to help him to visualise how the elements fit together in the "big picture" of reading acquisition. The framework also assisted him to understand what is involved in learning to read.



Figure 2.3: Graphic representation of Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR)

Source (Wren, Litke, Jinkins, Paynter, Watts & Alanis, 2001:13).

The CFLR model provides a concise and very understandable summary of how learners learn to read and the systematic ways to assess learning difficulties. According to this model, learners' reading difficulties can be best understood and helped through deep investigation in to the contribution of linguistic knowledge, cipher knowledge and lexical knowledge in enhancing the reading skills of early grade learners. Furthermore, Murray and Christison (2010) and Nel (2011) indicate that learners' language development serves as the building block for the development of reading skill.

The CFLR model was created as a suite of tools designed to help teachers develop effective and learner-centred instructional strategies for reading. The framework is the centerpiece because the first priority is to help teachers gain an "expert" view of reading acquisition. Using this conceptual framework as the "big picture" of reading acquisition, teachers can examine what each learner should learn in each grade, and they can develop a more coherent reading program so that one class complements and supports the next (Wren et. al., 2001).

The framework's content and the organisation are derived from scientific research conducted in a variety of disciplines such as education, linguistics, cognitive science and psychology. The accompanying text was created to support teachers' and researchers understanding of the elements and the structure represented in the graphical framework.

CFLR framework will assist in designing intervention strategies for learners with reading difficulties. Because the framework gives emphasis to two major elements: oral language decoding and written language comprehensions. These two elements have been considered by various researchers as they contribute to the reading of early grade learners. For instance, Catts et al. (2005), Scarborough (2005) and Scott (2004) state that one of the major difficulties for school-age learners is the discrepancy between oral and written language that becomes more apparent by third or fourth grade. At this age, reading problems may become apparent for readers who have good word recognition skills but lack the language skills to comprehend.

Furthermore, the framework is supported by various research findings previously conducted. For instance, according to Snow et al. (1998), there are three potential stumbling blocks which hamper children on the journey to skilled reading in English. They state that difficulties with an adequate progress in learning to read English, or any other alphabetic language beyond the initial levels, depends on understanding of how sounds are represented alphabetically and sufficient practice in reading to achieve fluency with different kinds of texts. The first obstacle is difficulty in understanding and using the alphabetic principle. That is the idea that written spellings systematically represent spoken words. It is hard to comprehend connected text if word recognition is inaccurate or laborious. The second obstacle is a failure to transfer the comprehension skills of spoken language to reading and to acquire new strategies that may be specifically needed for reading. The third obstacle to reading is the absence or loss of an initial motivation to read or failure to develop a mature appreciation of the rewards of reading. In addition to this, Shaywitz (1996) indicates that cognitive studies of reading also identify phonological processing as crucial to skillful reading, and so it seems logical to suspect that poor readers may have phonological processing problems.

Furthermore, Archer, Gleason and Vachon (2003), Conderman and Strobel (2006) and Sweet (1997) state that reading research has focused on PA and phonic interventions as possible solutions for poor reading. This focus is based on the belief that the ability to decode words effectively allows poor readers to become better readers. While decoding allows access to the printed word, the ultimate goal, however, is improved reading comprehension.

Thus, CFLR, selected for the current study, addresses the most important issues of reading comprehension, namely, the language comprehension and reading comprehension skills of learners. The graphical presentation (Figure 2.4) below illustrates the framework in more detail.

From the cognitive perspective of learning to read, reading comprehension is the ability to construct linguistic meaning from written representations of language. This ability is based upon two equally important competencies. One is language comprehension—the ability to construct meaning from spoken representations of language; the second is decoding—the ability to recognise written representations of words. These two main

foundations of reading are represented by the two supporting legs in the graphic depiction of this cognitive framework (Wren et. al., 2001).

Both of these are complex abilities in themselves, each based on other abilities, as shown in the graphic. In this simple view of reading, both language comprehension

Figure 2.4: Graphical representation of language comprehension-1

Source (Wren et. al., 2001:20)

and decoding are necessary for reading comprehension success (Christle & Yell, 2008). Neither is sufficient in itself. On the one hand, being fully competent in a language but having no ability to recognise its written words will not allow for successful reading comprehension; on the other hand, neither will having the ability to recognise the written words of a language but not having the ability to understand their meaning. In this view, the only route to successful reading comprehension is through success in both language comprehension and decoding. Weakness in either ability will result in weak reading comprehension. Thus, knowing where obstacles to reading and its acquisition exist requires assessing both language comprehension and decoding abilities (Wren et. al., 2001).



2.10.1 Language Comprehension

Figure 2.4 depicts that the ability to construct the meaning of spoken language, or language comprehension, requires a complex mix of different abilities, each dependent on the other.

However, two large domains of knowledge are required for success. The first is linguistic knowledge, or knowledge of the formal structures of a language. The second is background knowledge, or knowledge of the world, which includes the content and procedural knowledge acquired through interactions with the surrounding environment. The combination of these two allows us to make inferences from language. We can go beyond the literal interpretation allowed by competence in the language, to inferences from language that are built in combination with our knowledge of the world (Wren et. al., 2001).

2.10.1.1 Linguistic knowledge

Knowledge that underlies competence in a language can be divided into three large domains. The first domain is phonology which describes knowledge of the sound structure of a language and of the basic elements that convey differences in meaning, including their internal structure and their relationships to each other. The child who cannot produce or hear the sounds that distinguish one word from another will not be able to use language effectively to communicate. The second domain is semantics that deal with the meaning components of language, both at the level of individual units (words and their meaningful parts, or morphemes, such as "pre" in the word "preview") and at the higher levels that combine these units (morphemes into words, words into sentences, sentences into discourse) (Wren et. al., 2001).

Thus, part of linguistic knowledge involves learning the individual meanings of words (or vocabulary) as well as the meaning of larger segments—sentences and discourse structures (e.g., narratives and expositions). The third domain is syntax which constitutes the rules of language that specify how to combine different classes of words (e.g., nouns, verbs, adjectives) to form sentences. In short, syntax defines the structural relationship between the sounds of a language (phonological combinations) and the meaning of those combinations (Wren et al., 2001).

2.10.1.2 Background knowledge

Knowing how the everyday world works, in terms of both content and procedures, is a crucial component of language comprehension. While linguistic knowledge represents the rules for how language operates, background knowledge represents the substance on which language operates (Yazdanpanah, 2007). In communicating through language, successful comprehension requires both the ability to use the language and knowledge of the substance to be communicated (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2010; Wren et al., 2001).

According to Yazdanpanah, (2007), one way to describe such knowledge is in terms of schemata—structures that represent our understandings (e.g., of events and their relationships). Schemata can represent fairly common knowledge (e.g., dining in a restaurant, including being seated, ordering, being served, eating, and finally paying a bill) or fairly esoteric knowledge (e.g., how computer programs complete searches for information). If you have a well-developed schema in a particular domain of knowledge, then understanding a conversation relevant to that domain is much easier because you already have a meaningful structure in place for interpreting the conversation (Wren et. al., 2001).

2.10.2 Decoding

Alphabetic languages are those whose writing systems relate the written and spoken form of words systematically. In English, both systematic and unsystematic (or idiosyncratic) relationships exist, and the successful reader must master both. Decoding is the ability to recognise both types of relationships between written and spoken words, and both of these are necessary for successful word recognition. Knowing these systematic relationships allows us to read many new words that we have never before encountered in written form. Knowing the exceptions allows us to access the meaning of a known word whose spelling violates the systematic relationships (Wren et. al., 2001).

2.10.2.1 Cipher knowledge

The systematic relationships between written and spoken words are those that consistently relate the units of the written word (the letters of the alphabet) and the units of the spoken word (not the sounds themselves, but the abstract units—the

phonemes—that underlie the sounds). Knowledge of these relationships is known as cipher knowledge. As an example, a word like "pad" exemplifies a systematic relationship between three letters and three phonemes. But "colonel" represents a systematic relationship between only its initial and latter units, not its medial ones (contrast this with the systematic relationship in "colon"). If a child learns the systematic relationships, s/he can recognise words s/he has never before encountered in print, but whose meaning s/he already knows from the course of language acquisition (Wren et. al., 2001).

2.10.2.2 Lexical knowledge

Beyond the systematic relationships captured in cipher knowledge are the exceptions—those instances where the relationships between the units of the spoken and written word are unique and do not follow a systematic pattern. Knowledge of these exceptions, or lexical knowledge, is necessary for a learner to be able to access the meaning of words s/he knows (e.g., "stomach") but that do not entirely follow the patterns captured in her/his cipher knowledge (Wren et al., 2001).

2.10.2.3 The basis of cipher and lexical knowledge

To learn the two types of relationships upon which decoding ability depends, a number of other abilities are needed (Wren et al., 2001).

i. Letter knowledge

In English letter knowledge is the ability to recognise and manipulate the letters of the alphabet units/ the writing system (Wren et al., 2001). Knowing the names of letters is not what is crucial here (although most children learn to distinguish letters by learning letter names); rather, what is important is being able to reliably recognise each of the letters (ibid.).

ii. Phoneme awareness

Phoneme awareness is the conscious knowledge that words are built from a discrete set of abstract units, or phonemes, coupled with the conscious ability to manipulate these units (Wren et al., 2001). A learner with phonological deficit most likely exhibits reading difficulty (Hagtvet, 1997; Wolf & O'Brien, 2001). The learner must be consciously able to recognise and manipulate these units of the spoken word—the

phonemes. The knowledge behind this ability must be explicit, not implicit. That is, any learner who knows a language can implicitly recognise and manipulate the sounds of the language that mark differences in meaning between words (e.g., "bat" and "bag" as different words with different meanings) (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

iii. Knowledge of the alphabetic principle

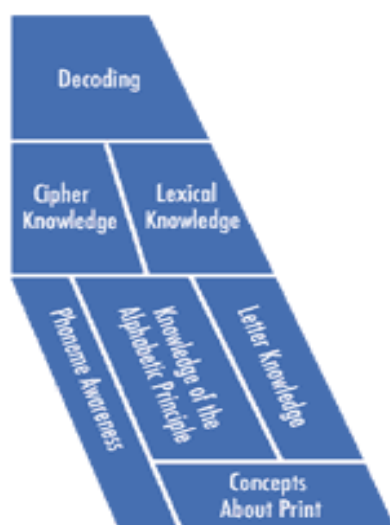
To master both the cipher and lexical knowledge components of decoding, learners must understand that there is, in general, a systematic relationship between these units, and that discerning the particular relationship is what is required to master decoding (Wren et. al., 2000). Without the intent to discover this relationship, the would-be reader will not understand the task given. This intent is captured in knowledge of the alphabetic principle: knowing that a systematic relationship exists between the internal structure of written and spoken words, and that the task of learning to recognise individual words requires discovering this relationship (Gough, Hoover & Peterson, 1996).

iv. Concept about print

Finally, the basis for knowledge of letters and the alphabetic principle is knowledge of the mechanics of the printed word, or concepts about print. This includes knowing that printed text carries a linguistic meaning, that there is a correspondence between printed and spoken words, and that text in English runs left-to-right and top-to-bottom on a page.

Generally, the above conceptual framework is complemented by a graphical image (Figure 2.3) to help teachers visualize how the building blocks of reading acquisition fit together. This graphical image was designed to represent the fact that the ability to read and understand text depends equally upon the ability to decode words and the ability to comprehend spoken language (Catts, Hogan, & Adlof, 2005; Hoover & Gough, 1990). The graphical representation of the framework resembles the capital letter A, in which two legs come together to form an apex. Analogously, reading comprehension is supported by two equally important "legs" – decoding and language comprehension. It can also be put as $R = D \times C$; where R stands for reading, D is

decoding and C refers to language comprehension (Wren et al., 2001; Pressley, 2006,



& Kirby & Savage, 2008).

Figure 2.5. Graphic representation of language comprehension-2

Source (Wren et. al., 2001:15)

2.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter two presented review of related literature. The chapter introduced schema theory as the theoretical framework that framed the study. The chapter defined schema as an arrangement in semantic memory that indicates the general structure of a body of knowledge; and depicted how it is linked with reading activity. The chapter also consulted literature on the area of reading. For instance, the importance of reading, models of reading process in second language, causes and types of reading difficulty, characteristics of students with reading difficulties, essence of learning to read are addressed in the chapter. Studies conducted on reading are also revised in the chapter. Furthermore, CFLR was explained with graphical illustration. Therefore, this chapter firmly framed the study with appropriate theoretical and conceptual framework in order to address the research questions and objectives of the study. Besides, the review of related literature helped the researcher to be familiar with previously discovered and what is still unknown and not investigated.

CHAPTER 3:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009), research methodology is the means by which researchers undertake their study by describing, explaining and predicting phenomena. Creswell (2009) also defines it as the methods of the study by which the researcher gains knowledge and plan for the activities to be done in the study.

This chapter presented the methodology employed for the study for the investigation of the effect of CFLR on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners in 10 selected primary

schools found two towns in the region of SNNPR, Ethiopia. The chapter also discussed the study area, the population, samples and sampling methods employed and tools of data collection. Furthermore, the chapter addressed the issues of reliability, validity, the plan of data collection and ethical issues.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

According to Morgan (2007) and Creswell (2009), a paradigm is an integral part of scientific research. This is because research is affected and guided by the particular perspective the researcher holds. The perspectives of the researcher are termed a paradigm (set of basic beliefs). Therefore, the researcher's set of basic beliefs are central to research design because they have an impact on the purpose of the research, the nature of the research questions and the way the researcher addresses the research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2006). A paradigm is also defined as a pattern of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline by providing lenses, frames and processes through which an investigation is accomplished (Maxwell, 2011; Morgan, 2007). Therefore, a researcher needs to conduct a study within a specific paradigm that provides a broad view or perspective of the issue under investigation.

Research design and the researcher's paradigmatic perspective on research are interrelated. According to Creswell (2009), a researchers' basic belief guides him to employ a certain research method in his research under one of the following paradigms: positivism, constructivism or pragmatism. To locate the study in appropriate research paradigm, each of these paradigms has been discussed in the following sections.

3.2.1 The Positivist Research Paradigm

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), the French philosopher August Comte is regarded as the father of the positivist paradigm. He emphasised observation and reason as a means of understanding human behaviour. This means of understanding and exploring social reality was believed to be the foundation of the positivist paradigm. True knowledge is based on the experience of the senses and can be obtained by observation and experiment. Positivistic thinkers adopt their scientific method as a means of knowledge generation (Scotland, 2012).

The foundation of the positivist paradigm is the knowledge attained through articulated observations and controlled experiment. The assumption of this perspective is that real events can be observed empirically and explained with logic (Paul, 2004). Therefore, truth is established by looking at the facts. This entails that all attained findings would be confirmed with evidence. With these assumptions of science, the ultimate goal of science is to integrate and systematise findings into a meaningful pattern or theory which is regarded as tentative and not the ultimate truth; and the theory is subject to revision or modification as new evidence is found (ibid.).

The positivistic paradigm, thus, systematises the knowledge generation process with the help of quantification, which is essentially to enhance precision in the description of parameters and the discernment of the relationship among them. Although the positivistic paradigm influenced educational research for a long time in the latter half of the 20th century, it was criticised due to its lack of regard for the subjective states of individuals. It regards human behavior as passive, controlled and determined by the external environment. Hence, human beings are dehumanised without their intention, individualism and freedom being taken into account in viewing and interpreting social reality. According to the critics of this paradigm, objectivity needs to be replaced by subjectivity in the process of scientific inquiry. This gave rise to anti-positivism or naturalistic inquiry.

3.2.2 Constructivist Research Paradigm

Constructivism paradigm is one of the most prominent perspectives of learning theories used during the last two decades of the 20th century. Many modern pedagogical theories and practices around the world favor Vygotsky's social constructivist and Piaget's radical constructivist approaches to instructional approach due to the significant contribution of the paradigm to the classroom activities (Johri, 2005).

Constructivism is an epistemological view of knowledge acquisition that accentuates knowledge construction rather than knowledge transmission and the recording of information conveyed by others (Glaserfeld, 2007). Constructivism encompasses learners' interpretation of knowledge and understanding from the experiences

developed from active learning (Riegler, 2007). Therefore, for anything that we are familiar with, we recognise only the knowledge we construct in our conceptual world.

3.2.3 Pragmatism Research Paradigm

Pragmatism is certainly not new to the social sciences, and there are several good reviews of pragmatism, both as a general belief system for the social sciences and as a specific justification for combining qualitative and quantitative methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2006; Maxcy, 2003).

Table 3.1. Summary of the pragmatism framework

| | Qualitative Approach | Quantitative Approach | Pragmatic Approach |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| Connection of theory and data | Induction | Deduction | Abduction |
| Relationship to research process | Subjectivity | Objectivity | Inter subjectivity |
| Inference from Data | Context | Generality | Transferability |

Morgan (2007) states that the pragmatic approach relies on a version of abductive reasoning that moves back and forth between induction and deduction; first converting observations into theories and then assessing those theories through action. Abduction refers to the use of theories to account for observations, and thus, as an aspect of inductive inferences. From a pragmatic point of view, however, the only way to assess those inferences is through action. Hence, one of the most common uses of abduction in pragmatic reasoning is to further a process of inquiry that evaluates the results of prior inductions through their ability to predict the workability of future lines of behaviour (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2006; Morgan, 2007).

This particular version of the abductive process is quite familiar to researchers who combine qualitative and quantitative methods in a sequential fashion, where the inductive results from a qualitative approach can serve as inputs to the deductive goals of a quantitative approach, and vice versa (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009; Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska & Creswell, 2005). This movement back and forth between different approaches to theory and data does not have to be limited to combinations of methods within a single project. A far more interesting option is to explore the potential for working back and forth between the kinds of knowledge produced under the separate banners of qualitative and quantitative research (Franke & Jager, 2013).

Since the study followed a mixed-methods research design, it was guided by the pragmatic research paradigm. This perspective guided the researcher to investigate the effect of the independent variables of the current study, the CFLR reading instruction method and conventional teaching methods on the dependent variable (reading skill of Grade 3 learners). The effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable were observed and measured from a positivist perspective because the objective view of this paradigm could be used to manipulate what and how things are and how things should be.

Based on this research paradigm, the researcher recognised that the actual observation and measurement of the magnitude of learners' reading skills should be compared with that of a pre-test result of a control group and an experimental group. The magnitude of the effectiveness of CFLR was also determined. This guided the researcher to employ numerical data analysis for the quantitative data and to generalise the findings to the population from which the samples were selected (Descombes, 2003).

The data generated from a qualitative approach i.e., observation and semi-structured interview were used to supplement the quantitative data with the insight of the research participants.

3.3 DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Quantitative and qualitative approaches are not polar opposites as the traditional labels of positivistic and interpretivist imply. It should be kept in mind that it is not the case that certain methods (e.g., questionnaires, interviews and tests) are inherently either qualitative or quantitative. Questionnaire results, for example, can be analysed quantitatively by determining what percentage of respondents answered in a particular manner, or qualitatively, by examining in detail the exact responses individuals provided and using them to triangulate other data from those same participants. The study was conducted using a mixed methodology in which quantitative and qualitative supplement each other. The quantitative part consisted of a quasi-experimental research design and the qualitative part used a case study design.

More specifically, the study was conducted under concurrent triangulation design by which quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously. For instance,

both questionnaires and semi-structured interview were conducted at the same time with the same participants, and then the researcher compares the quantitative and qualitative results.

3.3.1 Quantitative Part

According to Ary, Jacobs and Sorensen (2010) and Bordens and Abbott (2011), quantitative research methodology stresses the importance of a large group of randomly selected participants, manipulating variables within the participants' immediate environment, and determining whether there is a relationship between the manipulated (independent) variable and some characteristic or behaviour of the participants (the dependent variable). Bordens and Abbott (2011) also indicate that statistical procedures are used to determine whether the relationship is significant; and when it is significant, the results are typically generalised to a larger population beyond the immediate group of participants. At best, quantitative research is systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts (ibid.). Quantitative research is primarily aimed at testing hypotheses (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

Gay, Mills and Airasian (2006) state that quantitative research can be classified into one of the two broad research categories: experimental research (causal-comparative research, experimental research and single-subject experimental research); and non-experimental research (descriptive and correlational research).

Experimental design is a study design used to test cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). It is also a method of research in the social sciences (such as sociology or psychology) in which a controlled experimental factor is subjected to special treatment for purposes of comparison with a factor kept constant (ibid.). This kind of research is guided by hypotheses that state the anticipated relationship between two or more variables (Pashler, 2002).

Therefore, the quantitative part of the study was located in the quasi-experimental design. The quasi-experimental study (non-equivalent control group design) is a type of evaluation that seeks to determine whether effective instructional approach would have the intended causal effect on solving the reading difficulty of Grade 3 learners at

selected primary schools. According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) quasi-experiment is a quantitative research design that does not randomly assign samples to the study. Hossein (2012:511) also defines quasi-experimental research (a naturally occurring group design) as an experimental research design in which the researcher cannot assign participants randomly to conditions and manipulate the independent variable; instead, comparisons are made between groups that already exist or within a single group before and after a quasi-experimental treatment has occurred. Quasi-experimental designs are practical compromise designs that are recommended where better designs (e.g., true experimental designs) are not feasible (ibid.).

Hence, the study selected sample schools using a convenience sampling technique which is also termed a non-random sampling method. Therefore, the study used a non-equivalent control group design to work with intact classrooms in both the experimental and the control groups. This is due to its practical application in educational research, and has been used by various educational researchers. For instance, several researchers favour the non-equivalent control group design as a suitable approach to employ in various studies in which true experiments are not possible (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Blessing & Florister, 2012; Delamont, 2012; Hancock & Mueller, 2010; Jackson, 2012; Johnson & Christenson, 2012).

It was not possible to randomly assign study participants to the experimental and control groups in the study as this would have interfered with the existing teaching schedules of participating schools. Cook (2002:42) also states that “random assignment is rare in research on the effectiveness of strategies to improve student’s performance”. The reason for non-randomised assigning of learners into experimental and control groups is to prohibit dissemination and contamination of information, and manage rivalry between learners (Gaigher, Rogan & Brown, 2006).

Several studies such as Baker and White (2003); Fox and Bolton (2003); Liu (2005); Turner and Lapan (2005); Gaigher et al. (2006); Ozmen(2008); and Chih-Ming and Yi-Lun (2009) used non-equivalent control group design to determine the effect of a certain educational approach on the performance of primary and high school learners. These studies indicated that the non-equivalent control group design is convenient because practical constraints affect the possibility of random allocation of respondents to either the experimental group or the control group. The studies also indicated that

the random assignment of samples is not practicable because intact classes are already formed before the research is begun. Based on the above grounds, it is possible to infer that educational researchers in recent years have commonly used non-equivalent control group design (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

Hence, the study employed the non-equivalent control group design because to randomly selection of learners and assign them in to the control and experimental groups was not realistic. The study used intact classrooms as experimental and control groups. Random assignment and reorganisation of learners in to experimental and control groups obliterates the systematic arrangement and normal running of the teaching-learning process in the participating schools. Thus, the study did not employ random selection and assigning of participants into the experimental and control schools. In the experimental schools, five intact groups, consisting of Grade 3 English learners participated. A similar arrangement was employed in the control schools.

As indicated above, in the experimental study there were experimental (treatment) groups and control groups. As the name suggests, the treatment group received the intervention. The control group, however, got the business-as-usual conditions, meaning they only received conventional instructional approach. This was based on the assumption established by the pre-test result of both groups that both the treatment group and the control group were statistically similar. While no two groups will ever be exactly alike, the best way to be sure that they are as close as possible is having intact groups into the treatment and control group (Hosseini, 2012).

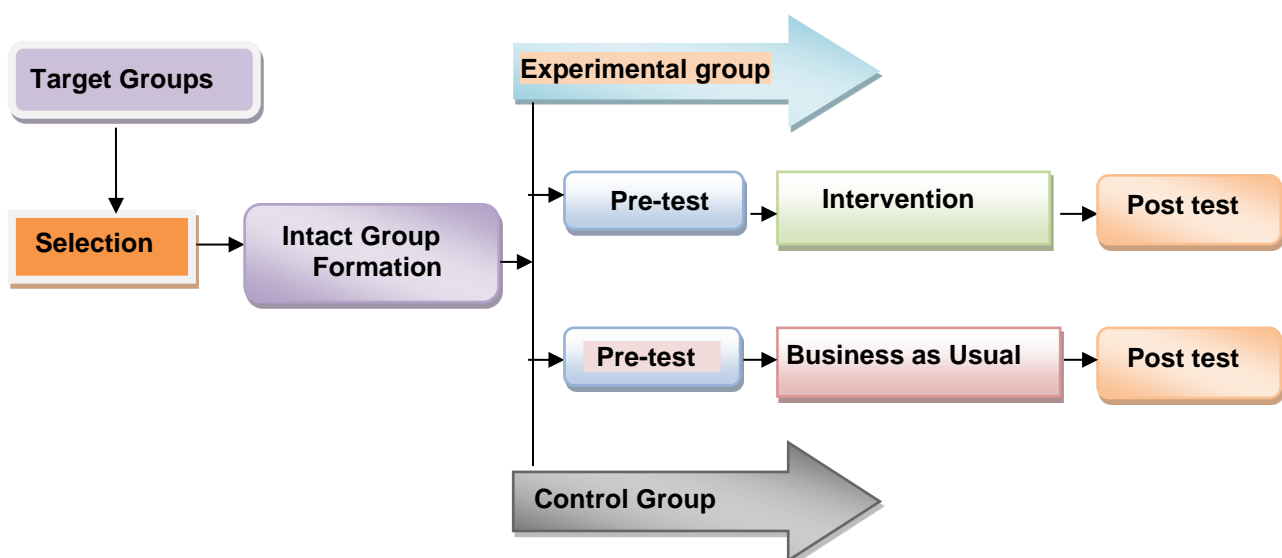


Figure 3.1: Experimental design of the study

3.3.2 Qualitative Part

Qualitative research methodology is defined as an approach that emphasises the study of purposively-selected small samples of individuals, not attempting to control contextual factors, but rather seeking, through a variety of methods, to understand things from the informants' points of view, and creating a rich, in-depth picture of the phenomena under investigation (Berg, 2009; Hossein, 2012:503). Qualitative research is also synthetic or holistic (i.e., it views the separate parts as a coherent whole), heuristic (i.e., discovers or describes the patterns or relationships), with little or no control and manipulation of the research context, and uses data collection procedures with low explicitness (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The ultimate goal of qualitative research is to patterns of behaviour not previously described and to understand them from the perspective of participants in the activity. It is characterised by rich description, natural and holistic representation (or participant or insider point of view), cyclical and open-ended processes, various ideological orientations and interpretive analysis (Hossein, 2012:506).

Creswell (2009) states that qualitative researchers are especially interested in how things occur. Hence, they are likely to observe how people interact with each other; how certain kinds of questions are answered; the meanings that people give to certain words and actions; how people's attitudes are translated into actions; how students seem to be affected by a teacher's manner, gestures, or comments; and the like (ibid.). A special interest of qualitative researchers lies in the perspectives of the subjects of a study (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative researchers want to know what the participants in a study are thinking and why they think what they do. Assumptions, motives, reasons, goals, and values are all of interest and likely to be the focus of the researcher's questions (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005).

Therefore, in the study, in addition to the quantitative method, the qualitative research method, specifically a case study design, was also used to observe and interview research participants (learners, teachers and parents) regarding the success of the CFLR instructional approach by comparing it with the conventional reading instruction. The data found from the quantitative method was supplemented by the data collected via qualitative method under concurrent triangulation design.

The study was conducted in 10 selected primary schools found in Hawassa and Dilla towns. Hawassa is the capital city of South Nation Nationalities and People Region (SNNPR). It is 275kilometres to the south of the capital city, Addis Ababa. The five primary schools selected from this area were SH1, SH2, SH3, SH4 and SH5, where SH stands for Schools found in Hawassa city. Similarly, Dilla town administration is the capital town of Gedeo Zone, which is one of the nine major zones of SNNPR. The zone is found inthe southern part of Ethiopia and 360kilometres south of Addis Ababa, and 90kilometres the south of Hawassa town. The schools randomly selected from this area were SD1, SD2, SD3, SD4 and SD5, where SD stands for Schools found in Dilla town. The codes are used for confidentiality of the sampled schools.



Sampling technique refers to the procedure employed to select research participants. Sampling techniques provide for manageable and accessible representation of the population and minimise wastage of time, energy and finance in collecting data (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). This section presents the population, samples and sampling techniques employed in the current study.

3.5.1 The Population of the Study

The population of the study includes parents, Grade 3 English language teachers and Grade 3 English language learners from 10 selected primary schools found in Hawassa city and Dilla city.

All participating schools were government-funded public schools where education is free for all learners. All schools are governed by the same educational policies, rules and regulations. They follow the same curriculum, syllabus and lesson plans. According to Dilla City Administration Education Office, at the time of conducting the study, there were 1,273 Grade 3 learners and 5 English language teachers at five publicly-funded primary schools in Dilla. According to the entries and records of learners and teachers available at the Hawassa City Administration Education Office, for 2016/2017 academic year, there were 4,292 Grade 3 learners and 20 English language teachers at 20 publicly-funded primary schools in Hawassa. Table 3.2 present a profile of schools in the experimental and control schools.

Table 3.2. Profile of schools in the experimental and control schools

| Group Type | School Status | School Code | Teachers Qualification | Years of Experience | Sex | No. of Section | Periods per week | Number of English learners | | | Book-learner ratio | Teacher-learner ratio |
|--------------|---------------|-------------|------------------------|---------------------|-----|----------------|------------------|----------------------------|------|------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | | | | | | | | M | F | T | | |
| Experimental | Public | SD1 | Diploma | 2 | F | 4 | 5 | 134 | 148 | 282 | 1-3 | 1-282 |
| | Public | SD2 | Diploma | 5 | F | 1 | 5 | 25 | 21 | 46 | 1-4 | 1-48 |
| | Public | SD3 | Diploma | 4 | F | 5 | 5 | 219 | 206 | 425 | 1-3 | 1-425 |
| | Public | SD4 | Diploma | 6 | F | 4 | 5 | 180 | 189 | 369 | 1-3 | 1-369 |
| | Public | SD5 | Diploma | 10 | F | 3 | 5 | 76 | 75 | 151 | 1-3 | 1-430 |
| Total | | | | | | 17 | 20 | 636 | 639 | 1273 | | |
| Control | Public | SH1 | Diploma | 5 | F | 1 | 5 | 35 | 32 | 67 | 1-2 | 1-67 |
| | Public | SH2 | Diploma | 10 | F | 6 | 5 | 186 | 218 | 404 | 1-3 | 1-404 |
| | Public | SH3 | Diploma | 30 | F | 3 | 5 | 89 | 97 | 186 | 1-2 | 1-186 |
| | Public | SH4 | Diploma | 20 | F | 3 | 5 | 38 | 68 | 106 | 1-3 | 1-106 |
| | Public | SH5 | Degree | 9 | F | 4 | 5 | 148 | 162 | 310 | 1-2 | 1-310 |
| Total | | | | | | | | 496 | 577 | 1073 | | |
| Grand Total | | | | | | 17 | 20 | 1132 | 1216 | 2346 | | |

3.5.2 Samples and Sampling Technique

3.5.2.1 Quantitative part

Five primary schools formed the experimental group, which were selected by the convenience sampling technique from the primary schools found in Dilla city administration. The schools chosen from this area were SD1, SD2, SD3, SD4 and SD5. The letters “SD” stands for primary schools of Dilla town. The control group was formed by five schools found in Hawassa city administration. The schools selected by convenience sampling technique from this area were SH1, SH2, SH3, SH4 and SH5. Since the names of the schools should not be exposed, the code “SH” was used to indicate primary schools found in Hawassa.

Therefore, the study used the whole 1,325 Grade 3 learners of the 10 schools to confirm that the mean of the sample (\bar{X}) was representative of the population mean (μ). Johnson and Christensen (2012:481) note that “larger samples result in smaller sampling errors, which means that the sample values will be closer to the true population, values (the parameters)”. The researcher decided the number of schools in each group (i.e. experimental and control groups) to reduce the effects of natural differences among the schools as far as possible. Even though similarities among participating schools were identified to discover equivalence, there will be always inherent distinctions among these schools (ibid.). Based on this fact, it was assumed that by limiting the number of participating schools to 10, the effect of these inherent differences could be minimised in the study.

Of the 1,325 learners, 673 (from five schools) formed the experimental group and 652 (from the remaining five schools) formed the control group. The experimental and control schools, were separated by a distance of about 90 kilo meters. According to Gaigher et al. (2006:37), “such separation effectively prevents diffusion, contamination, rivalry and demoralization”. Contamination may take place when learners in different groups interact with each other or share educational resources (Shea, Arnold & Mann, 2004).

3.5.2.2 Qualitative Part

For the qualitative data, 10 English teachers (five from each group); 10 Grade 3 learners (five from each group); and 10 parents of grade three learners (five from each group) were purposively selected to take part in the interviews. Teachers teaching in Grade 3 who participated in the research were purposively selected to give their views and opinions on the reading difficulty of their learners and the reading instructional approach they usually used.

Grade 3 learners with reading difficulties and those with good reading skills were also selected to talk about their challenges and experience in reading. Since teachers know their learners well, the researcher used their information for the selection of learners with reading problems and those with good reading skills for interviews. Furthermore, the pre-test results were also very helpful for the selection of these learners. In addition to this, parents of Grade 3 learners with reading difficulties and those with good reading skills were selected to talk about their observations and views on the reading skills and reading instructional method used in the teaching of their children.

3.6 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Ethical issues were adhered to for data collection. Permission was granted by the SNNPR Government Education Bureau to conduct the research in the region. Permission was also secured from Hawassa and Dilla City Administration Education Offices to conduct the study in the 10 selected primary schools. The administration of achievement tests, questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and observations to research participants is described in the following sections.

3.6.1 Pre-test and Post-test (Reading Achievement Test)

The study commenced with the administration of a pre-test (reading achievement test) to both groups (experimental and control). In order to verify anonymity, the study assigned index numbers to learners for use in the pre-test and post-test. They were given codes to use in the pre-test as well as in the post-test and were requested to use the same numbers for the pre-test and the post-test.

The test was allotted one and half hours for all schools. Teachers administered the test in the experimental and control schools in order to ensure that conditions remained

similar for both groups. Teachers were advised to start and end the test on time and to encourage learners to be on time for the test. They were requested to invigilate carefully and to remain at their invigilation stations during the test. These precautions helped to ensure similar conditions in all schools. The researcher supervised at one experimental school and requested the control school teachers to communicate via phone if they face any challenge. The instruments are discussed as follows:

A context-rich English reading test was adapted from the Grade 3 English syllabus. The achievement test included reading comprehension, language comprehension, decoding, syntax, lexical knowledge, cipher knowledge, letter knowledge, semantics (vocabulary and morphology), phonological awareness, and knowledge of alphabetical principles.

To ensure validity of the testing instrument, experts employed at different education institutions were invited to check the test after it was constructed. The experts were two university lecturers with doctoral qualifications in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, two university lecturers with doctoral qualifications in teaching curriculum and instructional supervision, two English curriculum advisors to primary schools, two heads of department for English at school level and two English language teachers teaching English at Grade 3 and 4 levels.

Content validity, including forms of face validity, was established for the achievement test. Face validity was established because it is necessary to judge whether measurement of learners' reading skills through the test is worth pursuing (Cohen et al., 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Rubin & Babbie, 2010). Content validity, which is the degree to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept, was established when the 10 English language practitioners confirmed that the content of the test adhered to the requirements of the Grade 3 English curriculum. Both forms of validity were established based on their judgments. The use of expert judgment on validation is widely employed in educational researches (Donkor, 2010; Hattingh & Killen, 2003; Kasanda, Lubben, Gaoseb, Kandjeo-Marenga, Kapenda & Campbell, 2005).

To further strengthen the validity of the test, the study established criterion-related validity based on the feedback from the pilot test. The validity of the test, on the basis

of its scores, was determined by its ability to distinguish between reading skills of learners who received treatment and those who did not.

3.6.2 Questionnaires

The purpose of the questionnaires was to find out detailed information about demographic data of learners and teachers who participate in the study. The background of learners included age, gender, parentage status, employment status of parents, education level of parents and access at home. The demographic detail of teachers included age, gender, category and type of qualification, years of teaching experience, in-service training undertaken, and weekly teaching load. The questionnaire on school profile comprised school ownership, location of the school, the total number of learners attended English lessons in grade 3, the number of students in one classroom, student-teacher ratio (grade 3 learners with their English language teachers), suitability of classrooms for reading instruction, student-book ratio (Grade 3 learners with English reading books), and the facilities available in the schools to enhance the reading skills of learners.

3.6.3 Classroom Observations

Gay, Mills and Airasian (2006) and Mulhall (2003) state that observation is a very important instrument so as to get the clear picture of classroom behaviour, teachers' behaviour and students' behaviour. Accordingly, the researcher prepared an observation checklist to observe the reading instruction and how teachers emphasised reading skills in English lesson; how teachers motivated learners to be engaged in reading activities; how teachers provided appropriate level passages to learners to read and then asked explicit detailed questions about the content of the passage; and how teachers provide a variety of tasks to learners to demonstrate awareness of rhyme, alliteration, and phoneme awareness.

Therefore, classroom observation in this study helped to identify the daily occurrences in the classroom and the interaction between the teachers and the learners during English reading lessons. The observation also helped to paint a rich picture of social phenomena such as the behaviour of learners in a classroom.

3.6.4 Semi-Structured Interviews

The researcher prepared semi-structured interviews and conducted with learners, teachers and parents. The semi-structured interview conducted with learners was made to be child friendly for grade3 learners. The interviews gave the participants an opportunity to verbalise and externalise their view on the instructional approaches used in experimental and control groups as well as their educational challenges. The researcher also got the chance to follow up on incomplete and unclear responses by probing the participants.

3.6.5 Intervention

During the implementation of the two instructional approaches of reading (the conventional method & CFLR), tasks were separated. In other words, the researcher implemented CFLR instruction for Grade 3 learners in the five experimental schools of Dilla, while teachers in the five control schools in Hawassa continued with their usual instructional approach in teaching reading skills.

Pertaining to the teaching skill of the researcher, before joining his university as a lecturer, he had been a qualified language teacher with a Bachelor of Arts degree in language teaching in accordance with the Ethiopian Minister of Education's policy on teachers' qualifications. In addition to this, he had six years of teaching experience as an English language teacher at primary schools, secondary schools and college level. Thus, he could easily handle the implementation of the new reading instructional approach by utilising his prior primary school exposure.

The avoidance of regular teachers' component from the experimental schools had planned to remove variations in the implementation of CFLR. Furthermore, assigning teachers to implement CFLR in the experimental school would require giving training for a period of time. This might prolong the duration of the study and make it difficult to complete the research within their fixed academic year.

According to the Ethiopian education system, the weekly time allocated for English subject is five periods, 40 minutes per period. The CFLR was implemented over a period of 12 weeks (three months), in total, 64 hours. During the period of the implementation, there was an arrangement with teachers to enable the researcher to conduct classroom observation in control schools at least once during this period,

particularly on days on which the researcher had little teaching time at the corresponding experimental schools. A summary of the CFLR instruction process is presented in the next chapter.

3.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

3.7.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

In analysing quantitative data, the researcher primarily checked whether the whole sheets (achievement test) and questionnaires given to the learners were completely done and filled. Then the sheets which were clearly and fully completed were selected to provide the data for analysis. For this purpose, the pre-test and post-test were marked to obtain the scores of the learners. Subsequently, the scores collected from the sheets served as the data.

Following this stage, the researcher used One-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) in order to determine the initial group differences in participants' pre-test scores related to performance on the dependent variable. It helped to evaluate the interaction between the covariate and the independent variable in the prediction of the dependent variable. The dependent variables were learners' reading achievement post-test scores, and the covariate was learners' pre-test scores. Before performing the ANCOVA test, the researcher evaluated the assumptions underlying it, namely, the homogeneity of regression (slope) assumption and the assumption of linearity of data distribution. Besides the use of ANCOVA, the researcher used various statistical techniques to analyse certain aspects of quantitative data. Furthermore, for the interpretation of statistical data an alpha level of 0.05 was considered acceptable for the study.

3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data were collected through classroom observations and semi-structured interviews with learners, teachers and parents. They were analysed as follows:

3.7.2.1 Data of classroom observations

Codes were given to the observations for various reasons. For instance, OEL1 indicates a learner to be observed in the experimental school. Likewise, OCL2 refers to a learner to be observed in the control group and so on. Using this system of

identification, helped not to mix up the data and enabled the researcher to link the source of a particular behaviour to a particular participant and to a particular school. Furthermore, this system ensured anonymity for all participants.

Data were transcribed and sorted according to commonalities before they were categorised into common themes. Then, the themes were represented in terms of the area of focus to which they linked in the observation schedule. Similarities and differences were identified. Finally, the themes were described and narrated accordingly.

3.7.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews with learners, teachers and parents were recorded and transcribed word for word. Similar to the observations, interviewees were also coded, for instance, ICL1, ICL2, ICL3, ICL4 and ICL5. ICL1 refers to the first learner interviewed from the control school and so on. Similarly, the interviews of teachers were also coded as ICT1, ICT1, ICT2, ICT3, ICT4 and ICT5; ICT1 stands for the first teacher interviewed. Parents' interviews were also coded as ICP1, ICP2, ICP3, ICP4, and ICP5.

The interviews of the experimental schools for learners, teachers and parents were coded as follows; For learners (IEL1, IEL2, IEL3, IEL4 and IEL5), Teachers (IET1, IET2, IET3, IET4 and IET5), Parents (IEP1, IEP2, IEP3, IEP4 and IEP5). Established codes for each school were used to label the transcribed data according to schools. Transcribed interviews were classified according to similar themes; data from each interview session were grouped under sub-headings that related to the main question. The sub-headings were compared for similarities and differences. Prominent themes that emerged from each category were interpreted.

Furthermore, the researcher checked that the interview guides and questionnaire and data analysis were statistically correct. Besides, the researcher took in to account the multiple variations in life experiences of participants (teachers, learners & parents).

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:117), ethics are generally concerned with beliefs about what is wrong and right from a moral perspective. Johnson and

Christensen (2011:100) also state that ethics are the principles and guidelines that help to uphold the things people value, while research ethics are a guiding set of principles that assist researchers in conducting ethical studies.

It was imperative for the researcher to conduct the study in an ethical manner. Therefore, ethical principles were adhered in this study to consider policies regarding permission, informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy, caring, no harm to participants and confidentiality. The researcher secured clearance from University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee, on 17 August 2016 with Ref no: 2016/08/17/49024353/26/MC. He also had permission from the Ethiopia SNNPR Government Education Bureau to conduct the research in the region. Permission was also secured from Hawassa and Dilla City Administration Education Offices to conduct the study in the selected primary schools.

Regarding informed consent, the researcher provided adequate information to potential participants concerning the purpose of the study, the procedure to be followed in carrying out the study, the advantages and disadvantages and dangers to which the participants may be exposed as well as the credibility of the researcher (Pieterse, 2010; Strydom, 2005). The informants were also informed that participation was voluntary and they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time without being penalised (Henning, Gravett & Rensburg, 2005). All disclosures of information were voluntary and by choice. The researcher also promoted a sense of caring and fairness in his thinking, actions and personal morality (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:339). More specifically, in conducting this research, respect was given to the participants' privacy by obtaining informed consent from all stakeholder and research participants. This ensured that the rights and welfare of all Grade 3 English teachers, learners and parents who participated in the study were respected and protected.

Anonymity is the other ethical issue the researcher addressed. For the protection of the participants' identities, the learners were told not to put their names on the achievement tests or questionnaires. Besides, when presenting the results of the study, steps were taken not to use the names of the participants and not to include their details which might reveal their identity such as names of the schools, section of the learners, and work place of teachers or personal characteristics. In addition to this, the code names for research participants and places were used (McMillan &

Schumacher, 2010). The knowledge and consent of participants were obtained for all recordings of individual interviews. Babbie and Mouton (2002) and Polit and Hungler (2009) state that individual identities should not be associated with the information provided and should never be publicly disclosed. The participants were also assured that all research information given by them would be treated in strict confidence. According to Pieterse (2010), confidentiality and respect for privacy involve the right of participants to control information about them. Furthermore, respondents were not exposed to any physical and psychological harm including irritation, anger, negative labeling, invasion of privacy and damage to personal dignity (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

The researcher undertook the research as competently and responsibly as possible. He was sensitive and objective and did not make value judgments that might bias the findings. The researcher was also very careful in avoiding bias and subjectivity by maintaining as much objectivity as possible in the interactions and relationships with the research participants (Strydom, 2005).

3.9 PILOT STUDY

3.9.1 Result of the Pilot Study

Pilot studies are conducted in order to identify potential problems with the design, particularly with tools and procedures of data collection (Riet & Durrheim, 2006:94). The information obtained from the pilot study is used to refine the questionnaire and the interview guide (Neuman, 2006). This is supported by De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, and Delport (2012) who indicate that the pilot study guides the researcher to identify possible problems in the proposed approach and allow the researcher to modify the methods and tools before the main study conducted.

Prior to the commencement of the main study, a pilot study was conducted over a two-week period in two primary schools which had similar socio-economic conditions with those schools selected for the current study. The two pilot schools had Grade 3 English classes and were located in completely different areas from where the main study schools Dilla and Hawassa were located. More specifically, the experimental pilot school was located 35 km to the north-west of Dilla town, and the control pilot school was 40 km to the south-east of Hawassa city. There was a 30 km distance between the

two pilot schools. These geographical locations controlled contamination and possible interaction between learners in the experimental and control schools.

The researcher implemented CFLR for reading instruction in the experimental class at A-primary school found in Chuko town in Sidama Zone, SNNPR. The regular teacher in the control group school (B-primary school) in Abosto town in Sidama zone, SNNPR employed the traditional instructional approach. The samples were convenience samples and the experimental group included 48 learners (34 boys and 14 girls); the control group involved 43 learners (29 boys and 14 girls).

The pilot study followed the schools' guidelines in the construction of the timetable for reading sessions. The English subject had four 40-minute periods per-week, which is equivalent to 2.7 hours of teaching time per week. With this time arrangement of the schools, it was possible to implement the pilot study for two weeks. It is obvious that the administration of pre-test and post-tests was the main part of the pilot study. The following table illustrates the whole activities done in the pilot study.

Table 3.3: Activities done in pilot study

| Week | Day | Lesson Activity | Research Activity |
|------|-----|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | Researcher introduce himself | Administer Pre-Test |
| | | Participants write pre-test | |
| | | Invigilation by researcher | |
| | 2-3 | Introduction of lesson (<i>Linguistic Knowledge</i>) | Intervention |
| | | Group Activity Individual Activity | Observation Observation |
| | 4-5 | Background Knowledge | Intervention |
| | | Group Activity Individual Activity | Observation Observation |
| 2 | 6-7 | Cipher knowledge & Lexical Knowledge | Intervention |
| | | Group Activity Individual Activity | Observation Observation |
| | 8-9 | The basis of Cipher and Lexical Knowledge; Letter Knowledge, Phonem Awareness, Knowledge of the Alphabetic Principle and Concept About Print | Intervention Observation Intervention |
| | | Group Activity Individual Activity | Observation Observation |
| | | Participants write Post-Test | Observation |
| | 10 | Invigilation by researcher | Administer Post-test |

3.9.2 The Results of the Pilot Study

The pilot study conducted for the study provided valuable insights into the improvements that were made to the achievement test, questionnaire and semi-structured interview, observation checklist as well as the general efficiency of the

study. The major benefit of conducting the pilot study was that it helped the researcher to identify and rectify misunderstandings, ambiguities, useless items and mechanical difficulties in the instruments.

The other benefit achieved from the results of the pilot study was that it alerted the researcher to note what challenges could arise on the implementation of CFLR as a reading instruction. Furthermore, the pilot study provided an ample opportunity for the researcher to be updated on the situation and learning environment of primary schools.

To sum up, the result of the pilot study suggested that the CFLR is effective. Based on these results, it was reasonable to expect similar results from the main study, given that the main study was to be conducted under similar conditions. The pilot schools were comparable to the schools in terms of their socio-economic status. Similar rules were applied to govern the pilot study as those applied at the schools in the main study, and it was, therefore, rational to anticipate similar results from the main study.

3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research methodology employed in the study. The research paradigm and research design were described. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the samples and sampling technique, procedure of data collection, data analysis, ethical consideration and the pilot study. The reliability and validity of the study also discussed. The next chapter presents the findings.

CHAPTER 4:

RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

4.1.1 Introduction

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009), there are various mixed-methods designs: the exploratory design, the explanatory design and triangulation design. Creswell and Plano (2011) state that exploratory design refers to the researcher's approach by which first they use the qualitative method to discover the important variables underlying a phenomenon of interest to inform the quantitative method. Then they discover the relationships among these variables. In this design, results of the qualitative phase give direction to the quantitative method. Furthermore, quantitative results are used to validate or extend the qualitative findings.

The explanatory design means that researchers will do a qualitative study but they will require additional information to flesh out the results. In this design, the researchers first carry out the quantitative research and then use a qualitative method to follow up and refine the quantitative findings (Creswell & Plano, 2011; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

With the triangulation design, as Creswell and Plano (2011) explain, the researcher uses both quantitative and qualitative methods to study the same phenomenon to determine if the two converge upon a single understanding of the research problem being investigated. In this design, the two methods are given equal priority, and all data are collected simultaneously. The data may be analysed together or separately (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009; Waltz, Strickland & Lenz, 2010). The study used a convergent triangulation mixed research design in which quantitative and qualitative method supplement each other.

The study used One-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to minimise the initial pre-existing group differences between the post-test means of the experimental and control groups. SPSS version 20.0 computer program for windows helped the study to carry out ANCOVA. Furthermore, the study employed One-way of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), t-test, and Levene's test for homogeneity of variance and correlation analysis to analyse certain aspects of quantitative data.

4.1.2 Demographic Details of Participants

The study involved Grade 3 learners from two city administrations found in SNNPR, Ethiopia. To verify the status of the participants, the researcher collected and analysed their demographic details. This analysis helped to establish the suitability of the participants to the study. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) researchers can get a comprehensive and holistic picture of the phenomenon of their study from the demographic data of the participants. The following Table 4.1 presents the demographic data of the whole, 1325 (100%) participants of the experimental and control group.

Table 4.1 Aggregate value of parentage status

| Parentage Status | Female | | Male | | n | % |
|--|---------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| | N | % | n | % | | |
| No parents but living with other neighbors | 24 | 3.8 | 17 | 2.5 | 41 | 3.1 |
| Living with guardian | 25 | 3.9 | 25 | 3.6 | 50 | 3.8 |
| Living with single parent | 48 | 7.6 | 51 | 7.4 | 99 | 7.5 |
| Living with both parents | 537 | 84.7 | 598 | 86.5 | 1135 | 85.7 |
| Total | 634 | 100.0 | 691 | 100.0 | 1325 | 100.0 |
| Parental Education Status | Female | | Male | | n | % |
| | N | % | n | % | | |
| Illiterate | 16 | 2.5 | 14 | 2.0 | 30 | 2.3 |
| primary school | 59 | 9.3 | 63 | 9.1 | 122 | 9.2 |
| High school | 213 | 33.6 | 192 | 27.8 | 405 | 30.6 |
| TTI & Diploma | 297 | 46.8 | 361 | 52.2 | 658 | 49.7 |
| BA degree & above | 49 | 7.7 | 61 | 8.8 | 110 | 8.3 |
| Total | 634 | 100.0 | 691 | 100.0 | 1325 | 100.0 |
| Parental Employment Status | Female | | Male | | n | % |
| | N | % | n | % | | |
| Unemployed | 20 | 3.2 | 30 | 4.3 | 50 | 3.8 |
| Self-employed | 76 | 12.0 | 84 | 12.2 | 160 | 12.1 |
| Non-Government employed | 82 | 12.9 | 106 | 15.3 | 188 | 14.2 |
| Government employed | 456 | 71.9 | 471 | 68.2 | 927 | 70.0 |
| Total | 634 | 100.0 | 691 | 100.0 | 1325 | 100.0 |

4.1.2.1 Gender distribution of the samples

As Table 4.2 shows, the study sampled 1,325 participants, which comprised 691 (52.2%) boys and 634 (47.8%) girls. From the total 673 (100%) participants of the experimental group, male and female learners constitute 339 (50.4%) and 334 (49.6%)

respectively. Likewise, in the control group, there were 352 (54%) male and 300 (46%) female learners, which accounted for 652 samples.

Table 4.2: Gender distribution of the samples

| <i>Group</i> | <i>Sex</i> | <i>N</i> | <i>%</i> |
|---------------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
| Experimental | Male | 339 | 50.4% |
| | Female | 334 | 49.6% |
| | Total | 673 | 100 % |
| Control | Male | 352 | 54% |
| | Female | 300 | 46% |
| | Total | 652 | 100% |

4.1.2.2 Age distribution of the samples

As Figure 4.1 depicts, the researcher computed the age distribution of the whole sample. A total of 1,325 (100%) learner with from 8years to 12 years of age ($M=9.26$; $\&SD=1.12$) supplied data for the study. As the figure depicts, 8-year-old learners accounted for 346 (26.1%), 9-year-olds accounted for 551(41.6%), 10-year-olds accounted for 245 (18.5%), 11-year-olds accounted for 97(7.3%) and 12-year-olds accounted for 86 (6.5%). According to MoE (2008), in Ethiopia, a child of 7years of age should start school in Grade 1. By age 9, the child should progress to Grade 3. However, there may be some socio-economic and health-related issues which may delay the child from reaching Grade 3 by age 10, 11 or 12. There are also some exceptional children who may start Grade 1 at the age of 6or earlier.

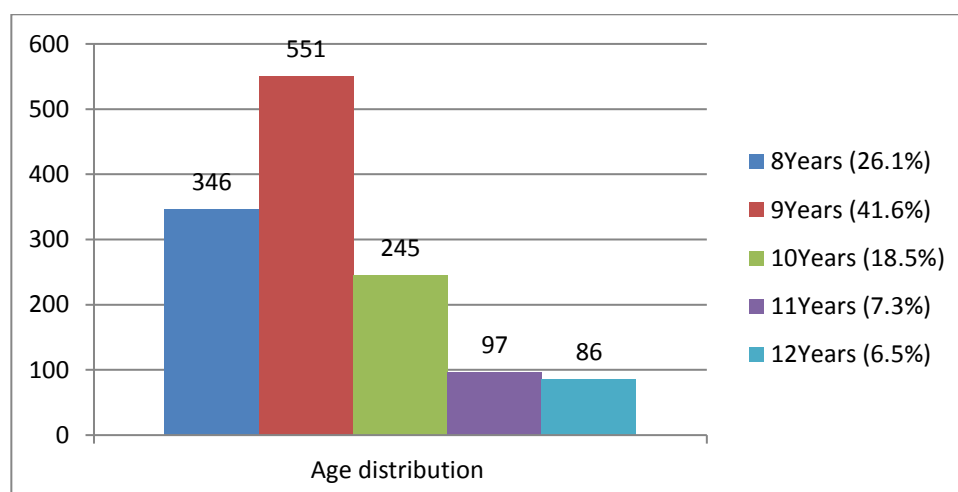


Figure 4.1: Age distribution of the whole learners

The study comprised of Grade 3 learners of 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 years of age. According to Hernandez (2012), Grade 3 is the critical period during which learners move from learning to read – (using their knowledge of the alphabet to identify words) to reading to learn – (using books as a source of information). Therefore, Grade 3 is an appropriate grade level for the study since it is a pivotal point and a critical period in learners' educational development (Chang & Romero, 2008; Hernandez, 2012). Furthermore, Gove and Cvelich (2011) also indicate that the early grades (1-3) are the best period of development to teach reading to children; otherwise, children who cannot read will continue to lag behind unless appropriate action is taken.

The researcher also computed age distribution of the samples across experimental and control groups. Table 4.3 and Figure 4.2 indicate the age distribution of the experimental and control groups. Of 673 (100%) respondents in the experimental group, the study included 177 (26.3%) 8-year-old, 281 (41.8%) 9-year-old, 123 (18.3%) 10-year-old, 49 (7.3%) 11-year-old and 43 (6.4%) 12-year-old Grade 3 learners. Concerning the age distribution of the control groups, of 652 (100%) respondents: there were 169 (25.9%) 8-year-old, 270 (41.4%) 9-year-old, 122 (18.7%) 10-year-old, 48 (7.4%) 11-year-old and 43 (6.6%) 12-year-old Grade 3 learners.

Table 4.3: Age distribution of the samples

| Groups | Age | Female | | Male | | n | % |
|--------------|--------------|--------|-------|------|-------|------------|--------------|
| | | n | % | n | % | | |
| Experimental | 8years | 80 | 24.0 | 97 | 28.6 | 177 | 26.3 |
| | 9years | 147 | 44.0 | 134 | 39.5 | 281 | 41.8 |
| | 10years | 54 | 16.2 | 69 | 20.4 | 123 | 18.3 |
| | 11years | 30 | 9.0 | 19 | 5.6 | 49 | 7.3 |
| | 12years | 23 | 6.9 | 20 | 5.9 | 43 | 6.4 |
| | Total | 334 | 100.0 | 339 | 100.0 | 673 | 100.0 |
| Control | 8years | 82 | 27.3 | 87 | 24.7 | 169 | 25.9 |
| | 9years | 124 | 41.3 | 146 | 41.5 | 270 | 41.4 |
| | 10years | 57 | 19.0 | 65 | 18.5 | 122 | 18.7 |
| | 11years | 20 | 6.7 | 28 | 8.0 | 48 | 7.4 |
| | 12years | 17 | 5.7 | 26 | 7.4 | 43 | 6.6 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 352 | 100.0 | 652 | 100.0 |

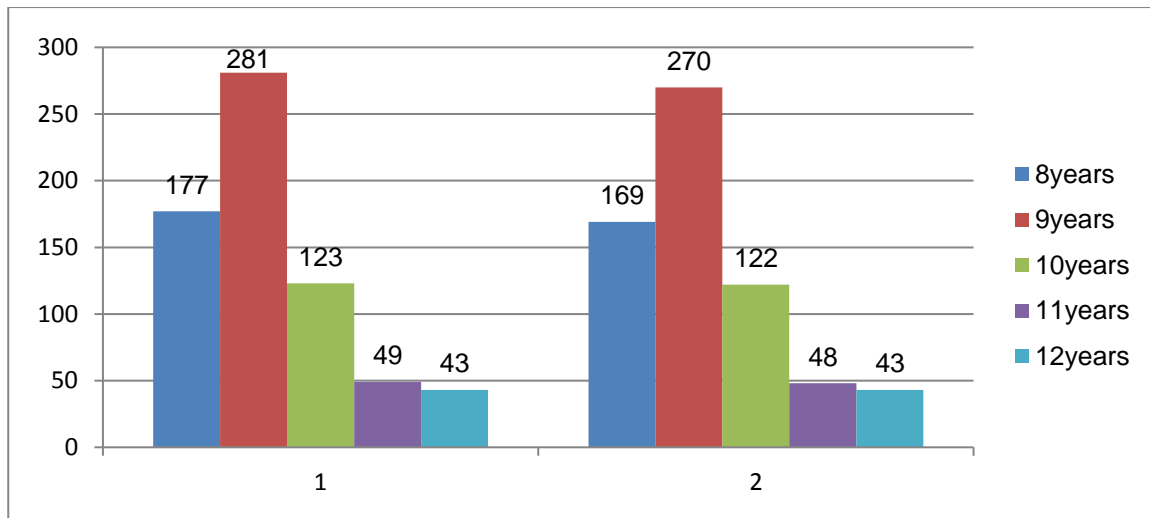


Figure 4.2 Age distribution of learners in experimental and control groups

1= Experimental Group 2= Control Group

4.1.2.3 Parentage background of the learners

There is strong linkage between learners' educational attainment and parental involvement. Epstein (1992) and Corwyn and Bradley (2002) state that parents have a significant impact on educational outcomes of learners through their parenting style, providing support at home and participating in school affairs. Furthermore, Elley (1994); Lehmann (1996); Lietz (1996); OECD (2001), (2002); and Fredriksson (2002) indicate that parents' level of education, family's socio-economic circumstances and cultural heritage play an important role in the educational success of children. Thus, this study assessed the background of learner's parent.

Table 4.4: Parentage background of the learners

| Groups | Parentage status | Female | | Male | | Total | % |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|----------|-------|----------|-------|------------|------------|
| | | <i>n</i> | % | <i>n</i> | % | | |
| Experimental | No parents but living with others | 3 | 0.9 | 6 | 1.8 | 9 | 1.3 |
| | Living with guardian | 7 | 2.1 | 4 | 1.2 | 11 | 1.6 |
| | Living with single parent | 25 | 7.5 | 23 | 6.8 | 48 | 7.1 |
| | Living with both parents | 299 | 89.5 | 306 | 90.3 | 605 | 89.9 |
| | Total | 334 | 100.0 | 339 | 100.0 | 673 | 100 |
| Control | No parents but living with others | 21 | 7.0 | 11 | 3.1 | 32 | 4.9 |
| | Living with guardian | 18 | 6.0 | 21 | 6.0 | 39 | 6.0 |
| | Living with single parent | 23 | 7.7 | 28 | 8.0 | 51 | 7.8 |
| | Living with both parents | 238 | 79.3 | 292 | 83.0 | 530 | 81.3 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 352 | 100.0 | 652 | 100 |

As Table 4.4 shows, the experimental schools involved 673 learners. From this given number of participants, nine (1.3%) learners (three girls and six boys) had no parents. They were living with other people by giving labour service to the family. There were also 11 (1.6%) learners (seven girls and four boys) living with guardians. Learners living with a single parent accounted for 50 (3.8%) (25 girls and 25 boys). Learners living with single parents were represented by 99 (7.5%) which comprised 48 girls and 51 boys. Learners living with both parents were counted 1,135 (85.7%), that is 537 girls and 598 boys. Results indicate that parentage status of learners largely belonged to category 4. The majority of the participants were thus living with both parents ($M=3.76$; $SD=0.67$).

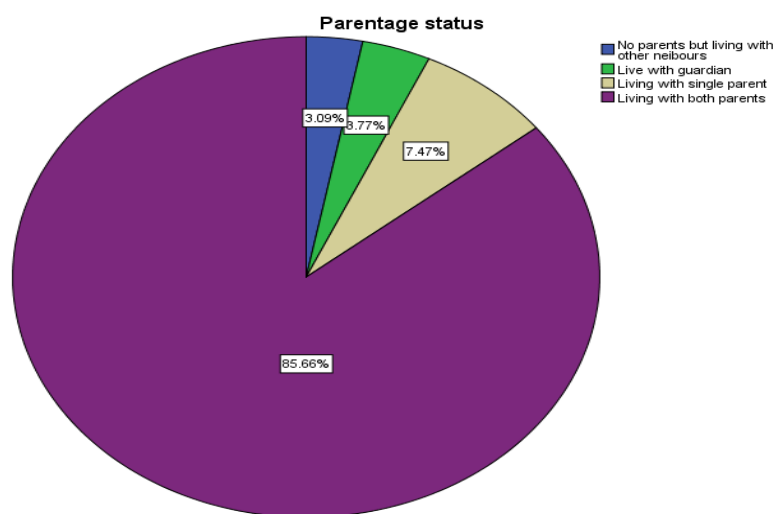
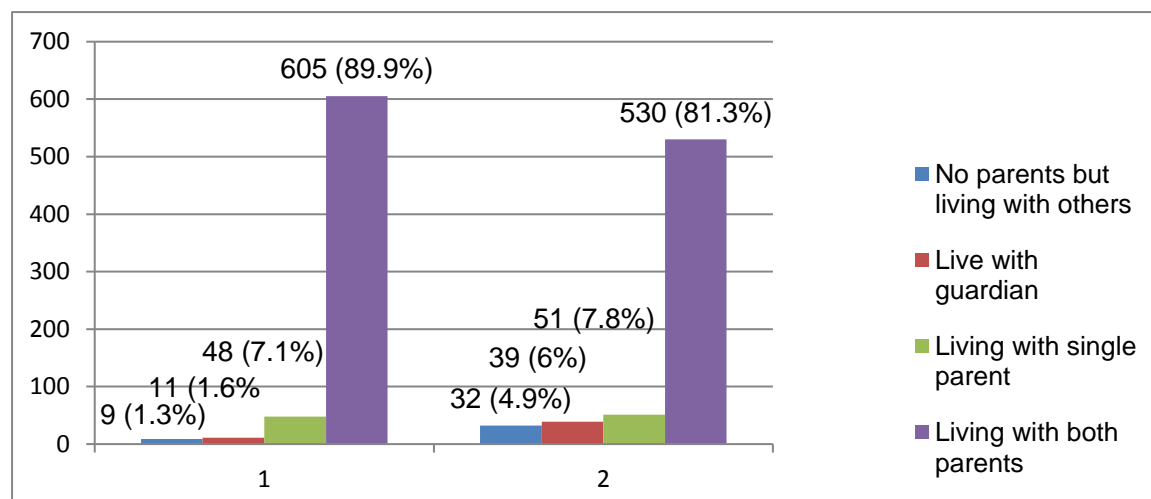


Figure 4.3a: Parentage status of learners in the whole group



1= Experimental Group 2= Control Group

Figure 4.3b: Parentage statuses of learners in each group

4.1.2.4 Education of parents

The educational background of parents can contribute to the educational performance of learners. For instance, Davis-Kean (2005) indicates that educated parents who provide educational support to their children can bring about significant change. For statistical purposes, the educational background of parents was coded as 1=illiterate, 2=primary school, 3=high school, 4=Teachers Training Institute (TTI) certificate and diploma, and 5=BA degree and above. The finding indicates that most of the participants have certificate of TTI and Teachers Education Diploma ($M=3.53$; $SD=0.86$). Figure 4.4a below indicates that 30 (2.3%) have no education, 122 (9.2%) have primary education, 405 (30.6%) have high school level education, 658 (49.7%) have TTI and diploma and 110 (8.3%) have a BA degree. Furthermore, Figure 4.4b also presents the status of parents' education in the experimental and control groups.

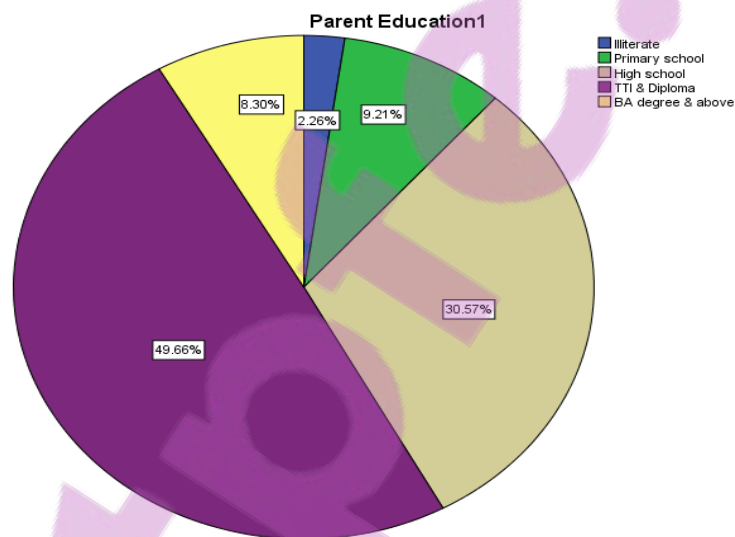


Figure 4.4a: Education levels of parents in the whole group

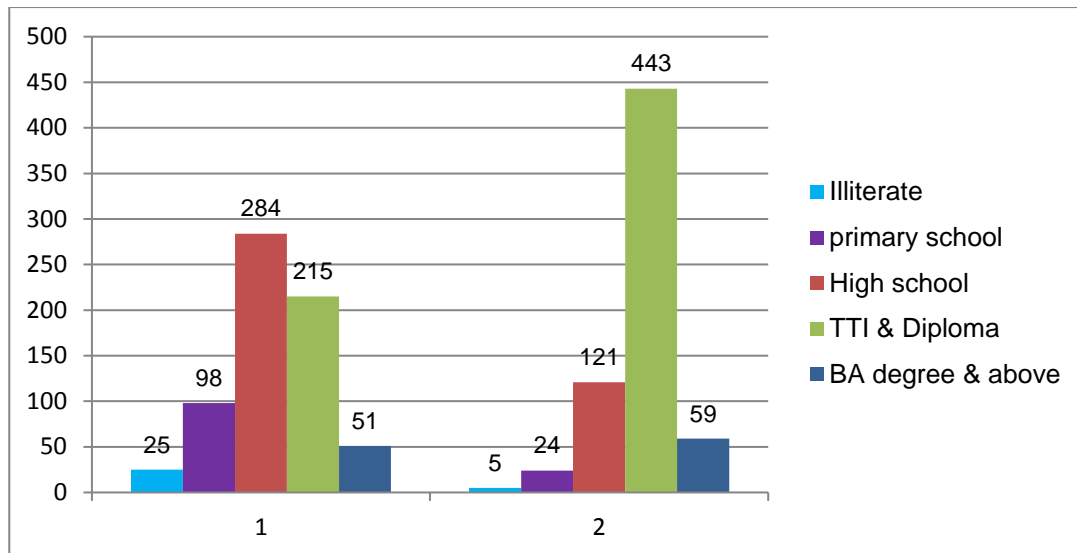


Figure 4.4b: Education levels of parents in each group

4.1.2.5 Employment Status of Parents

Similar to other factors in the socio-economic background, the employment status of parents has an influence on the educational outcomes of learners. Studies by Foster and Kalil (2005) and Talib (2009) show that parents of poor socio-economic status are likely to place less emphasis on the schooling of their children and participation in school affairs. Therefore, for statistical analysis, the study coded data as 1=unemployed, 2=self-employed, 3=non-government employed and 4=government employed. The finding of the study depicted that majority of the parents were employed at government organisations ($M=3.5$; $SD=8.5$). As Figure 4.5a depicts 50 (3.8%) parents were unemployed, 160 (12.1%) were self-employed, 188 (14.2%) were employed at non-government organisations and 927 (69.9%) were government employed. Besides, Figure 4.5b also presents the status of parents' employment in the experimental and control groups.

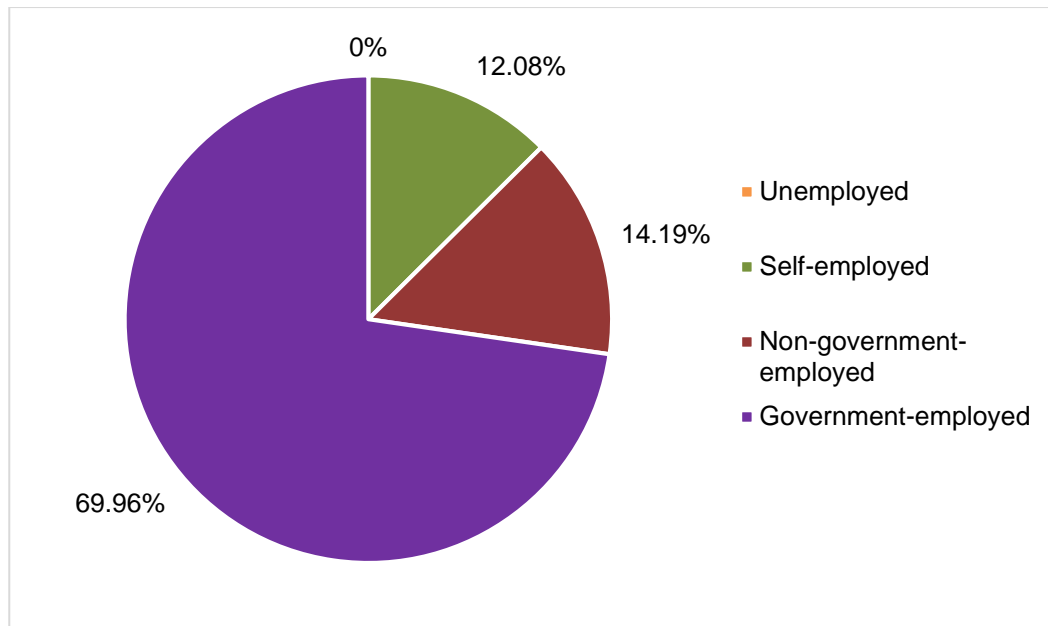
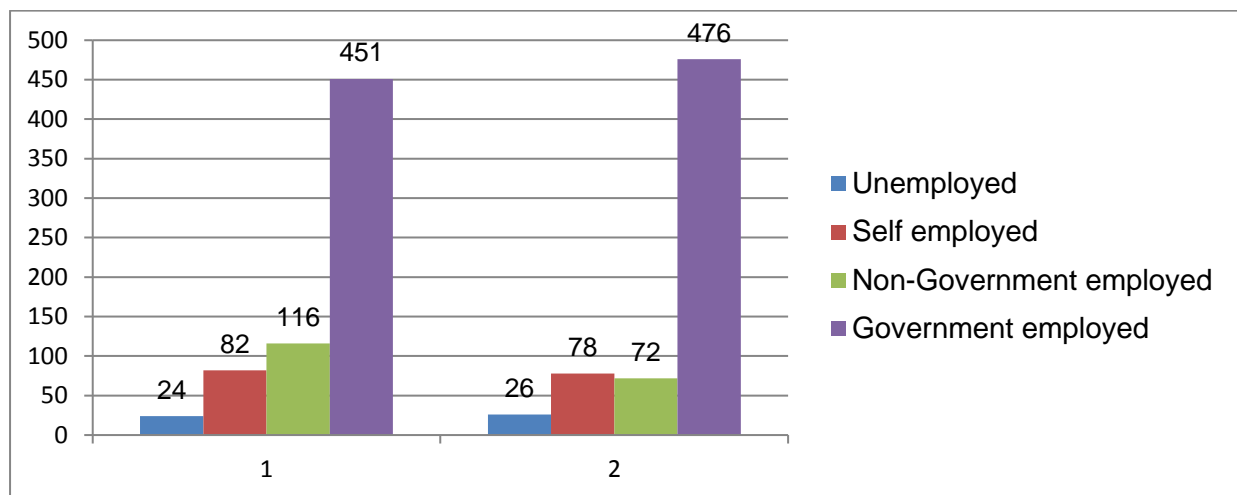


Figure 4.5a: Parents' employment status in the whole group



1= Experimental Group 2= Control Group

Figure 4.5b: Parent employment of the experimental and control group

4.1.2.6 Learners' access to books, computer, time and motivation at home and presence of reading difficulty

As Table 4.5 presents the study computed the learners' access to books and computer. Furthermore, the study assessed the availability of sufficient time at home, the presence of someone at home who motivates the learner to read, and the presence of reading difficulty. As the table shows, the majority of learners have no access to books and computers at home. Furthermore, most of the learners have no one who motivates them to read at home.

Table 4.5: Learners' access to books, computer, time and motivation at home and presence of reading difficulty

| Item | Reponses | Female | | Male | | n | % |
|--|---------------|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | | n | % | n | % | | |
| Do you have access to books at home? | Yes | 193 | 30.4 | 215 | 31.1 | 408 | 30.8 |
| | No | 441 | 69.6 | 476 | 68.9 | 917 | 69.2 |
| Do you have access to a computer at home? | Yes | 14 | 2.2 | 30 | 4.3 | 44 | 3.3 |
| | No | 620 | 97.8 | 661 | 95.7 | 1281 | 96.7 |
| Do you have enough time to read at home? | Yes | 97 | 15.3 | 116 | 16.8 | 213 | 16.1 |
| | No | 537 | 84.7 | 575 | 83.2 | 1112 | 83.9 |
| Parents or someone motivate reading at home? | Yes | 478 | 75.4 | 527 | 76.3 | 320 | 24.2 |
| | No | 156 | 24.6 | 164 | 23.7 | 1005 | 75.8 |
| Do you have reading difficulty? | Low | 15 | 2.4 | 22 | 3.2 | 37 | 2.8% |
| | Medium | 34 | 5.4 | 38 | 5.5 | 72 | 5.4% |
| | High | 585 | 92.3 | 631 | 91.3 | 1216 | 91.8 |

- *Learners' access to books at home*

Access to books at home helps learners to improve their reading habits and skill. Learners who have sufficient books at their home show significant changes in their reading interest and skill. According to Elsacker (2002) and Jong and Leseman (2001), home reading resources make a significant contribution to the reading skill of learners. Gambrell and Marinka (1997) explain that access to books determines the learners' reading activity and success. Furthermore, Wigfield (1997) shows that learners should get opportunity to choose their own books in order enhance their interest and motivation. Therefore, learners need to have a variety of reading materials that are attractive and age appropriate for learners. Therefore, the study investigated the learners' access to books at their home. For analysis, data entered statistically were: "1=no books at home", "2= have books at home." The finding indicates that 69.2% of learners have no access to books at their home (M=13; SD=0.46).

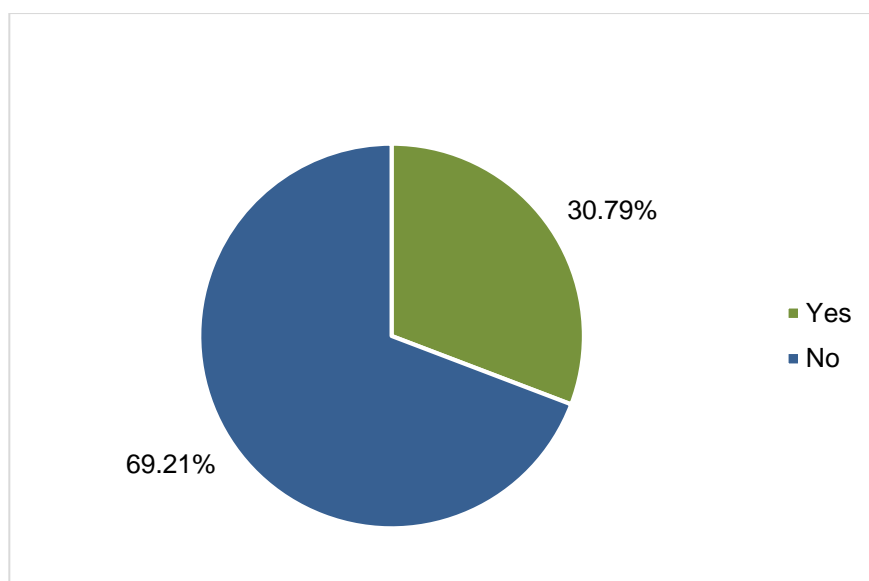


Figure 4.6: Learners' access to books

- *Learners' access to a computer at home*

The study investigated learners' access to a computer at their home to explore the learning support they gained from this source. For statistical analysis purpose, data were entered as (1=have access to a computer) and (2=have no access to a computer). The output confirms that the majority of respondents did not have computer-based support at their homes ($M=1.03$; $SD=0.18$). Figure 4.7 shows that only 44 (3.3%) of learners have access to a computer at their home. Of the 1,325 participants, 1,281(96.7%) of them did not have access to a computer at home. According to Strategic Marketing and Research (2013), computer-based learning is an important mechanism for achieving student-centred learning. By its very nature, software allows achievement to be integrated with delivery of content in ways that help students feel successful while they learn. Furthermore, De Jong and Bus (2004) and Robinson (2003) indicate that e-books are not only good for teaching and learning important literacy skills, but they are also a tool for promoting reading independence and enjoyment.

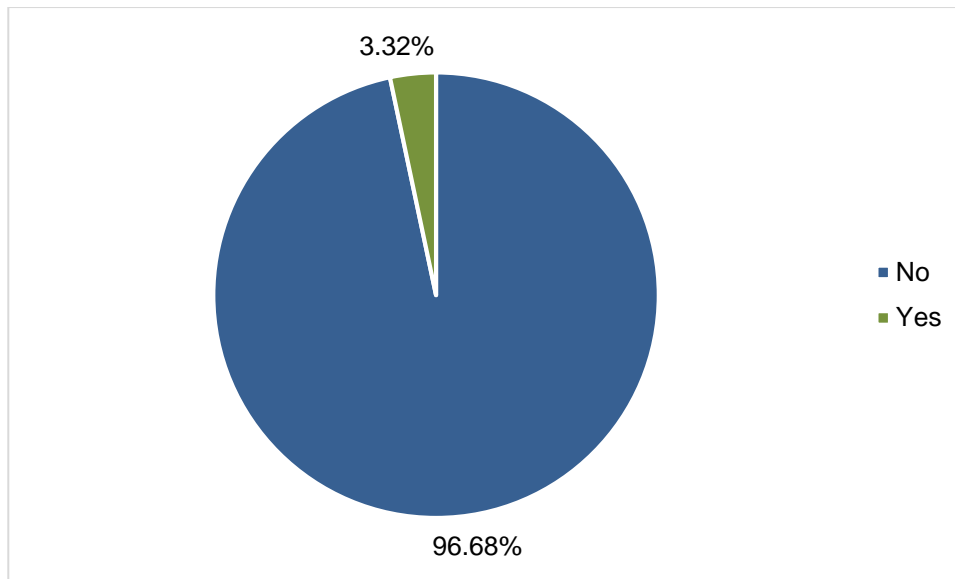


Figure 4.7: Learners' access to a computer at home

- *Enough time to read at home*

The amount of time learners have at home to read was assessed to investigate their reading habits and practice at home. Statistically entered data were coded with “1= have no enough time to read at home”, “2= have enough time to read at home.” The output indicates the majority of learners have no time to read at their homes (M=1.16; SD=0.37). As Figure 4.8 shows, 1,112 (83.92%) of learners do not have enough time to read at home. Only 213 (16.1%) of learners have enough time to read at home.

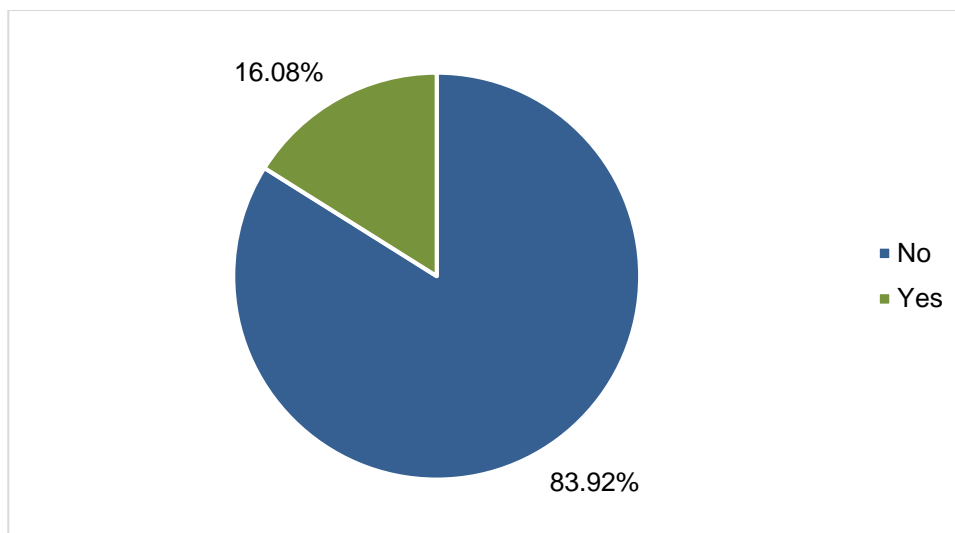


Figure 4.8: Learners' have enough time to read at home

- *Parents or someone to motivate reading at home*

Learners' motivation is essential for the improvement of learners' reading skill. For instance, Chapman and Tunmer (1995) and Pressley and Harris (2006) indicate that reading motivation and reading comprehension are correlated. Furthermore, Seymour and Walsh (2006) also state that learners should be motivated by providing them with opportunities to select reading materials that they want to read more. In addition, Rahman et al. (2017) state that parents will be involved in the education of their children through providing a suitable environment that assists the learning of the child and reinforces the children's school work.

Therefore, the study investigated the availability of someone who motivates reading at home. For further data analysis, the variables were coded as "1=have no one to motive at home"; "2= have someone to motivate at home." The finding indicates that 1,005 (75.9%) had no one to motivate them to read at home. However, 320 (24.2%) had someone to motivate them at home ($M=0.24$; $SD=0.43$). Figure 4.9 depicts that the majority of learners had no one to motivate them to read at their home. Grabe and Stoller (2002) emphasise that reading motivation is very important for learners and increases learners' reading comprehension. Furthermore, Dev (1997), Guay, Chanal, Ratelle, Marsh, Larose and Boivin (2010) and Yuanfang (2009) reveal that learners' reading motivation is associated with academic performance, greater conceptual understanding, and satisfaction with school, self-esteem, social adjustment and school completion rates.

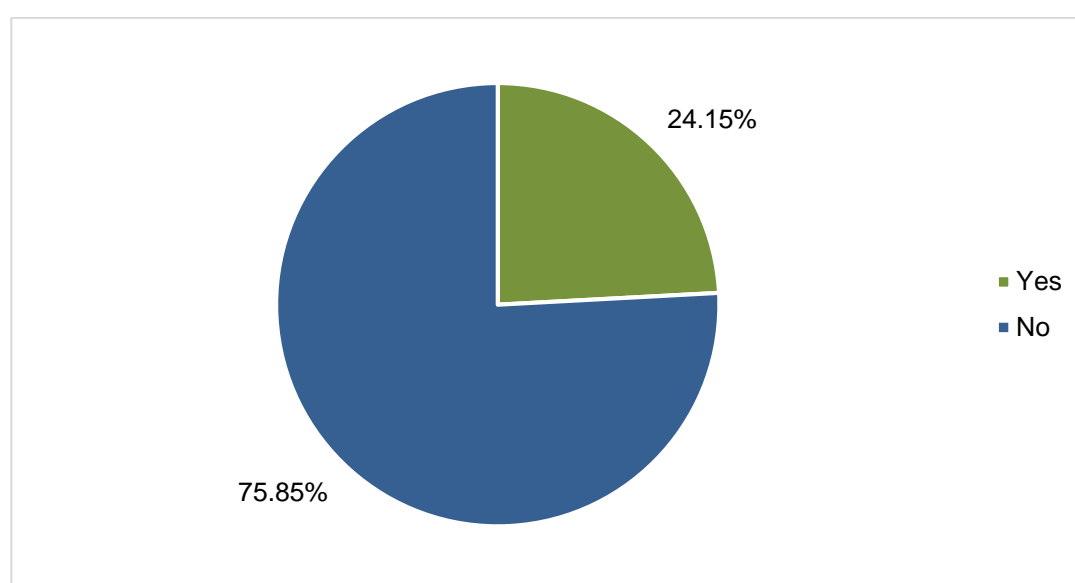


Figure 4.9: Parents or someone motivate reading at home

- *Reading Difficulty*

The study assessed the reading difficulty of learners with the help of Likert scale questionnaire. For data analysis, the level of reading difficulty was rated and entered as “1= No”; “2= low”; “3= Medium”; and “4= High.” Of 1325 (100%) participants, the output shows that 37 (2.8%) low, 72 (5.4%) medium and 1216 (91.8) and a high level of reading difficulty ($M=3.89$; $SD=0.39$). The finding shows that the majority of learners are concentrated at level 3 and 4. Figure 4.10 shows that the majority of learners are at risk of reading difficulty. This finding is supported by EGRA/Ethiopia (2010) that found 80% of Ethiopian learners in the early grades (Grades 1 – 4) are not meeting the minimum learning competencies of MoE in terms of literacy.

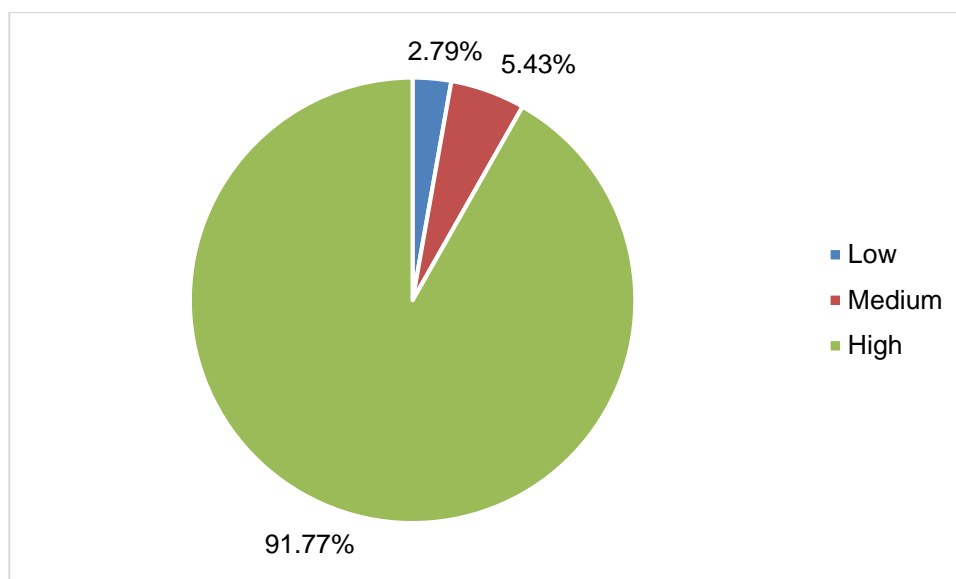


Figure 4.10: Learners with reading difficulty

4.1.2.7 Conclusion on the analysis of participants' demographic data

The data analysed in section 4.1.2.1 to 4.1.2.6 show that the demographic background of the majority of the participants is similar. They have a comparable socio-economic demographic status. For instance, the gender composition of the respondents is 691 (52.2%) boys and 634 (47.8%) girls. Regarding age distribution, the study used related age groups ranged from 8 up to 12-year-olds. i.e., 8-year-olds accounted for 346 (26.1%), 9-year-olds accounted for 551 (41.6%), 10-year-olds accounted for 245

(18.5%), 11-year-olds accounted for 97(7.3%) and 12-year-olds accounted for 86 (6.5%). The educational background of the parents also indicated that the majority of learners' parents had high school and college diplomas. The employment status of the parents also shows that 927(70%) of learners' parents were government employees and 188 (14.2%) were non-government employees.

Concerning access to support at home, most learners had no books, did not have access to a computer and had insufficient time to read at their homes. Furthermore, no one motivated them at home to read and most of them faced reading difficulty.

4.1.2.8 Schools and Teachers Profiles

- *Learning facilities in schools*

The study collected and analysed data to assess the school profile. The questionnaire was designed to collect data about the profile of the school (Appendix-20). The finding from the questionnaire shows that the selected schools are not well-equipped and capacitated in terms of school furniture, equipment and essential educational resources like books, well-built classrooms, desks, chalkboards, computers, reading rooms, libraries and language laboratories. Most learners were challenged in the selected schools because the classrooms were not suitable for reading instruction. For instance, the classrooms were overcrowded and exposed to noise. There was no fresh air or enough light in the classrooms.

The learner-teacher ratio in the selected schools was computed ($10:1325=0.001$). The data indicated that teachers of the sample schools were forced to carry a high teaching load. Consequently, teachers became tired and felt bored and did not get enough time to prepare themselves for the next period. These could affect the quality of the reading instruction specifically and the teaching-learning approach generally in the schools.

The study also examined teachers' motivational levels, especially, with regard to their salary, workplace conditions, the school leadership system and learner-related factors e.g., disruptiveness, less motivated to learn and so on. The observations made by the researcher and teachers' in-depth interviews clearly indicated that teachers were not motivated. They also reported that they had a high teaching load. They felt discomfort

due to the crowded situation of the classrooms and learners' disruptive behavior. They were not provided with in-service training that would enhance their pedagogical skills and help them teach reading instruction at primary schools. The school leaders did not understand the challenges of teachers or the conditions of learners with reading difficulties. Above all, teachers said that their salaries were not equivalent to their professional contribution given under stressed working conditions.

- *Teachers' Profile*

The study examined the teachers' profile by checking their qualification, teaching experience, in-service training taken, and the weekly teaching load carried by English language teachers (see Appendix-19). The analysis of data revealed that the majority of teachers were diploma-holders. Their teaching experience ranged from 2 to 30 years. Their teaching load was rated from 30 to 40 periods.

4.1.3 Result from Achievement Test

4.1.3.1 Levene's test for homogeneity of variance

Levene's test is a test procedure, which is used to assess the equality of variances in different samples. Some common statistical procedures (for example, ANOVA and t-test) assume that variances of the populations from which different samples are drawn are equal. It tests the null hypothesis that the population variances are equal. If the resulting p -value of Levene's test is less than some critical value ($p=0.05$), the obtained differences in sample variances are unlikely to have occurred based on random sampling. Thus, the null hypothesis of equal variances is rejected and it is concluded that there is a difference between the variances in the population (i.e., variances are heterogeneous) (Hosseini, 2012).

Therefore, the null hypothesis of equal error variance among the experimental and control groups was conducted in the study with the help of Levene's test. To perform this test, a null hypothesis (H_0) was stated to indicate that population variances are similar. The subsequent alternative hypothesis (H_1) formulated that population variances are not similar.

H_0 : Error variance of the dependent variable is similar across groups

H_1 : Error variance is not similar across groups

Table 4.6: Levene's test for equality of variance

| Groups | Tests | Variances Assumed | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | |
|--------------|-----------|-----------------------------|---|------|
| | | | F | Sig. |
| Control | Pre-test | Equal variances assumed | 2.474 | .116 |
| | | Equal variances not assumed | | |
| Experimental | Post-test | Equal variances assumed | 12.012 | .001 |
| | | Equal variances not assumed | | |

As Table 4.6 shows, the results are statistically insignificant ($p=0.116 > 0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of the homogeneity of variance fails to be rejected. The finding indicates that the error variance of dependent variable (post-test scores) is similar across groups. Thus, with this secured assumption of homogeneity, it is possible to carry out further analysis of the data.

4.1.3.2 The homogeneity of regression assumption

This section of the study indicates that the homogeneity of regression assumption was secured with the help of inferential statistics. This helps to investigate the interactive relationship between the covariate and the independent variable. According to Harris (2001), Harlow (2005) and Porte (2010), the covariate, which is also called concomitant variable, is an independent variable (IV) included by the researcher not so much to examine its effect on the dependent variables (DV) but to subtract out its influence from other IVs. The intention is to produce a more precise estimate of the effect of the IV that similar to the main interest of the researcher.

For instance, the study analysed the interactive relationship between learners' pre-test and post-test score. The purpose was to determine whether the overall performance of learners' reading skill was achieved as a result of treatment or covariate. Then, if the interaction of the covariate and the post-test score is significant (computed value, i.e., $p\text{-value} < p=0.05$), it indicates that the differences between group scores are due to the influence of the covariate. Covariate is measured and that it can be controlled and its effect is removed statistically from the study during the analysis. After adjusting the influence of covariates, a standard ANOVA was carried out.

This adjustment process is termed ANCOVA or MANCOVA, which is essential. Otherwise, failing to consider covariates could hinder the interpretation of relationships

between the main IV and DVs, especially with non-random samples, which are similar to the current study (Porte, 2010). Therefore, the following hypotheses were tested.

H₀: No significant interaction between Covariate and Independent variable

Pre-test score \neq cognitive foundation of learning to read Instruction

H₁: There is significant interaction between Covariate and Independent variable

Pre-test score =cognitive foundation of learning to read Instruction

Table 4.7 shows that there is no significant interaction between covariates and the independent variable, the significant value is more than 0.05 ($p=.041$). The result of the homogeneity of regression assumption test confirms that the new reading instruction has no relationship with that of learners' pre-test scores. Based on this sufficient ground, it is difficult to reject the null hypothesis (H₀). This assures that the homogeneity of regression assumption has been kept.

Table 4.7: The test between subjects' effects

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean square | F | Sig |
|----------|-------------------------|----|-------------|---------|------|
| Pre-test | 39.6 | 1 | 39.6 | 1.387 | .041 |
| Groups | 74392.279 | 1 | 74392.279 | 804.261 | .000 |

4.1.3.3 Analysis of learners' performance by pre-test and post-test scores

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of CFLR instruction on English reading skill of Grade 3 learners in 10 selected primary schools found in Hawassa and Dilla City Administration SNNPR, Ethiopia.

Therefore, the pre-test and post-test scores were compared using a t-test at the significance level of 0.05. The t-test was very helpful to reject or accept the null hypothesis based on the pre-test and post-test mean value. For instance, if the p-value in the t-test result is smaller than the significant value ($\alpha =0.05$), then it is possible to conclude that the mean is different from the hypothesised value (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007; Jackson, 2012).

Null Hypothesis (H₀): Implementation of cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) Instruction does not enhance learners; reading skills.

H_0 : μ Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read Instruction (CFLR) = Conventional Reading Instruction.

Conversely, if the p-value of the t-test is higher ($p > 0.05$), then, the null hypothesis fails to be rejected.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The Implementation of cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) Instruction enhances learners' reading skills.

H_1 : μ Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read Instruction (CFLR) Instruction $\neq \mu$ Conventional Instruction.

In other word, if there is no significant difference between the mean value of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group from that of the control group, then it is possible to conclude that the implementation of CFLR instruction does not enhance learners' reading skills. This indicates that CFLR instruction is not different from conventional instruction. However, if there is significant difference between the mean values of the pre-test and post-test, then the alternative hypothesis will be accepted and null hypothesis will be rejected. In other words, it is possible to conclude that CFLR instruction enhances learners' reading skills better than conventional instructional method.

Table 4.8 depicts that the score of pre-test and post-test in the experimental as well as in the control group is correlated (0.880 and 0.75) respectively. The level of correlation is also significant ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$).

Table 4.8: Paired samples correlations

| Experimental & Control Group | | | N | Correlation | Sig. |
|------------------------------|--------|----------------------|-----|-------------|------|
| Control | Pair 1 | Pre-test & post-test | 652 | .880 | .000 |
| Experimental | Pair 1 | Pre-test & post-test | 673 | .795 | .000 |

Furthermore, Table 4.9a below indicates that the mean score of the pre-test of the control groups was ($n = 652$, $M = 40.23$, $SD = 12.3$); and their post-test mean was ($n = 652$, $M = 46.32$ & $SD = 11.63$). There is a slight difference of 6 marks. However, as the mean score of the pre-test of the experimental groups was ($n = 673$, $M = 39.70$, $SD = 12.7$); and their post-test mean was ($n = 673$, $M = 66.15$, $SD = 10.8$). There is a 26.45 mark larger difference than the control group's mean.

Table 4.9a Paired samples t-test result of the achievement test

| Test Periods | Groups | N | Mean | SD |
|--------------|--------------|-----|-------|-------|
| Pre-test | Control | 652 | 40.23 | 12.3 |
| | Experimental | 673 | 39.70 | 12.7 |
| Post-test | Control | 652 | 46.32 | 11.63 |
| | Experimental | 673 | 66.15 | 10.8 |

Table 4.9b also shows that the probability of error is less than 0.05 ($p=0.000<0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of pre-tests and post-tests. Based on this, it is possible to state that the implementation of CFLR improved the reading skill of the learners significantly better than the usual instructional method. If this method is applied with sufficient time, preparation and readiness, it can bring about a significant change on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners. Thus, the result gives sufficient ground to conclude that CFLR is better than the conventional teaching method and priority should be given to this new reading instruction in the classroom where teaching reading skill is challenging.

Table 4.9b: Paired samples t-test

| Groups | Pair | Test | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|--------------|--------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|--------|--------|-----|------------------|
| | | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Control | Pair 1 | Pre-test post-test | -6.09 | 5.88 | .230 | -6.54 | -5.64 | -26.44 | 651 | .000 |
| Experimental | Pair 1 | Pre-test post-test | -26.45 | 7.72 | .3 | -27.04 | -25.87 | -88.89 | 672 | .000 |

4.1.3.4 Classification of participants performance by score

The study analysed the learners' performance based on the scores of the achievement test. The learners' scores were classified in to five categories in accordance with the Ethiopian education policy. The policy clearly stated a marking system used at the primary and secondary schools all over the country (TGE, 1994). According to the policy, the following classification of marking method has been stated. Table 4.10 below presents as follows; (90% and above Excellent; 80% - 89% Very good; 60%-79% Satisfactory; 50%-59% fair; and below 50% fail).

Table 4.10: Classification of learners' achievement test scores

| Criteria | Code | Description |
|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------|
| Excellent performance | EP | 90% and above |
| Very good performance | VGP | 80% - 89% |
| Satisfactory performance | SP | 60%-79% |
| Fair | FR | 50%-59% |
| Fail | FL | below 50% |

The post-test of the study indicates that majority of learners performed satisfactorily. Therefore, the scores on the achievement tests between both groups ranged from fail to very good. Table 4.11 depicts the comparison of performance on the achievement tests based on this classification.

Table 4.11: Comparison of achievement tests performance between the two groups

| Groups (n=1325) | Performance category | M | SD | Standard Error | Pre- test | % | Post- test | % | 95% Confidence | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|-----------|---------------------------|----------------------|----------|-----------------------|----------|---------------------------|--------------|
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Experiment (n= 673) | Fail | 2.68 | 0.55 | 0.21 | 488 | 72.5 | 55 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 8.2 |
| | Fair | | | | 157 | 23.3 | 122 | 18.1 | 18.1 | 18.1 |
| | Satisfactory | | | | 28 | 4.2 | 442 | 65.5 | 65.7 | 65.7 |
| | Very Good | | | | 0 | 0 | 54 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 8.0 |
| Control (n=652) | Fail | 2.43 | 0.72 | 0.028 | 480 | 73.6 | 365 | 56.0 | 56.0 | 56.0 |
| | Fair | | | | 150 | 23.0 | 200 | 30.7 | 30.7 | 30.7 |
| | Satisfactory | | | | 22 | 3.4 | 87 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 13.3 |
| | Very Good | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13.3 | 13.3 |

The data in Table 4.11 and Figure 4.11 show that both the CFLR instruction and conventional instruction enhanced the reading skills of the learners. In experimental schools, the number of failures is reduced from 488 (72.5%) to 55 (8.2%). There is also “failure” reduction in control schools from 480 (73.6%) to 365 (56.0%). However, the experimental schools’ performance outweighs control schools by far. The figure also depicts that the number of learners who scored “satisfactory” improved from 28 (4.2%) to 442 (65.5%); whereas the control school participants showed insignificant improvement from 22 (4.2%) to 87 (13.3%). The other remarkable improvement showed by the experimental schools is that 54 (8.0%) participants scored a “very good” result that was not scored by the participants in the control schools.

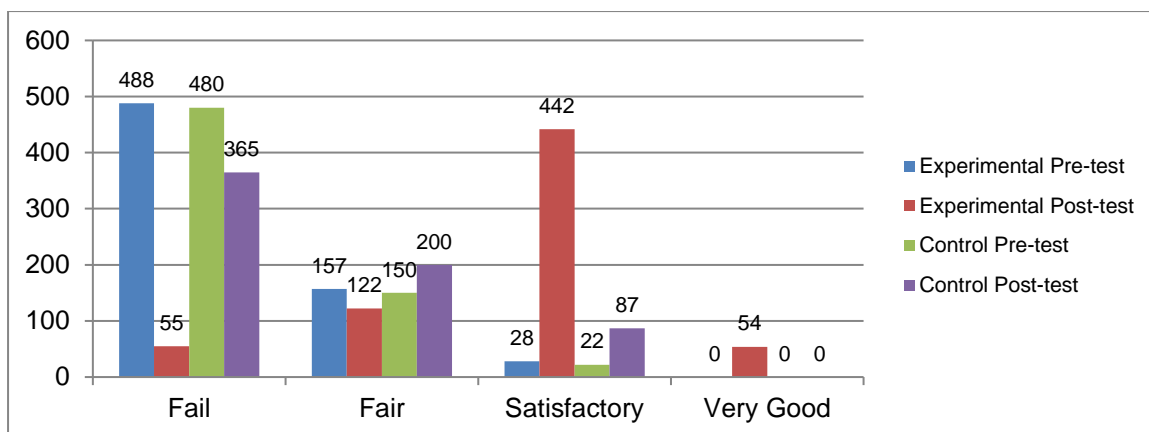


Figure 4.11: Analysis of participants' achievement test scores at pre-test and post-test stage

4.1.3.5 Areas of learners' challenges

The study assessed and analysed specific areas where learners faced challenge in reading activities performed in the classroom. The study took the following identified components in to consideration to evaluate the learners' specific reading difficulty such as *language comprehension which involves (linguistic knowledge and background knowledge); and decoding, which also include (cipher knowledge, lexical knowledge, the basis of cipher and lexical knowledge, letter knowledge, phonem awareness, knowledge of the alphabetic principle and concept about print)*. These are components of CFLR instruction practised in the classroom. They were also assessed on classwork and observation. Learners were provided with immediate feedback. The output is analysed qualitatively in section 4.2.

4.1.3.6 Conclusion

The study investigated the effect of CFLR instruction on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners. The findings presented in Tables 10a, 10b and 12 depicted that the new instructional method was effective in improving learners' reading skills. Participants in the experimental group, who failed on pre-test, showed significant improvement on the post-test. Table 4.9a and 4.9b also clearly indicate that the new instructional method helped to score significant mean values than the control groups.

4.2 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

4.2.1 Introduction

The quantitative results were triangulated with the qualitative data collected from semi-structured interviews and classroom observation. The analysis of qualitative data was guided by the research questions and research objectives.

Data collected through the interviews were transcribed and the notes collected during theme formation were used. Themes were developed and categorised from the transcription based on the objectives and research questions of the study. Specific categories were formed to arrange themes accordingly. The number of categories was minimised by listing the same themes under major categories with sub-headings. Then, a final list of sub-headings was prepared.

Further reading of the interview transcripts was done in order to ensure that all aspects of the interviews were addressed in the themes. Then, final categories were coded. The researcher worked with teachers and learners of the experimental and control group schools. They were asked to verify the relationships between their responses and the categorised themes. The final approved and adjusted categories of themes were used for the write-up of the report. The following figure was developed based on the model of Burnard's (2004) method of qualitative data analysis. Figure 4.12 clearly illustrates the whole procedure used for qualitative data analysis.

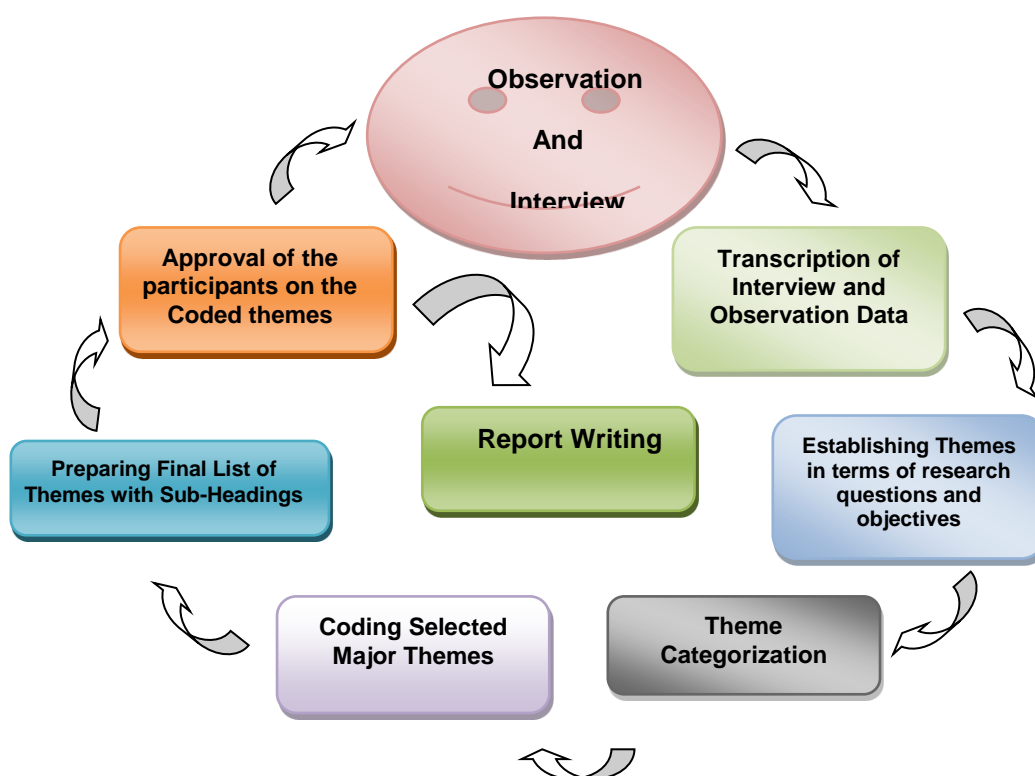


Figure 4.12. Procedure for qualitative data analysis

4.2.2 Learners' Participation during the Implementation of CFLR

The learners in the experimental schools participated in a 12-week intervention implemented by the researcher. The intervention was teaching the reading skill with the help of CFLR. As indicated in Chapter 2 (section 2.9), the CFLR framework provided a concise and understandable instructional approach to teaching reading for Grade 3 learners. The framework helped the researcher to be more familiar with the cognitive elements that are essential in teaching reading.

Based on the CFLR framework, the researcher gave due consideration to oral language decoding and written language comprehension. This is because the qualitative data of the study indicated that learners had difficulty with spoken and written languages that tends to become more apparent by Grade 3 (Catts, Adlof, Hogan, & Scarborough, 2005). Furthermore, Bashir and Scavuzzo (1992), Cain and Oakhill (1999), Nation and Snowling (1998), and Storch and Whitehurst (2002) found evidence that indicated that learners with weak language skills were at greater risk of developing reading disabilities than learners whose language abilities were strong in relation to their age peers.

Therefore, the study addressed oral language decoding and written language comprehension. For instance, oral language decoding was addressed through improving linguistic knowledge (phonology, morphology and syntax) and background knowledge (knowledge of the world). The written language comprehension, termed 'decoding' was also addressed through enhancing the learners' cipher knowledge (systematic relationships between written and spoken words); lexical knowledge (relationships between the units of the spoken and written word); letter knowledge (the ability to recognise and manipulate the units of the writing system); knowledge of the alphabetic principle (knowing that a systematic relationship exists between the internal structure of written and spoken words); and concepts about print (correspondence between printed and spoken words).

The intervention was supplemented by the Interactive Reading Model (see section 2.4.3). The model encompasses the interaction of both the bottom-up and top-down processes. It is a balanced view between language and reasoning process. In other words, the researcher helped the learners actively combine their bottom-up process (decoding strategies and rapid word recognition) with their top-down process (knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, pragmatics, discourse, and text structure as well as inferential skills, background knowledge, and comprehension monitoring skills) to predict and confirm meaning (Eskey, 2005; Grabe, 2004).

Furthermore, the study incorporated schema theory since it reinforces the consideration of prior knowledge to learn reading and the use of tools such as advanced organisers and memory aids to bridge new knowledge with older knowledge stored in the learners' schemata (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007). The background knowledge of learners plays a significant role in reading comprehension, because new information, new concepts, and new ideas from the reading passage have meaning when the learners relate them to something they already know (Merriam et al., 2007).

4.2.3. Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) Lesson

The researcher implemented the intervention on the experimental group with the help of the lesson plan presented in Table 4.12. The lesson plan contributed to the implementation of the intervention because it clearly indicated activities classified into

introduction, presentation, consolidation and conclusion of the reading lesson with a feasible time allotment.

In implementing CFLR, in the study, the researcher attempted to make the instruction more attractive and increased motivation of the learners by using various strategies. For instance, he used interesting stories and topics of lessons in the classrooms. Interesting topics means subject matter that students have prior knowledge about in terms of their personal experiences and that induced positive emotion. Arranging the classroom with various teaching aids to alter the environment of the classroom was another strategy used by the researcher. These strategies evoked the situational interest of the learners. Situational interest depended on the classroom context and was informational in content. Flowerday, Schraw and Stevens (2004) posit that topic interest and situation interest correlate with one another and result in positive outcomes on the reading skill of learners.

Table 4.12: CFLR lesson plan

| Time | Lesson's Part | Activities | Learners role | Teaching aids |
|-------|---------------|---|--|--|
| 5min | Introduction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Introducing the topic to the learners Defining and explaining new terms and concepts Asking brainstorming questions Establish learners' prior knowledge with the new topic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listening Asking Answering | |
| 20min | Presentation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instruction was given to learners for activities Cooperative learning team was formed Linguistic knowledge, cipher knowledge, lexical knowledge, oral language decoding and written language comprehensions were thought at different time continuously Vocabulary enrichment Sufficient time was used to rehearse learners on the above concepts Reading practice | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listening Asking Answering Practice reading Discussing in group Presenting Note taking | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Charts (English letters) Shash board (Words) Audio recording |
| 10min | Consolidation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class work was given Group discussion was held Learners were assigned to present group discussions Short note was given on the above concepts | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Do class work Discuss in group Note taking | |
| 5min | Conclusion | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feedback to the group discussion and presentation Explanation on further question raised by learners Evaluation on the reading practice of learners Homework was given | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask questions Get feedback Take homework | |

4.3 LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

4.3.1 Linguistic Knowledge (Phonology, Morphology and Syntax)

Linguistic knowledge consists of:

- Phonological awareness and the alphabetic principle
- Phonological awareness

To teach phonological awareness, the study, involved identifying and making oral rhymes, identifying and working with syllables, onsets and individual phonemes in spoken words. As teaching aids, the study used consonant production chart presented in Figure 4.13. The chart shows a visual description of the articulators used when producing a sound and the manner in which the sound is produced (fricatives versus glides). The articulators used to make the sound were represented using Phonic Face adopted from (Norris, 2001). The following figure 4.13 illustrates the consonant phonemes by place and manner of articulation.

| Consonant Phonemes by Place and Manner of Articulation | | | | | | | |
|--|---------|----------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------------|---------|
| | Lips | Teeth/ Lips | Tongue/ Teeth | Ridge/ Teeth | Roof Mouth | Back of Throat | Glottis |
| Stops Unvoiced Voiced | /p/ /b/ | | | /t/ /d/ | | /k/ /g/ | |
| Nasals | /m/ | | | /n/ | | /ŋ/ | |
| Fricatives Unvoiced Voiced | | /f/ /v/ | /θ/ /ð/ | /s/ /z/ | /ʃ/ /ʒ/ | | |
| Affricates Unvoiced Voiced | | | | | /tʃ/ /dʒ/ | | |
| Glides Unvoiced Voiced | | | | | /j/ | /w/ /h/ | |
| Liquids | | | | /l/ /r/ | | | |

Figure 4.13: Consonant phonemes by place and manner of articulation

Source: (Norris, 2001)

By presenting visual cues to the learners, the researcher elucidated the meaning and purpose of the letters. This was followed by repeated vocal rehearsal of the visual shape and letters of the speech sounds. The illustration in Figure 4.13 which shows

the shape of lip and tongue in sound formation helped the learners to associate the visual shape of the letters with their speech sounds.

PA which is the family of phonological awareness was also emphasised in the instruction of phonological awareness. PA is the ability to understand and manipulate sounds in spoken words. The researcher developed a circular model of an activity which involves: (observing the shape, listening to the sound, calling the name and writing the symbol– OLCW). This approach helped the learners understand the smallest sounds in the spoken words (Castles & Coltheart, 2004; Melby-Lervag, Lyster & Hulme, 2012).

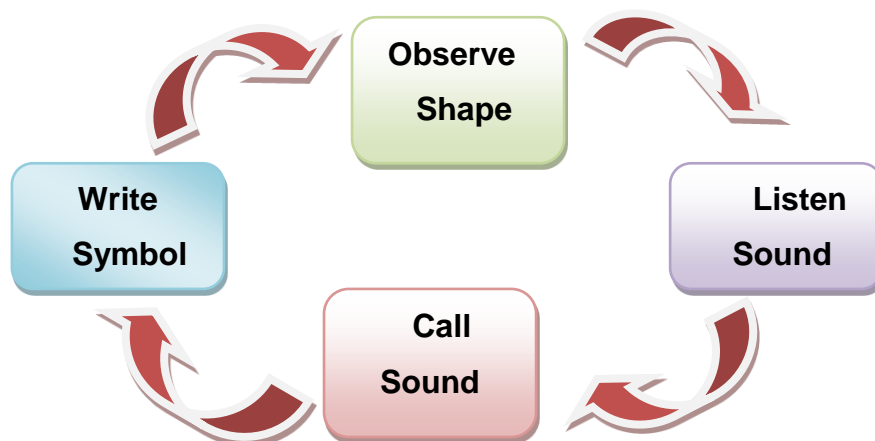


Figure 4.14: Model to teach phonemes and morphemes

The researcher introduced the phonemes using the phonic faces. He used phonetic production cues by representing on his face for each sound (e.g., the letter 'b' similar to bottom lip. When we make /b/ sound the air will be blocked with our lip and released. Thompkins (2003) found out that learners learn concepts about print as they observe in their environment, listen to parents and teachers, read books aloud and experiment with reading and writing.

Following this activity, a list of words including the target one was presented to the learners to demonstrate the phonemes in different word positions. For instance, for b/p phonemes they practiced 'bat' 'pat'; 'tab' 'tap'; 'top' 'bot'; 'tub' 'pub' etc. The PA exercise continued for each phoneme for that learners could easily understand letter-sound relationship and produce the speech sound sequence more easily.

Gradually, the learners became able to comprehend that the presented words had small and countable sounds that could be isolated and blended in to words (e.g., B-a-t and then Bat); specific order of sounds in word (e.g. beginning, middle and last); sounds in words can be moved, removed and replaced to make new words (e.g., rabbit = rat, bat, bar, bit, habit etc.). Furthermore, they realised that there were mouth changes when pronouncing different phonemes (see Figure 4.15).

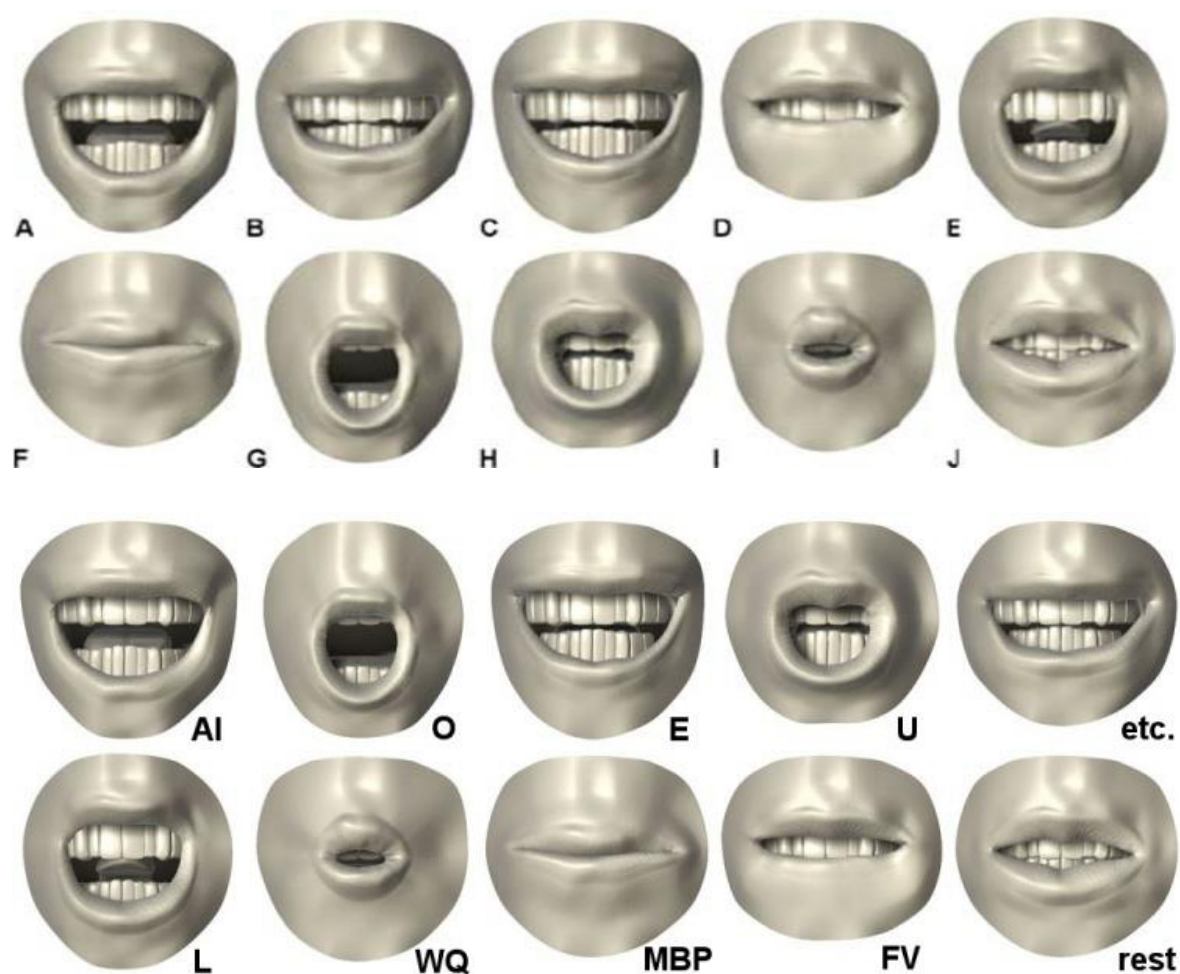


Figure 4.15: Consonant phonemes in words

As the Figure 4.15 illustrates, the learners in the experimental schools learned the following phonemes: consonants (b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z); vowels (a, e, i, o, u); diagraphs– two or more letters that represent one speech sound (sh, ch, th, wh, ee...); blends– two or more letters that retain their individual sounds (bl, str, sk...); diphthong– a vowel blend which is hearable (ou, oi, ow...); and Schwa– a diminished stress or softening of any vowel sound represented by e (the=lthllel).

Learners faced difficulties when learning phonologies. Some learners did not have prior knowledge on the alphabetic principle of letters. However, most of them had good readiness to learn phonology. Due to variations between learners regarding their background and learning readiness, it was challenging to bring all learners to a balanced level of phonological awareness. Therefore, the researcher needed to spend some time in the experimental schools in order to provide sufficient support to all learners.

4.3.2 Knowledge of the Alphabetic Principle

According to Johnston, Anderson & Holligan (1996) alphabetic principle refers to an understanding that spoken words are made up of phonemes and that those phonemes are represented in the text as letters (combination of letters, which make the symbols). This combination is used to represent the speech sounds of a language based on systematic and predictable relationships between written letters, symbol and spoken words. In addition, Johns, Davis and Elish-piper (1999) posit that learners' development of the alphabetic principle can be seen as their spellings become more accurate in representing the sounds of language as they come closer and closer to conventional spelling.

Recognising that an understanding of the alphabetic principle is the cornerstone on which English is built (Johns et al., 1999). The study gave due consideration to enabling the learners to understand that letters in written words correspond to the phonemes in spoken words.

| | | | | | | | | |
|------------|------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| s sat | t tap | p pan | n nose | m mat | a ant | e egg | i ink | o otter |
| g goat | d dog | ck click | r run | h hat | u up | ai rain | ee knee | igh light |
| b bus | f farm | l lolly | j jam | v van | oa boat | oo cook | oo boot | ar star |
| w wish | x axe | y yell | z zap | qu quill | or fork | ur burn | ow now | oi boil |
| ch chin | sh ship | th think | th the | ng sing | ear near | air stair | ure sure | er writer |

Figure 4.16 Consonant phonemes in words

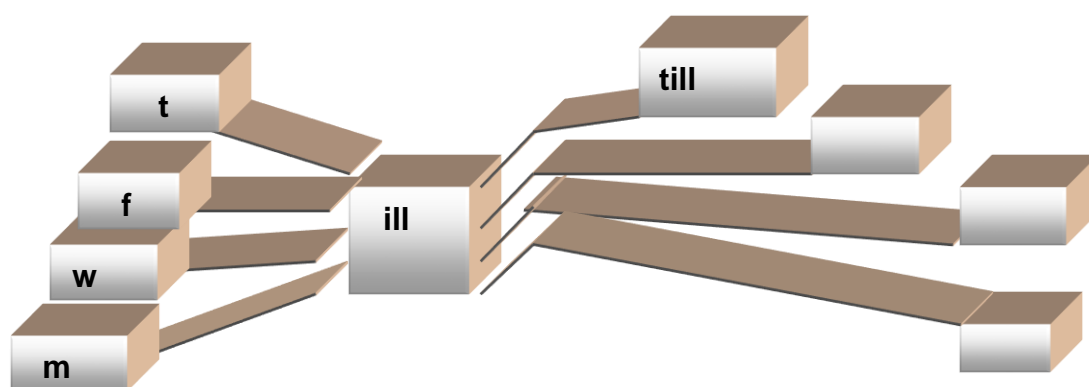
4.3.3 Morphemes

The researcher explained to the learners that a morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. It has classifications like free morphemes which have meaning independent of any other utterances (e.g., bat, boy, happy, hope etc.), and bound morphemes which must be combined with other morphemes and include prefixes, suffixes, or inflectional endings (e.g., bats, boy's, unhappyy, hopeless etc.).

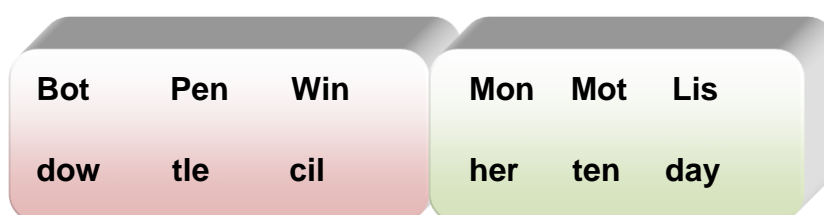
The following procedure was followed for morpheme awareness:

- A story written on (1.5mx1.5m) size canvas was displayed to the learners by fastening it on the black board. The story had around 97 words and six lines. Prior to reading, some words selected from the story were presented to the learners on another canvas.
- The researcher asked the learners to give similar and different meanings of the selected words.
- The researcher instructed the learners to listen to him and follow him when he read the story from the canvas;
- The learners were ordered to read the story with the researcher with guided reading.
- The researcher showed some examples of morpheme construction (e.g., **t + ill = till**).

Activity-1: Constructing words by blending legible



Activity-2: Constructing words by matching



4.3.4 Syntax

Syntax constitutes the rules of language that specify how to combine different classes of morphemes (words) (e.g., subject, verbs, object, adjectives, preposition and conjunctions) to form a sentence. In short, syntax is the structural relationship between the morphemes of a language and the meaning of those combinations (Wren et al., 2001).

The syntax instruction of the study includes some selected elements of a sentence such as subject, verbs, prepositions and conjunctions. The researcher used the following procedure to teach the usage of these selected elements in sentence construction.

The researcher presented another story to the learners. A similar instructional approach used in the previous sections was followed in reading the story to teach this section. Then, some sentences, which involved the focused elements, were presented to the learners.

Activity-3. Sentence construction

Example: Subject: ('I', 'He', 'She', 'You', 'We' and 'They')

Verb to be: ('am', 'is' and 'are')

| Subject | Verb to 'be' | Object |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------|
| I | am | a student |
| He She | is | |
| It | is | a book |
| You We They | are | students |

With the help of the above examples and the pictures presented below, the researcher instructed the learners to construct and read sentences.

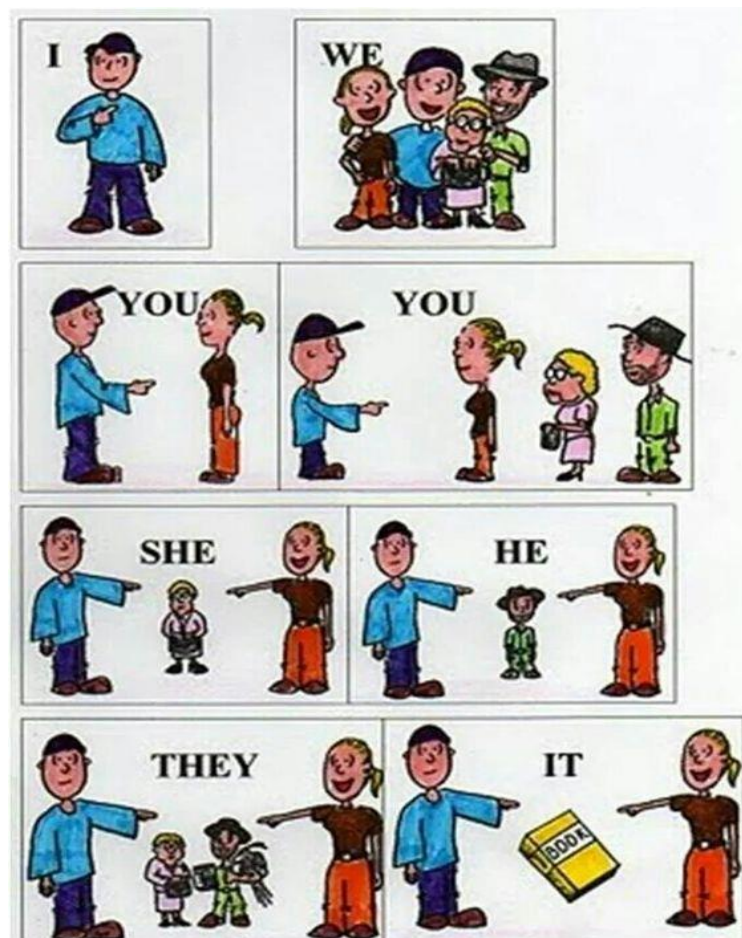


Figure 4.17: Pictorial presentations of pronouns

With the help of examples given, learners practiced sentence construction with similar subject and verb, but different objects.

Activity-4 Using Conjunctions

- Conjunction (and): Combining two sentences by using '**and**' to make one meaningful sentence.

Example1) He is a student.

She is a student.

Answer: He and she are students.

They are students.

Example 2) Apple is a fruit.

Mango is a fruit.

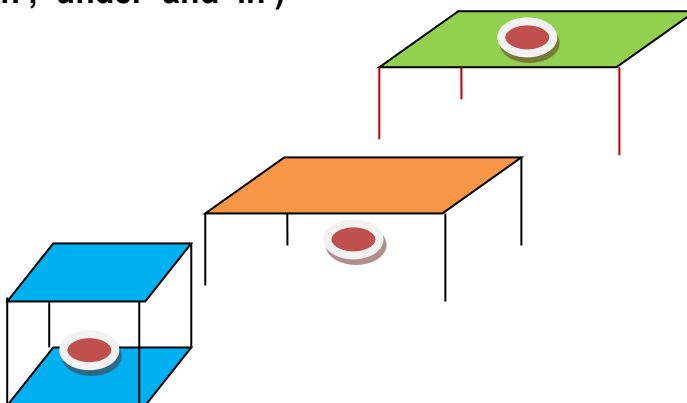
Answer: Apple and mango are fruits.

Activity-4 Using Prepositions: ('on', 'under' and 'in')

The plate is on the table.

The plate is under the table.

The plate is in the box.



The learners were also instructed to construct and read sentences by using prepositions presented in figure 4.18. E.g. The dole is between the plants.



Figure 4.18: Prepositions

Activity- 5 Using action verbs

The researcher also instructed the learners in constructing and reading sentences by using action verbs presented in Figure 4.19. They were told to use “***The boy...***” and “***The girl...***” as the subject of the sentences.

Example: The boy sleeps.
The girl dances.



Figure 4.19: Action verbs

4.3.5 Background knowledge (Schema)

Background knowledge (schema) is the general knowledge structure of learners. It is an important component of reading skill, which activates their reading practice and understanding. It consists of a weave of past and present; a combination of old and new ideas and experiences. It helped the learners to comprehend because new information, new concepts, and new ideas of the reading passage became meaningful when they related them to what they already knew (Merriam, et.al., 2007).

The researcher gave due consideration to background knowledge (schema) since it summarises the learners' knowledge about everything connected with a particular object or event in the reading passage. Therefore, the study used schema theory that reinforced the importance of prior knowledge of learners to learning and the use of tools such as memory aids to bridge new knowledge to older knowledge stored in their schema (ibid.).

Activity-6 Word-spider

The researcher helped learners to work on word-spider activities on a given word to teach semantic and vocabulary enrichment of the learners. For instance, the researcher gave a word “cow”, to the learners. Then they were asked to call any words related to cow from their background knowledge (schema) in sequential order. Figure 4.20a and 4.20b were very helpful for this instructional approach.

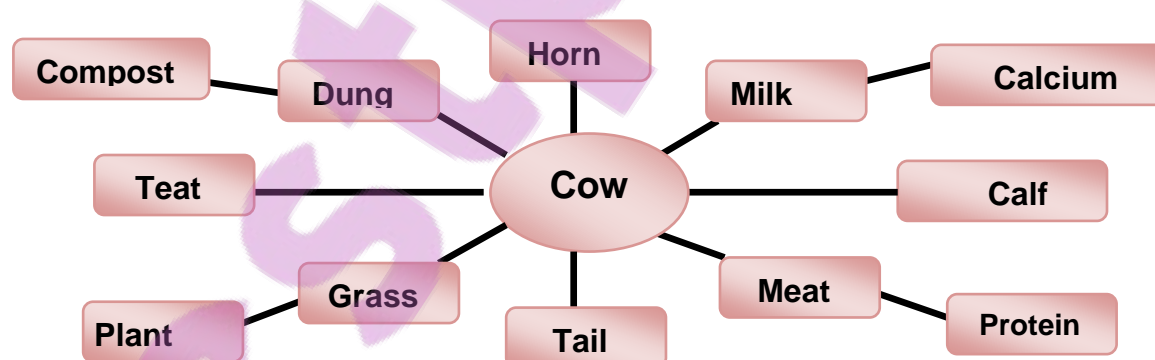


Figure 4.20a. Word-spider activity

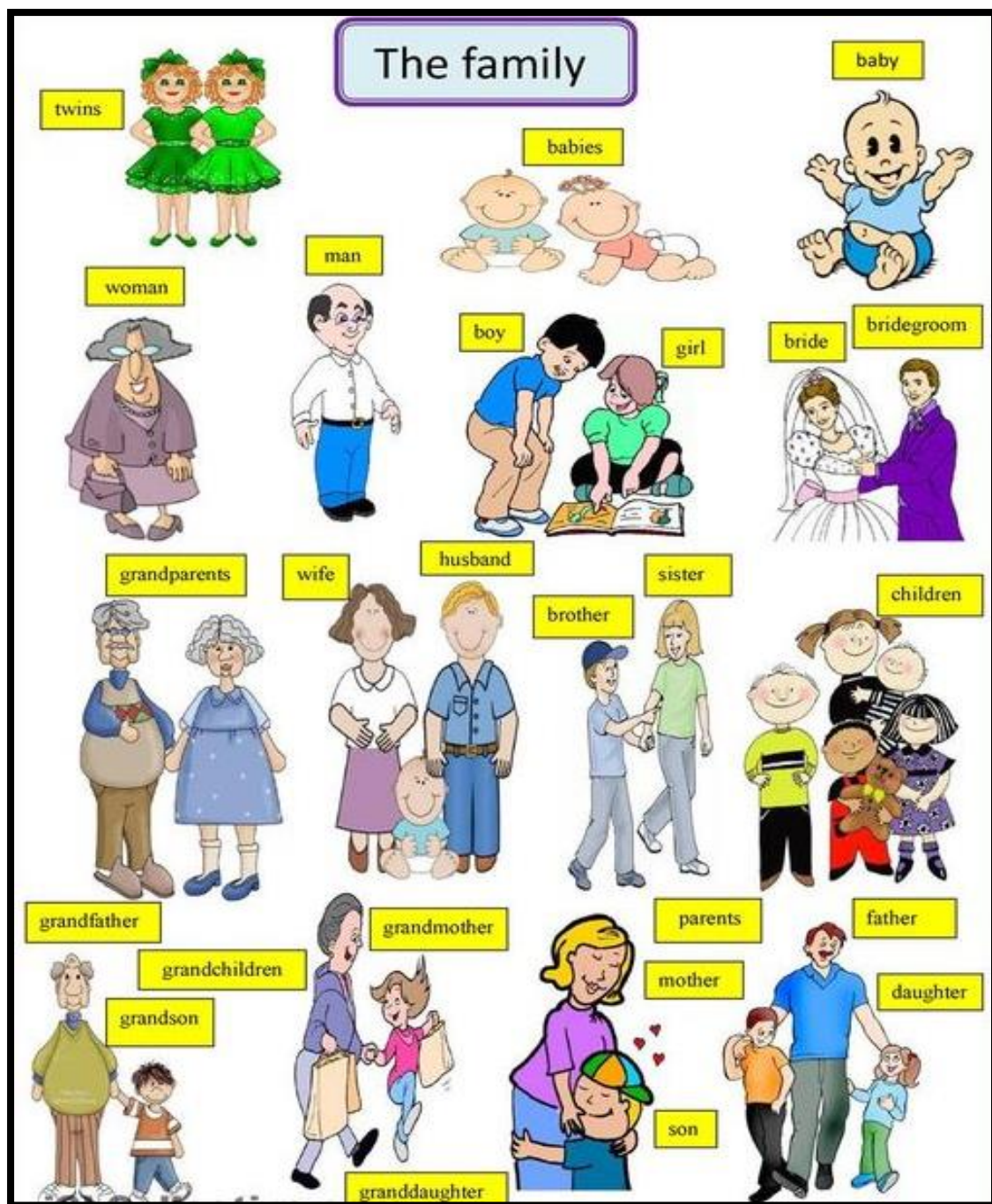


Figure 4.20b: Word spider activity

4.3.6Decoding

4.3.6.1 Cipher knowledge

Cipher knowledge is about the systematic relationships between written and spoken words. It is the knowledge of the child about the code or words in the English writing system. It also refers to the skill of the learner to appropriately sound out a word he/she has never seen before.

Therefore, the researcher wrote new words on the blackboard, which were selected from the story presented. He instructed the learners to point out new words from the list. Then he read the words to the learners and they listened to the sounds of the new words. Following this activity, the learners rehearsed calling out the new words to become familiar with them (Biemiller & Boote, 2006). For example, the following were a few selected words from the stories presented to the learners and they rehearsed how the words sounded (puppet, master, hereafter, prospect, beasts, majesty, grey, bald, condemned, executed, bystanders, whisper, brutal, shepherd, pleased, trick, terrified).

4.3.6.2 Lexical knowledge

Lexical knowledge is the knowledge that enables a child to correctly recognise and pronounce familiar and irregular words. However, the pronunciations of the irregular words are not consistent with other words that are spelled similarly. Due to this, the learners faced difficulty in pronouncing irregular words. Therefore, they had to develop the skill of deciphering regular words, but when they faced irregular words, it was difficult to pronounce and understand them.

Therefore, the researcher helped the learners to mentally compare an irregular word against other known words. For instance, he asked them to indicate irregular words that he sounded out from the list of words written on the blackboard. He also asked them to pronounce the words as he did to them. To this effect, there should have been an internal representation of all of the words (lexicon) of the learners including information about spelling, pronunciation, conjugation, meaning and other details. In other words, the researcher worked to enhance the lexicon (the dictionary in the

learners' brain) through practice, feedback and exposure to the stories' text used in the study (Muter, Hulme, Snowling & Stevenson, 2004).

Gradually, the learners exhibited that they recognised and pronounced irregular words that had similar sounds with the words they knew previously. However, the researcher realised that the development of lexical knowledge in the learners' brains was not a one-night activity. Rather, through experience, it would gradually develop and the learner could pronounce irregular words correctly. As-Chall (1996) and Johnston et al. (1996) found, learning the connection between letters and spoken sounds has been viewed as a critical heuristic for word identification. Understanding that there is a direct relationship between letters and sounds enables an emergent reader to decode the pronunciation of an unknown written word and associate it with a known spoken word (As-Chall, 1996). Therefore, the lesson was accompanied by the learners' rigorous reading practice and feedback from the researcher with the help of the word chart presented in Figure 4.21.

| Silent H | Silent T | Silent K | Silent B |
|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|
| wh <u>h</u> at | wit <u>t</u> ch | <u>k</u> nife | lamb <u>b</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> en | fast <u>t</u> en | <u>k</u> nee | thumb <u>b</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> y | cast <u>t</u> le | <u>k</u> not | num <u>b</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> ich | wat <u>t</u> ch | <u>k</u> nit <u>t</u> ing | crumb <u>b</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> ether | but <u>t</u> cher | <u>k</u> now | climb <u>b</u> ing |
| gh <u>h</u> ost | scrat <u>t</u> ch | <u>k</u> nob | bomb <u>b</u> |
| <u>h</u> onest | list <u>t</u> en | <u>k</u> nock | comb <u>b</u> |
| <u>h</u> our | mat <u>t</u> ch | <u>k</u> nickers | doub <u>t</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> ile | Christ <u>t</u> mas | <u>k</u> nuckle | plumb <u>er</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> ite | mortgag <u>u</u> e | <u>k</u> nigh <u>t</u> | lim <u>b</u> |
| wh <u>h</u> ere | soft <u>t</u> en | <u>k</u> nack | de <u>b</u> t |
| rh <u>h</u> ythm | oft <u>t</u> en | <u>k</u> new | tomb <u>b</u> |
| Silent N | Silent D | Silent G | Silent U |
| Autum <u>n</u> | edg <u>e</u> | <u>g</u> nome | gu <u>e</u> st |
| dam <u>n</u> | hedg <u>e</u> | <u>g</u> narl | gu <u>e</u> ss |
| hym <u>n</u> | Wed <u>u</u> nesday | sign | gu <u>i</u> tar |
| column <u>n</u> | hand <u>s</u> ome | resign | gu <u>a</u> rd |
| | hand <u>d</u> kerchief | design | bu <u>i</u> lding |
| | badg <u>e</u> | foreign <u>er</u> | gu <u>i</u> lty |
| | wedg <u>e</u> | | rog <u>ue</u> |
| | | | vog <u>ue</u> |
| | | | biscu <u>i</u> t |
| | | | tong <u>ue</u> |

| Silent L | Silent W |
|------------------|-------------------|
| al <u>l</u> mond | <u>w</u> ren |
| pal <u>l</u> m | <u>w</u> rote |
| yol <u>l</u> k | <u>w</u> restling |
| cal <u>l</u> m | <u>w</u> riggle |
| sal <u>l</u> mon | <u>w</u> rinkle |
| cal <u>l</u> f | s <u>w</u> ord |
| hal <u>l</u> f | <u>w</u> hole |
| chal <u>l</u> k | <u>w</u> reck |
| tal <u>l</u> k | tw <u>o</u> |
| wal <u>l</u> k | <u>w</u> rap |
| fol <u>l</u> k | <u>w</u> rong |
| | <u>w</u> rist |
| | <u>w</u> riting |

Figure 4.21: Words with silent phonemes

4.3.6.3 Letter knowledge

The study found that learners' letter knowledge (knowledge about the basic unit of reading and writing) was the best predictor of the learners' reading success. In the study, it was observed that learners who have good letter knowledge were better in attempting to call regular and irregular words and reading as well. Based on this ground the researcher guided them to sort letters into categories e.g., curved letters: c, e, o and s; straight letters: l, j, i, r and t; stick-up letters: b, d, h, and u; and hang-down letters: g, p, q, y, etc. Various class activities and homework were given to the learners to attach names to different letters of the alphabet. Finally, the researcher provided feedback to the learners (see Figure 4.13).

4.4 RESULTS FROM SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

The study involved 10 teachers (five from experimental and five from control groups) for the interviews to give their views and opinions on the reading difficulty of their learners and the reading instructional approach they usually used instead of the new one introduced in the study. The teachers were selected purposively based on their years of service in teaching profession and their accessibility. The researcher communicated with the teachers and introduced the purpose and scope of the study to secure their willingness to participate in the study. Teachers from the experimental schools were also invited to attend and observe the implementation of CFLR in the respective schools and then to give their views on it. Based on the teachers' consent, suitable times and venues for the interviews were established. The schools where they taught were selected as the place where the interviews would be conducted after school time on different days.

Analysis of semi-structured interview was done based on the themes developed. The research questions and objectives of the study were used to develop the themes. Primarily the interview questions, (Appendix-15), were classified in to four categories: participants' understanding on reading skill; reading skill enhancing mechanisms, teachers' teaching methodology; new strategies; and opinions of the participants. Table 4.13 shows these categories.

Table 4.13: Classification of teachers' interview questions

| Category | Questions in the interview (Appendix-15) | Research Objectives (RO) | | |
|---------------|---|--------------------------|-------|------|
| | | RO1 | RO 2 | RO 3 |
| Understanding | 1,2,3,4,5,6, 13,15 & 16 | 1,2,3,4,5,6,13&15 | | 16 |
| Strategy used | 14 & 20 | 14 | | 20 |
| Opinion | 7,8,9,10,11,12,17, 18,19 | 7,8,9,10,11,12&17 | 17&18 | 19 |

4.4.1 Addressing Study Objective 3

The interviews aimed at addressing study objective 3, namely, to evaluate the view of teachers on the implementation of CFLR for Grade 3 English reading instruction.

In order to address the above research objective, the researcher posed questions which addressed understanding on the essence of reading skill', 'the importance of reading skill', 'how to enhance reading skill', 'the effect of reading difficulty' and related issues like 'reading skill and self-esteem'. Therefore, the following questions were prepared:

- What is reading in English lessons?
- What is the importance of reading skill?
- What is your understanding of reading difficulty?
- What is your understanding of learners' self-esteem?
- Do you think that reading difficulty affects the self-esteem of learners? How?
- Do you think that reading difficulty affect the success of learners in their education? How?
- Can the usual instructional approach help to improve the reading skills of Grade 3 learners?
- What is your understanding of the cognitive foundation of learning to read?

To classify teachers' responses to the above questions in relation to the third objective of the study, the following themes were established: The essence of reading; the importance of reading skill, the effect of reading difficulty; teachers' instructional approach; and the implementation of CFLR. The teachers' responses presented below, reflect the above themes. To indicate the teachers' response, codes such as (Interview of Control School Teachers-ICT) and (Interview of Experimental School

Teachers-IET) were used (as shown in section 3.7.2). Following this line of procedure, the responses of teachers at control and experimental schools were presented here.

4.4.1.1 Theme 1: The essence of reading

The responses of teacher participants given on theme 1 from the control and experimental schools indicate that teachers attempted to define the essences of reading in terms of learners' skill to call words and understand their meaning. Extracts from the interviews are presented below:

- ICT1: *Reading is an important skill of learners.*
- ICT2: *It is the ability of learners... eh ... to call ... and understand words and sentences.*
- ICT3: *Reading is the skill to understand the meaning of a written text ...*
- ICT4: *...eh...the skill of learners to comprehend the message of a passage...it is called reading skill.*
- ICT5: *Reading means...eh...the dialogue that the learner makes with ...eh ... what we call a written material...and...grasp the meaning...*
- IET1: *Reading is ...understanding the meaning or ...eh ...message of a text...or ...books and just like that.*
- IET2: *eh...it is the activity of an individual or a reader that what he or she does with ...eh...what is written...and ...able to get the idea...*
- IET3: *Reading...eh...it is...difficult to define for me ...but I believe that it is very important ability for learners...to learn.*
- IET4: *It is an important skill of every person...especially to learners...eh...and knowing letters, words and sentences...*
- IET5: *Reading is learners' skill... eh... I mean... the learners should able to read to be good on their education.*

They disclosed that reading is an important skill of learners. The learners' ability to know letters, words and sentences was also reported on in the teachers' interviews. However, they did not address the point that reading skill includes the skill of learners to comprehend the spoken language. They also did not address other important issues of reading. For instance, Catts and Kamhi (1999), Guastello, Beasley and Sinatra

(2000) and Hengari (2007) state that reading includes word recognition, comprehension, interpretation, appreciation and application of what is read. The researchers also define reading as the process of recognition, interpretation and perception of written materials. It is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning (ibid.).

4.4.1.2 Theme 2: The effect of reading difficulty

The responses of teacher participants on theme two also indicate that reading skill and educational success of learners are highly associated. Extracts from the interviews are presented below:

- ICT1: *As a home room teacher I have been observing on my roaster that there were poor results of my learners on various subjects. I feel that the learners' poor achievement is as the result of their reading difficulty in their mother tongue as well as English language ...*
- ICT2: *I believe that ... learners who can read can be successful on their education. Therefore, they should improve it. Especially, we teachers should help these learners to improve their reading skill.*
- ICT3: *As of me, without reading skill, it is very difficult for learners to show progress on their education ... it is very tough activity for many learners*
- ICT4: *I observed that learners in my class who are not able to read often feel shame ... and other learners mock on them.*
- ICT5: *There are some learners in my school who can read ... they scored good results on their class work, homework and exams ...*
- IET1: *It is not unusual to see few students in my class during reading session ... most of them miss the class ... I frequently contact the parents ... but ... couldn't see improvement ...*
- IET2: *I usually observe frustration and disgust on my learners when I invite them to read ... Most of the time they want to listen to my reading passively ...*
- IET3: *Learners with reading difficulty do not feel comfort in the reading activity ... since they fear to commit mistake in the classroom especially in front of their friends.*

- IET4: *It is my daily observation that my students are facing challenge on reading activity; and as a result, they would be unable to show good result on tests and exams ... They also feel embarrassment when they are ordered to read.*
- IET5: *There are a number of students in my school who are challenged on their education due to reading difficulty ... there are many students who can't read in my class ...*

They revealed that poor results of the learners on various subjects were due to poor reading skill. They also reported their observation that learners with good reading skills were good achievers. Teacher participants also asserted that learners' reading skill determined their level of self-esteem. For instance, the participants reported that learners with reading difficulties often felt shame or faced emotional challenges like frustration and disgust in their classroom. Most of the learners with poor reading skill were also reported that they miss classes during reading sessions. The findings are supported by Rose (2004) and Ngwenya (2010) who confirm that there is a strong correlation between reading skill and academic success. Furthermore, Pikulski (1998) and Pretorius (2002) posit that good reader learners are more likely to do well in school and pass exams than learners with poor reading skill.

4.4.1.3 Theme 3: The instructional approach used by teachers

Extracts from the interviews are presented below:

- ICT1: *I believe that there should be high emphasis on instructional approach to teach reading skill. But, frankly speaking ... I did not give separate emphasis to it. ... coz ... the time is not enough, ... the learners' motivation also very poor ... they aren't involved in the lesson ... learners did not have learning readiness, and there is shortage of reading books in my school and the like ...*
- ICT2: *I strongly believe learners should be motivated and supported to read at home and at school as well. Of course, there are hindering factors. For instance, they may not have sufficient time to read at home ... eh ...*
- *... there are also other factors in the school ... eh ... like shortage of books ... eh ... the class size ... eh ... learners' poor educational background ... I mean ... eh ... poor readiness and so on.*

- ICT3: *I am not comfortable with what I am doing in the classroom ... coz I couldn't enhance the reading skill of the learners ... I wish to see my students actively participated in the reading activities ... learners have no motivation for the lesson ... They aren't interested on the lesson ... There should be some kind of mechanism to change the instructional approach.*
- ICT4: *Yes! I teach reading skill to my students. My teaching method is that first I read the book to the learners while they follow me through reading their books in their groups. Then, I will give them the meaning of words, then they would work sentence construction exercises. ... But, I couldn't see their progress ... eh... that may be their poor background and lack of support from others. ... they are de-motivated ... don't participate ...*
- ICT5: *... eh ... well... I have been trying my best ... but the learners have no motivation ... my instructional approach is that ... eh ...I will read to them ... then they will follow me by struggling with their books. After that I will give them written class work from their text ...I observed that only very few of them attempt to do the activities given ... most of them have no interest to follow my lesson ...*
- IET1: *... large class size of my school couldn't allow me to teach reading skill. Therefore, I give focus only to teaching other English language elements such as vocabulary enrichment and sentence construction ... their motivational level is not good ... most of them feeling disgusting and discomfort in my class ... so ... it is unthinkable to engage them in reading activity.*
- IET2: *... Reading activity doesn't have sufficient coverage in my English lesson ... I mean the classroom situation doesn't invite to practice reading ... therefore, I am the only one to read the book in the class room ... but very rarely ...very few learners are invites to attempt reading.*
- IET3: *Teaching reading in second language is very tough. However, as much as possible I motivated my learners to practice reading in the classroom. Most of them are not willing. Due to this, I often give emphasis to other skills rather than reading ...*
- IET4: *Wow, it is very tiresome activity. My students dislike reading.... Most of them are not willing to practice reading in the classroom.the reading session in my class would be a zone of frustration to most of the learners. Sometimes it would be*

full of fun because, learners often used to enjoy and laugh on the mistake done by other learners who try to read.

IET5: *Most of the words and sentences in the paragraph are very difficult to the learners. It is hard time for me making to them read. They have no enthusiasm to reading ...Therefore, there should be some mechanism to improve their reading skill.*

It is possible to understand from the above responses of teachers that they faced challenges in teaching reading skills. Their responses also indicate that they did not have appropriate pedagogical readiness in handling reading instruction. For instance, the teacher participants gave the following responses to indicate their challenge in teaching reading:

- ICT1: *I believe that there should be high emphasis on instructional approach to teach reading skill.*
- ICT3: *I am not comfortable with what I am doing in the classroom ... coz I couldn't enhance the reading skill of the learners ... there should be some kind of mechanism to change the instructional approach.*
- IET3: *Teaching reading in second language is very tough. However, as much as possible I motivated my learners to practice reading in the classroom. Most of them are not willing. Due to this, I often give emphasis to other skills rather than reading ...*
- IET4: *Wow it is very tiresome activity. My students dislike reading. ... Most of them are not willing to practice reading in the classroom.*

The responses of the teachers also indicated that lack of learners' phonological and morphological readiness was a hindering factor in developing reading skills. Furthermore, large class size was also confirmed as challenging factor that affected the reading instruction.

Motivational problems were also reported by the teacher participants from control and experimental groups. Teacher participant from control school (ICT1) reported "*...the learners' motivation also very poor...*" Similarly, teacher participant from experimental school (IET5) also disclosed that "*...learners have no enthusiasm to reading...*" From the teachers' responses, it is possible to conclude that there should be due consideration for the reading instruction at Grade 3.

4.4.1.4 Theme 4: The implementation of cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR)

The participants were asked to respond to the choices: “I like CFLR”; “I do not favor CFLR” and “I do not know CFLR.” Extracts from the interviews are presented below:

- ICT1: *I have never heard of this teaching method ... eh ... if ... it is helpful on the reading skill of my learners ... eh ... yes ... I like to use it.*
- ICT2: *Never, I don't know what you mean by cognitive foundation of learning to read ...but ... it seems new approach. As you observed my class, teaching reading is very challenging task in my school. I need some sort of training to teach reading.*
- ICT3: *No, I did not hear of it before. It is the first time for me to hear about it from you.*
- ICT4: *This is totally new approach for me. As you informed me, I think, this method seems very interesting. I am very happy to use it. At the end of your study, I hope you will teach us about this method in more detail.*
- ICT5: *No I don't know CFLR ...but I strongly support that there should be some sort of mechanism to support these learners.*
- IET1: *Of course, I don't know about CFLR, but as much as possible, I try to teach some learners to be familiar with some words and their meanings. But, your method is very different. I liked it. You should teach us. I observed some of your class based on your invitation. Really it is very interesting.*
- IET2: *As I understood from your explanation, CFLR is very suitable teaching method of reading ... coz it gives emphasis to language elements and reading strategies ...Thank you for inviting me to observe your teaching method in my school. ... As I observed ... eh ... your teaching approach, really ... it is very interesting. I am very happy to see that learners are striving to read through your new approach ... the work we done in the team of individual learning program was very interesting.*
- IET3: *Wow! ... It is very interesting ...Thank you for your invitation to observe your class in my school. ... The teaching aids you used especially, phoneme charts, word charts, pictures and the stories printed on the plastic board (canvas) are very interesting. ... You made the classes more decorated, attractive and dynamic than*

I did ... and I observed most of the learners of my school were highly motivated and participating eagerly.

- IET4: ... eh ... as I told you earlier ...teaching to read is very challenging activity. But, you amazed me through your instructional approach. Thank you for your invitation to observe your teaching method. It is very surprising to see my classrooms are too fascinated with your teaching aids ... learners are happily participating in the activities ... I have also learned a lot in the IEP team ... the learner's progress was remarkable as the result our work.
- IET5: CFLR is new for me, but ...as you showed me ... eh ...it is really very interesting. I observed that all learners are motivated It is very interesting to see learners' interest was increased in reading lesson that I couldn't see in my previous lessons ... most of them are actively engaged in the reading activities ...

It is observed that majority of teacher participants from the control and experimental schools valued the CFLR instructional approach that incorporated linguistic elements and text comprehension strategies. Teachers from both groups favoured this new approach. For instance, teacher participants from the experimental schools reported that;

IET3: Wow! ...It is very interesting..... Thank you for your invitation to observe your class in my school...The teaching aids you used especially, phoneme charts, word charts, pictures and the stories printed on the plastic board (canvas) are very interesting. ...You made the classes more decorated and dynamic than I did.....and I observed most of the learners of my school were highly motivated and participating eagerly.

IET4....eh...as I told you earlier... teaching to read is very challenging activity. But, you amazed me through your instructional approach. Thank you for your invitation to observe your teaching method. It is very surprising to see my classrooms are too fascinated with your teaching aids.

Even though, the participants from the control schools were teaching with the conventional method, they suggested that there should be an alternative instructional approach to teach reading. For instance, ICT2 said that “Never, I don't know what you mean by cognitive foundation of learning to read...but ... it seems new approach. As

you observed my class, teaching reading is very challenging task in my school. I need some sort of training to teach reading.” ICT5 from the control school also disclosed that “No I don’t know CFLR... but I strongly support that there should be some kind of mechanism to support these learners...”

4.4.2 Addressing Study Objective 2

The researcher investigated the view of teachers on the challenges arising from the implementation of CFLR. To understand whether the implementation of CFLR is challenging or not required the involvement of teachers’ deep observation. Therefore, teachers of the experimental schools were invited to observe the implementation of the new approach in their respective schools.

Objective 2 was investigated in line with the following themes extracted from the response of the participants at experimental schools; “Interesting”; “Challenging”; and “Somehow challenging”.

- IET1: *Of course ... your new approach is very interesting ...but I am afraid that it may be affected by large class size ... eh ... shortage of resources is also the other challenge... for instance, I can imagine that you invested too much money for the preparation of these teaching aids ... this is very challenging for teachers to cover from their pocket ... the schools may not have plan for such kinds of teaching aids. The learners’ level of motivation is appreciable. I observed that learners were motivated by themselves they are working independently and collaboratively ... I believe that learning becomes more meaningful when learners are motivated by the teacher as well as by themselves. This was the result of your method ...*
- IET2: *In my opinion, this new approach requires the involvement of all concerned bodies. Because...as you can see the class size, facilities like availability of books and teaching aids are critical in your method. Without these aids, it seems somehow challenging. The other problem I observed is that few learners have some variation on their learning readiness ...learners should have good background and learning readiness at the earlier grade levels ...otherwise it is burden to the teacher ...but if they were taught phonological awareness at grade 1 and 2 now at this stage it minimizes the burden of the teacher to go to other stages like the word recognition and sentences construction.*

- IET3: *Well ... your new method takes the learners' background in to consideration, my fear is on that the language, cultural, religious and socio-economic variation of the learners may affect their equal involvement in the activities. ... you should also need to consider that English is a second language to the learners in Ethiopia ... they do not have opportunity to practice sufficiently. This condition worsens their reading skill in the target language ... of course I observed they have also difficulty of reading books written in their mother tongue language. Therefore, I believe that language exposure with reading practice is good.*
- IET4: *I appreciate your strategy used to manage large class size through 1 to 5 cooperative learning. ... eh ... but ... my worry is ... that some learners may hide themselves in such kinds of groups. ...eh ... they may not participate effectively. I have got ample opportunity to see where my weakness and teaching gap lays ...Now I may find it easier to instruct and follow up my learners in reading section ...*
- *I also observed the importance of learners' motivation on their learning ... they are interested on your lesson ...your method is very good to motivate the learners and also to make them motivate themselves intrinsically ... wow ...they are interested on the lesson.*
- IET5: *I don't see any serious challenge ...with the exception of shortage of books. ... eh ... in your method you used printed materials as demonstration ... so other concerned bodies should consider for the fulfillment of these important aids ... but ... it seems expensive to me to cover its cost with my small salary ...I observed that learners are helping each other in collaborative learning ...this is very good approach. ...I learned that learners are the source of information and inputs in the teaching-learning process. ...you amazed me in utilizing the background knowledge of the learners from their schemata ... yes, this approach makes the classroom more lively. ...as far as my experience concern in my school ...there are also few learners from different language and culture ... they were high challenged in my instructional approach ... at the beginning of your intervention there were similar problems you faced due to learners' background variation ...but gradually your method solved the challenges ... that is very good ...*

The responses of the teacher participants indicate that the implementation of CFLR requires the usage of teaching aids and to give due consideration to learners'

background. For instance, teacher participant (IET2) reported that *“...I observed that learners should have good background and learning readiness at the earlier grade levels...”* Similarly, another teacher participant (IET3) from other experimental school disclosed that *“Well... your new method takes the learners’ background in to consideration, my fear is on that the language, cultural, religious and socio-economic variation of the learners may affect their equal involvement in the activities.”*

The participants also emphasised the importance of the concern of other stakeholders like educational planners and school leaders in the implementation of CFLR. This is due to the fact that the class size management, supply of educational resources and leadership of schools are the major roles and responsibilities of these officials.

Teacher participants (IET2) revealed that *“In my opinion this new approach requires the involvement of all concerned bodies. Because...as you can see the class size, facilities like availability of books and teaching aids are critical in your method. Without these aids, it seems somehow challenging.* Similarly other teacher participant (IET5) also described that *“I don’t see any serious challenge... with the exception of shortage of books....eh... in your method you used printed materials as demonstration....so other concerned bodies should consider for the fulfillment of these important aids...but ...it seems expensive to me to cover its cost with my small salary...”*

However, as the study indicated, locally available resources can be easily used. Large class sizes can also be maintained through a cooperative learning approach. Teachers’ intensive follow-up is essential to engage learners in the lesson.

4.4.3 Analysis of the Themes of Learners’ Interviews

Study Objective 1: The difference between a cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) instruction and conventional reading instruction.

Study Objective 3: The view of learners on the implementation of cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) for Grade 3 English reading instruction.

Learners can be reliable source of data about the typical behaviour of teachers exhibited in the classroom environment. Learners have ample opportunity to observe the behaviour of their teachers daily with in the classroom. Thus, learners' views on the effect of CFLR in improving the reading skills of Grade 3 learners in contrast with the conventional method were investigated.

Therefore, as indicated in (section 3.5.2.2), Grade 3 learners in the control and experimental schools were selected to talk about the instructional approaches used and their challenges and experience in learning to read. They asked to view their teachers' usual method by comparing with the new approach used by the researcher. The researcher used the information of the teachers for the selection of learners with reading problems and those with good reading skill for interviews. Furthermore, the pre-test results were also very helpful for the selection of these learners. For ethical purpose, learners were also coded as Interview of Learner at Control school (ICL) and Interview of Learner at Experimental school (ILE) (section 3.5.2.2).

4.4.3.1 View of learners from control schools

The response of learners from the control school with regard to the conventional teaching method used by their teachers developed in to themes, which are stated as follows: "It is not comfortable", "I do not understand", "Still I could not read", "I need new approach" and "I feel boring".

- ICL1: *My teacher's method is not comfortable for me. ... it is boring ...he should change it ... my test results in many subjects are very poor ... coz I couldn't read and understand the questions ... Often, he gives us boring word construction class activities ...the words are difficult. Regarding CFLR ... eh ...I don't know about it ...*
- ICL2: *It is not clear for me what the teacher is doing in the class room. He often reads passage from the book. Then he gives class work ... eh ... I simply copy from my friend ... but we did not get correct answer. It is not clear to us. ... eh ...reading is very difficult for me ...I don't think that I can read ... CFLR? ... eh ...I never ever heard ...*
- ICL3: *Still I didn't get reading opportunity in my class ... So, I couldn't read ... It is only our teacher who reads in the class ... CFLR ... I think it is new method ... but I do not know what it clearly means ...*

- ICL4: *The passages are not clear ... I don't understand ... My teacher don't interpret the passage in to my local language ... I hate reading ... coz ... I can't read ... The teacher should use other method that helps me to read. ... No ... I do not know CFLR.*
- ICL5: *I wish to have good reading skill ... My result on English tests is very poor ... eh ... I want to improve ... I do not know CFLR.*

The responses of the learners from control school show that they were challenged because of poor reading skill. (ICL4) disclosed that *"The passages are not clear.....I don't understandMy teacher don't interpret the passage in to my local language..."*

Other learner participants (ICL2) from similar group disclosed that reading was a challenging activity. He said that *"It is not clear for me what the teacher is doing in the class room...He often reads passage from the book. Then he gives us class work...eh...I simply copy from my friend...but we did not get correct answers. It is not clear to us.*

Learner participants also indicated that they were not comfortable with the instructional approach of their teacher. For instance, a learner participant from control school (ICL1) reported that *"...My teacher method is not comfortable for me. ...it is boring...he should change it...my test results in many subjects are very poor...because I could not read and understand the questions..."* Learners suggested being taught by alternative methods of teaching to learn reading. The response of a learner from control school (ICL2) reveals that: *"The teacher should use other method that helps me to read"* Furthermore, learners reported that they do not have information about CFLR (ICL3, ICL4 and ICL5) said *"...CFLR...I think it is new method...but I do not know what it clearly means...I do not know CFLR, No....I do not know CFLR"* respectively.

4.4.3.2 View of learners from experimental schools

The learners' responses with regard to the first objective involved expressions such as, "I like your approach", "I am reading", "My reading is improved", "It is very interesting" and "I enjoyed a lot". The preceding views from learners indicate that CFLR influenced the reading skill of Grade 3 learners. Furthermore, the learners in the experimental school were motivated and actively participating in the reading activities.

- ILE1: *Your approach is new. It is very good ... You helped me to read. ...The pictures are very interesting. ...Now I can read some words by myself. Thank you.*
- ILE2: *The method is different. I like it. ... I like the stories. ... My teacher did not use this approach ... I scored good results on my class work ... yes. I can read.*
- ILE3: *Our teacher did not teach like this ...eh ...it is interesting ...Well ...now I learned how to spell words ...if I continue like this, my reading will be improved ...I know I didn't have good background ...that affected me not to show good change by your method ...I began learning reading in your class ...Your method is better than what our teacher used.*
- ILE4: *Thank you. I read stories with you ... of course my reading skill is not improved ...but I can read ... coz ...I started learning alphabets here with you ... but ... eh ...I hope I will improve it in the future ... I wish my teacher will use this method ... I did only few mistakes on my class work you gave me.*
- ILE5: *I liked my class. You decorated the class with many pictures and word charts. I did not see such approach before this ... Please, tell to our teacher to teach us as you did. I hope my reading will be improved ... Please, would you help me?*

Learners' responses suggested that their reading skill was improved. For instance their responded that "...You helped me to read...", "I scored good result on my class work...", "Well...now I learned how to spell words...", "if I continue like this, my reading will be improved...", "I did only few mistakes on my class work you gave me...", "Please, tell to our teacher to teach us as you did..." Therefore, it is possible to glean from the responses of the learners that the new method helped the learners improve their reading problem. However, some of the participants from the experimental schools depicted that their reading skill was not improved due to their poor academic background or lack of prior readiness for learning.

The responses of two learner participants (ILE3 and ILE4) indicate that their poor educational background lack of learning readiness affected them not to show good result with the help of new instructional approach. They said, "I know I didn't have good background...that affected me not to show good change by your method... I began learning reading I your class... Your method is better than what our teacher used..." "Thank you. I read stories with you...of course my reading skill is not improved coz..."

I started learning alphabets here with you...but ...eh..I hope I will improve it in the future.”

4.4.4 Analysis of the Themes of Parents’ Interview

Study Objective 1: The difference between a cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) instruction and conventional reading instruction.

Study Objective3: The view of parents on the implementation of cognitive foundation of learning to read (CFLR) for Grade 3 English reading instruction.

Parents of Grade 3 learners were selected purposively to talk about their observations and views on the reading skills and reading instruction taught to their children. Parents’ selection was based on the score of the learners’ achieved on the pre-test and post-tests. High, average and low scores of the learners dictated the selection of the parents. Parents were coded as ‘interview of control school parents’ (ICP) and ‘interview of experimental school parents’ (IEP) (see section 3.7.2.2).

The view of parents at the control school spoke on their perceived understanding on the conventional method used by teachers. However, they could not describe about CFLR since they had no any information about it.

However, parents interviewed at the experimental schools attempted to give their observation on the implementation of CFLR from their point of view and their classroom exposure. The following were the major interview questions presented to both groups:

Is your child able to read?

- Did you observe low educational performance of your child as result of poor reading skills?
- What instructional strategy does the teacher of your child use to enhance reading skills?
- What way do you suggest for improving reading skills in English lessons?
- What is your understanding of cognitive foundation of learning to read?
- Do you think the English language textbook of grade 3 helps to improve your child’s reading skills?) (Appendix-17).

Based on the above interview questions, the response of parents in the control schools with regard to the first objective were categorised in to themes such as “I don’t like the teacher approach”, “My child can’t read”, “My child isn’t happy”, and “It is not interesting”. The preceding views taken from control school parents depict that the conventional method did not help the reading skill of learners.

4.4.4.1 View of parents from control schools

The responses of the parents, from the control schools, indicated that they were worried about the reading difficulty of their children.

- ICP1: *I am bored of my child’s daily challenges on his English homework ...He is not doing good on his English test. I have no good educational background to help my child ...I usually feel sorry for this ...*
- ICP2: *Oh ... I wish to see my child’s reading problem is improved ... I think ... something is wrong with the teaching method ... I wish to contact his teacher ... but I am busy on work ...I couldn’t help my child.*
- ICP3: *I heard from my child that she did not like English subject because of her poor reading difficulty ... the home works are very difficult to her ... I don’t understand the passages. They are difficult.*
- ICP4: *I often follow up my child’s education progress ...his reading skill is a little bit good. ...his school couldn’t help him to improve and make him fluent reader ... my child also informed me that the teacher’s teaching approach of reading is not suitable.*
- ICP5: *I frequently contacted my child’s teacher for his reading difficulty. But still his problem is not solved ... his test result is not good... he doesn’t like his school. I enforce him to go to school ... my child frequently told me that this classroom is highly crowded and teachers are not seriously follows up each learner.*

A parent from control school (ICP1) said, “*I am bored of my child’s daily challenges on his English homework... He is not doing good on his English test.*” Another parent (ICP3) from another school also reported“*...I heard from my child that she did not like English subject because of her reading difficulty... the home works are very difficult to her...*”

Parents also disclosed that they were not comfortable with the instructional approach of English teachers since they could not observe remarkable changes on the reading skill of their children. For instance, one parent (ICP2) revealed “...*I think...something is wrong with the teaching method...*” Another parent (ICP4) depicted “*I often follow up my child’s education progress... his reading skill is not good. ... his school couldn’t help him to improve and make him fluent reader.*”

4.4.4.2 Views of parents from experimental schools

The parents’ responses in the experimental schools were categorised into themes such as “I like your approach”, “Now my child reads”, “My child is so happy because of you”, and “It is very interesting”. The preceding views taken from parents depict that CFLR method improved the reading skill of Grade 3 learners. Furthermore, they reported that learners were motivated and actively participating in the reading activities.

- IEP1: *I was very sad because of my child reading problem ... but what you showed me in your class room is very nice ... learners are attempting to read... Your class room is very nice. I wish it will be always like this ... I observed that learners are motivated and ...it is interesting... it is very nice to see that the student with visual challenges has been showing progress ...and working with peers ...”.*
- IEP2:*It is very good ...learners are attempting to read through your new approach ... It is very important to share this kind of teaching approach to regular teachers so that they can easily support their learners ...You were too much absorbed by your activity ... this indicates you are highly concerned to the reading problem of our children*
- IEP3: *... I am the member of teacher-parent association of the school ... parents often claimed that they were worried about the reading problem of their children... what I observed in your classroom is very interesting ... thank you for your invitation ... learners are highly motivated ... I observed that your learners are actively involved in the lesson ... that is very nice ... the collaborative learning approach also very interesting ... You should also show this practice to higher officials working the area of education ...*

- IEP4. ... *The teaching aids are very impressive ... the stories are also very good ... please, you should teach the school teachers to use this new approach... the learners' collaboration is very good... It had better other educational officers from the region and district offices were invited and attended to see what is really practiced here ... well I hope you will going to present your final output to them ...*
- IEP5: ... *thank you for your new method ... I saw learners are reading stories through your help... the classroom situation is very attractive. You decorated with very nice teaching aids ...the learners interest is very high...I also like the stories selected for the instruction ...*

We can understand from the responses of parents of experimental schools that the new approach positively impacted the reading skill of learners. They favoured the new approach. For instance, parents (**IEP2**), (**IEP3**) and (**IEP3**) from the experimental schools respectively said *"It is very good ...learners are attempting to read through your new approach..."*, *"...I am the member of teacher-parent association of the school...parents often claimed that they were worried about the reading problem of their children...what I observed in your classroom is very interesting...thank you for your invitation..."*, *"...thank you for your new method...I saw learners are reading stories through your help..."*

Parent participants also depicted that the school teachers need to replace their usual method with a more appropriate teaching method that can bring about significant change in learners' reading skills. For instance, a parent participant (**IEP2**) suggested *"...it is very important to share this kind of teaching approach to regular teachers so that they can easily support their learners..."* Similarly, another parent participants (**IEP4**) also suggested in his view of that *"...the teaching aids are very impressing...the stories are also very good...please, you should teach the school teachers to use this new approach..."*

4.4.5 Classroom Observation

The researcher conducted classroom observation on teachers and learners at the experimental and control groups. The observation made at the control schools helped the researcher to identify what instructional approach the teachers were using as well as the challenge faced by both teachers and learners. Similarly, the researcher observed the experimental schools' classes while he was teaching. He observed the

learners' activity, their challenges and general classroom situation with regard to the implementation of CFLR. Consequently, based on the observation conducted in both groups, the researcher developed themes for the post-observation analysis.

4.2.5.1 Observations of teachers

The researcher carried out classroom observation in the control group schools based on the checklist in Appendix-21. Teachers observed in the five control schools shared the same instructional approach. Most of the teachers read and explained the textbook. Learners were not given many opportunities to develop their reading skills. Major activities of the teachers were ordering the learners to take out their textbooks in their cooperative teams, then, instructing that they should listen to their teacher reading and do class work activities developed from the reading passages.

A summary of the observations follows:

- Teachers did not provide a variety of tasks to learners to demonstrate phonological awareness (i.e., awareness of rhyme, alliteration, and phoneme awareness); and to spell and identify words that share certain characteristics with target words.
- Teachers did not order learners to read passage aloud or make notes of oral reading in order to develop learners' oral reading accuracy.
- Teachers did not give synonyms and antonyms to the learners to demonstrate similarities and differences through matching.
- Teachers did not give various activities to the learners so as to identify vowel and consonants.
- Teachers did not monitor oral reading rate and accuracy by presenting reading passage so as to enhance reading fluency.
- Teachers did not give words and ask learners to provide independent meanings for each word given.
- Teachers did not present written words with pictures to the learners and order them to match written words with pictures in order to increase reading comprehension skills.

4.2.5.2 Observations on learners

The researcher conducted observation on learners at the control and experimental schools based on the observation checklist (Appendix-28). The following results were identified from the observation at the control schools:

- Learners were not motivated to be engaged in reading activities.
- Learners were not provided with a reading passage that was level-appropriate for them.
- Learners did not attempt to spell words or discover words that had common features with target words.
- Learners' vocabulary knowledge was not demonstrated through matching synonyms.
- Learners did not reveal knowledge of word meanings by producing definitions, synonyms, or other suitable answers.
- Learners did not appropriately recognise regular and irregular words from increasingly complex words category.
- Learners did not practice identifying vowels and consonants.
- Learners did not practice reading text aloud while the teacher monitored oral reading pace and accuracy.
- Learners did not practice the identification of pseudo-words in a list using reasonable conventions of English spelling-sound relationships.
- Learners did not practice matching written words with pictures, read short sentences aloud correctly or answer explicit comprehension questions.
- Learners did not quickly and accurately write the alphabet or dictated words.

Learners in the experimental schools were very happy in learning reading skills through the new instructional approach. The observation was done using the check list found in Appendix-28. The following outputs were found:

- Phoneme awareness, morpheme awareness, sentence construction skills, identifying pseudo-words, identifying consonants and vowels.
- Learners were highly motivated to be engaged in silent and oral reading activities.
- Learners were provided with a reading passage that is leveled appropriately to them.

- Learners were provided with a variety of activities to in rich them with phonological awareness.
- Learners were very happy in the participation of activities including language comprehension and reading comprehension.
- Learners with special needs were provided with pedagogical support, which involves life skill, and social support. As a result of the support given, the learners showed good progress in their reading activity.
- The supports given in the IEP facilitated classroom learning and learners' achievement.

4.4.6 Conclusion

The study investigated the effect of CFLR instruction on the reading skills of Grade 3 learners. The findings presented in Tables 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 imply that the new instructional approach was effective in improving learners reading skills. The number of experimental school participants who failed in the pre-test showed significant improvement on the post-test. Tables 4.7 and 4.9 also clearly indicate that the new instructional method helped to improve mean values significantly.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the statistical analysis of quantitative data and thematic analysis of qualitative data. The first section examined the socio-economic background of the learners and their parents, teachers and schools. Section 4.1 showed that the majority of learner participants were from similar socio-economic backgrounds.

Section 4.1 also presented the analysis of data on the profile of participating schools and teachers. The findings indicated that the selected schools were not well-equipped or capacitated in terms of school furniture, equipment and essential educational resources like books, well-built classrooms, desks, chalkboards, computers, reading rooms, library and language laboratories. Most learners were challenged because the classrooms were overcrowded, exposed to noise, and had little fresh air or enough light.

The analysis of teachers' profile showed teachers' qualifications, teaching experience, in-service training taken, weekly teaching load carried by English language teachers.

The result of analysis of data revealed that the majority of teachers are diploma holders. Their teaching experience ranged from 2 to 30 years. Their teaching load was rated from 30 to 40 periods a week.

The study analysed the post-test and pre-test scores. A t-test was used to analyse the learners' scores on the achievement test. The output from the test indicated that CFLR instruction is effective in enhancing the reading skills of Grade 3 learners. The qualitative data of the study were also analysed in section 4.2. The data were collected through semi-structured interview and observation. The thematic analysis done on the data collected through semi-structured interviews and observations indicated that the CFLR positively impacted the reading skill of Grade 3 learners.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of a CFLR instruction on English reading skill of Grade 3 learners. This chapter provides the discussion of the findings in terms of the following three objectives of the study stated in chapter one: (i) Investigate the difference between a CFLR instruction and conventional reading instruction; (ii) Find out any challenges arising in employing a CFLR instruction to teach reading skill in English for Grade 3 learners; and (iii) Evaluate the view of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of CFLR for Grade 3 English reading instruction.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY IN TERMS OF STUDY'S OBJECTIVES

5.2.1 Research Objective 1

To investigating the difference between CFLR instruction and conventional reading instruction in teaching reading skillstoGrade3 Learners.

To address the first research objective, the researcher constructed hypothesis. The null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis of the study are expressed as follows:

Null Hypothesis (H_0): Implementation of CFLR instruction does not enhance learners' reading skills.

$H_0: \mu \text{ CFLR} = \text{Conventional Reading Instruction.}$

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The implementation of CFLR instruction enhances learners' reading skills.

$H_1: \mu \text{ CFLR Instruction} \neq \mu \text{ Conventional Instruction.}$

In order to address the issue of this section, the study used a quantitative research method which consisted of a quasi-experimental research design. With the help of this

design, the effect of the designed intervention was compared with the conventional instructional approach used by regular school teachers to teach reading. There were 673 learners (339 girls and 334 boys) selected from five schools to form the experimental group. The control group comprised of 652 learners (352 boys and 300 girls) selected from five schools.

Following the administration of the pre-test at both groups, the researcher implemented a 12-week (three months) intervention in the experimental schools while the control group schools continued with business as usual. The intervention implemented was teaching reading skills with the help of CFLR. As indicated in section 2.10 the CFLR framework provided a concise and very understandable instructional approach to teaching reading to Grade 3 learners. The framework helped the researcher to get more insight into the cognitive elements (oral language decoding and written language comprehension) which are essential skills of reading (Catts, Adlof, Hogan & Ellis-Weismer, 2006; Chun, 2000; Scarborough, 2005; Scott, 2004; Wren, et al., 2001).

Finally, teachers administered post-test at experimental and control schools. The results of the study depicted that the mean score of the pre-test of the control group was ($n=652$, $M=40.23$, & $SD=12.3$); and their post-test mean was ($n=652$, $M=46.32$ & $SD=11.63$). There is a 6 mark difference, which is slight. However, the mean score of the pre-test of the experimental groups was ($n=673$, $M=39.70$ & $SD=12.7$); and their post-test mean was ($n=673$, $M=66.15$ & $SD=10.8$). There are 26.45 marks larger differences than the control groups mean. The probability of error was less than 0.05 ($p=0.000<0.05$).

Based on the results of the study, the null hypothesis that states (H_0): (Implementation of CFLR instruction does not enhance learners' reading skills) was rejected. In other word, the null hypothesis which states ($H_0: \mu_{\text{CFLR}} = \text{Conventional Reading Instruction}$) was rejected.

The study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test. Based on this sufficient ground, it is possible to state that the implementation of CFLR improved the reading skill of the learners. Due to this, the alternative hypothesis (H_1): which states (the implementation of CFLR

instruction enhances learners' reading skills) fails to be rejected. In other word Alternative Hypothesis is different from Null Hypothesis ($H_1 \neq H_0$).

$H_1: \mu \text{ CFLR Instruction} \neq \mu \text{ Conventional Instruction}$.

Results after implementing CFLR instruction are significantly better than the usual instructional method. If this method is applied with sufficient time, preparation and readiness, it can make a significant contribution to the reading skill of Grade 3 learners.

The results of the study, therefore, suggest that the use of CFLR significantly contributed to the improvement of reading skills in the experimental schools. The new teaching method was subject to the improvement of learners' reading skills in the post-test results. Participants also agreed during the interview sessions that CFLR had a positive effect on their reading skill. For instance, teacher participant (**IET2**) from experimental school said that;

*As I understood from your explanation, CFLR is very suitable teaching method of reading ...coz it gives emphasis to language elements and reading strategies...
...Thank you for inviting me to observe your teaching method in my school.As I observed....eh....your teaching approach, really....it is very interesting. I am very happy to see that my students are striving to read through your new approach.*

Furthermore, a learner participant from experimental school (**ILE3**) also reported that

"Our teacher did not teach us like this. ...ehh...it is very interesting... Well..now I learned how to spell words...if I continue like this, my reading will be improved."

In addition to this, the view of a parent participant in the experimental school (**IEP4**) attested that:

"...the teaching aids are very impressing...the stories are also very good...please, you should teach the school teachers to use this new approach...It had better other educational officers from the region and district offices were invited and attended to see what is really practiced here...well I hope you will going to present your final output to them..."

According to the finding of the study, there is beneficial influence of the CFLR instructional approach in improving the reading skill of grade 3 learners. Thus, the

results give sufficient ground to conclude that CFLR is better than the conventional teaching method and priority should be given to the implementation of CFLR instruction in the classroom where teaching reading skill is challenging.

There was consistency between the results of the study and findings of previous researches by Adams (1990), Stanovich (2000), Shanahan and Beck (2006) and Li and Edwards (2010) who state that phoneme and morpheme awareness are necessary components of reading instruction. However, most of the studies cited here focused on learners from early graders up to Grade 6. This study is unique because it focused on Grade 3 learners who had reading difficulties, and it emphasised the integration of language decoding skill and reading comprehension ability. The combination of these essential skills with sufficient examples and classroom activities improved the reading skill of Grade 3 learners.

5.2.2 Research Objective 2

To investigate challenges in the implementation of CFLR instruction for Grade 3 learners' reading skill in English.

To investigate the second research objective, the study employed observations in the experimental schools while implementing CFLR as a new approach. The study took teachers and parents' opinions based on their observations of the implementation of the new reading instructional approach. The researcher used the qualitative data to construct the following themes (learners' diversity, large classroom size and learners' psychological issues) regarding the challenges faced during the intervention. The following sections present the findings.

5.2.2.1 Learners' diversity

- Learners' with cultural and language variation

The participants of the study were taken from intact groups; however, the research could not avoid learner diversity. The qualitative data of the study indicated that there were learners with diverse abilities, socio-economic conditions and different language backgrounds. The diversity observed among learners posed its own challenge for the implementation of the usual reading instruction used by teachers of the control schools

as well as on the CFLR used by the researcher in the experimental schools. Learner diversity refers to the situation of a classroom which has learners with varying intellectual ability, social or cultural background, economic conditions, language facilities and physical attributes (Nichols, Rupley, Webb-Johnson, & Tlusty, 2000).

However, the education system does not cater sufficient opportunities for students of culturally and linguistically varied backgrounds because it based its expectations, delivery, and curricular content on the norms of the mainstream population (Banks, 1994; Cushner, McClelland & Safford, 1996). This resulted in that learners from different backgrounds experienced a mismatch between home and school expectations (Nieto, 1996; Faltis, 1997). Furthermore, Banks and Banks (1997) posited that when culturally and linguistically diverse learners enter school, the major challenge for service providers is meeting the unique needs of each learner.

For instance, the study discovered that few learners who had no concept about the local language and culture in the experimental school were not able to follow the pace of the researcher. They requested support and more clarification on phonemes and morphemes frequently. The following responses of teacher participants indicate their concern on the effect of learners' diversity on the reading instruction;

IET2: *...I observed that few learners have some variation on their learning readiness, linguistic and cultural context ...learners should have good background and learning readiness at the earlier grade levels...otherwise it is burden to the teacher...but if they were taught phonological awareness at grade 1 and 2 now at this stage it minimizes your burden and you can go to other stages like the word recognition and sentences construction...*

The responses of teachers show that familiarity with new social and language context of learners as well as their learning readiness can facilitate the new reading instruction. The researcher also noted that few learners displayed no readiness for the oral and written language comprehension. Therefore, it was mandatory to match the new reading instruction to the learner's background. However, this was very challenging.

The influence of learner diversity on their learning has been highlighted in the Ethiopian Education Sector Development Program (ESDP-V). According to this ESDP-V, total

access and variation in modalities across Ethiopian regions have implications in terms of preparedness for Grade 1. A child who has completed three years of kindergarten (predominantly in urban areas) is currently better prepared to start school than a child who has received one year of O-class or Child-to-Child instruction modalities that are emerging rapidly and are gradually improving in quality. If expansion of pre-primary education continues to follow the same pattern across regions and kindergartens remain accessible almost exclusively to urban areas, it may only increase educational advantages for learners from urban areas whose families are able to send them to kindergarten. Therefore, on the basis of the finding of the study, there should be due consideration to accommodate this diversity. Another teacher participant also reported that:

IET3: *Well... your new method takes the learners' background in to consideration, my fear is on that the language, cultural, religious and socio-economic variation of the learners may affect their equal involvement in the activities.*

Teachers also indicated their concern that the diversity of the learners had an impact on the implementation of the new reading instruction. Similarly, the following teacher also indicated her concern by referring to her long years teaching experience.

IET5: *...as far as my experience concerned in my school ... there are also some learners from different language and cultural background...they were highly challenged in my instructional approach ... at the beginning of your intervention there were similar problems you faced due to learners' background variation ... but gradually your method solved the challenges...you made very good reform ...*

This result is supported by the findings of Delpit (1995) that multicultural school reform is a challenge for teachers to design and implement culturally-enriched and educationally-sound instruction that works on the strengths of the learners as opposed to the traditional deficit model of instruction.

Therefore, cognisant that learners' diversity has an influence on the implementation of CFLR, the researcher adapted the reading instruction to the existing situation to address the educational needs of all learners. He provided the learners with culturally congruent reading instruction with stories from their own culture (Section 4.2.3). This approach helped the researcher and the learner to achieve cultural continuity and

ensure equal learning opportunities in the classroom. Nichols et al. (2000) state that the educational system must be transformed to insure cultural continuity since it often avoids the misunderstanding between teachers and learners in the classroom. As the result of the cultural continuity, the new instructional approach in the study secured equal opportunities to all learners.

The researcher observed that learners with diversified backgrounds have their own learning capacity that should be used to work with them. Therefore, the researcher focused on their background with the help of cultural literature from their own culture to help them understand phoneme production and word construction with meaning decoding. Furthermore, he helped the learners to benefit from reading activities that built on their reading strengths rather than concentrating on their weaknesses. According to Nichols et al. (2000), culturally and linguistically diverse learners are on the same reading and learning continuum as other learners; however, they often have experiences that are different from the rest of the learners. Furthermore, Delpit, (1995), Ladson-Billings, (1994) and Hulan, Layne and McIntyre (2011) indicate that culturally responsive reading instruction bridges the gap between the school and the world of the learners. Culturally responsive instruction is consistent with the values of the students' own culture aimed at assuring academic learning (ibid.). Therefore, the researcher noted that addressing the issue of diversity improves the participation of learners. He also found away to provide reading instruction in line with the learners' background.

- Learners with special needs

The finding of the study revealed that there were some learners with special needs in the control and experimental schools. However, the researcher had plenty of opportunity to work with some of them in the experimental schools during the implementation of the new instructional approach. According to Lewis and Norwich (2005) and Farrell (2008), learners with special needs are those learners who have sensory, cognitive, emotional, psychological, physiological, and language and communication impairments. These group of learners need to be provided with differentiated curriculum and instructional approach with educational, emotional and social support in mainstream schools (Farrell, 2009; Willis, 2007).

The type of children with special needs found in the experimental schools included learners with language and communication difficulties, learners with partial sight loss (visual impairment), hard-of-hearing learners (partial hearing loss), learners with learning disabilities and learners with emotional and behavioural problems. These learners were not comfortable with the instructional approach at the beginning of the intervention. Having understood the presence of learners with special needs in the experimental schools, the researcher investigated their challenges and then employed the intervention using an inclusive education approach. Based on the definition of UNESCO (1998:13) inclusive education is defined as follows:

Inclusive education is concerned with removing all barriers to learning, and with the participation of all learners vulnerable to exclusion and marginalization. It is a strategic approach designed to facilitate learning success for all children. It addresses the common goals of decreasing and overcoming all exclusion from human rights to education, at least at the elementary level, and enhancing access, participation and learning success in quality basic education for all (p,13).

Furthermore, McGregor and Vogelsberg (1998) and Willis (2007) also showed the benefit of inclusive class in contrast to special education by stating that inclusive classes are suitable for teachers, but segregated special education teachers experience more suffer and more attrition than regular teachers do. However, effective inclusive teachers portray themselves as tolerant, flexible and prepared to take responsibilities for all learners.

Generally, the major challenges faced by the learners with special needs during the intervention period were related to visual, auditory, cognitive, emotional and social problems. For instance, seven learners in the five experimental schools were identified with low vision. It was very difficult to show them the teaching aids which presented phoneme and morpheme symbols. Similarly, two hard-of-hearing learners were also challenged in practicing the phonological awareness activity since they could not clearly hear the sounds of the phonemes and their combination which was read by the researcher. In addition, one learner with communication difficulties (articulation problem) also could not articulate a phoneme and word pronounced for her to repeat.

Furthermore, the learners were rejected by their peers and had little social interaction in the classroom. They did not get support from their classmates. As they reported to the researcher, their regular teachers also did not give them attention previously in the classroom or in the school. Therefore, the special conditions of the learners hindered them from benefiting from the new instruction. Farrell (2008) indicates that among the factors that associated with reading difficulties are phonological difficulties, visual processing difficulties; auditory perception difficulties; short-term verbal memory difficulties and sequencing difficulties.

There were three learners with learning difficulties in different experimental schools. These learners were identified with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, predominantly hyperactive type. Furthermore, the learners could not perform reading activities commensurate with their age and grade level. Lerner (1989; 2002), Kavale and Reese (1992) and Fletcher, Lyon, Fuchs and Barnes (2007) explain that the majority of students with learning disabilities (80-90%) demonstrate significant reading difficulties. In addition, the National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (1997:12) also defines learning disability as follows:

Learning disability is a general term that refers to a heterogonous group of disorder manifested by significant difficulties in the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, writing, reasoning, or mathematical abilities. These disorders are intrinsic to the individual, and presumed to be due to central nervous system dysfunction, and may occur across the life span of the learner (P,12).

The present study recommends further research to be conducted on the identification and assessment of learners with dyslexia (developmental reading disability), its prevalence and influence on learners' reading ability; however, the observational data of the study also indicated that there were indications of dyslexia among the learners. According to Turkington and Harris (2006: 81-82), dyslexia is defined as follows:

...difficulty with learning to read or write fluently and with accurately comprehension, despite normal intelligence. This includes difficulty with phonological awareness, phonological decoding, processing speed, auditory short-term memory, and/or language skills or verbal comprehension. Dyslexia is the most recognised of reading disorders; however, not all reading disorders are linked to dyslexia (P,81-82).

- Remedial actions taken by the researcher

Re-arranging seating arrangements for learners with special needs was the primary measure taken by the researcher. The seating of the learners was arranged based on their choice and interest where they could have access to the teaching aids (canvas), blackboard, and to the researcher. Establishing pleasant relationships with their classmates was another fruitful activity done by the researcher. It was observed that the rest of the class accepted special needs learners and became willing to work cooperatively with them. Besides, the researcher established mixed-ability groupings that created equal access for all students to the classroom instruction. According to the National Association of School Psychologists (2000), mixed-ability grouping can give access to all students to an enriched curriculum and the highest quality instruction that schools have to provide; can avoid labeling and stigmatising learners with lower ability; and can reduce school segregation based on socio-economic status, race, gender, ethnicity or disability.

Furthermore, the supports given through Individualised Educational Programs (IEP) also contributed significantly to the learners. Normally, IEP are drawn up for each learner which involves teachers and parents as members; however, in some schools it was problematic to get full participation and commitment of these stakeholders.

Therefore, the researcher struggled to help the learners with extra time. That was the reason for prolongation of the intervention. However, the learners benefited from having an IEP. Furthermore, there were specific supports given to each special-needs learner in the classroom. As a result of the support provided, the learners showed progress.

- *For learners with visual impairment (low vision)*

Learners with low vision were provided with training in mobility and orientation to move freely in the classrooms and in the school. Self-help and independent skills training also helped the learners. In addition to this, the researcher helped the learners to develop speaking and listening skills in the context of very limited or absent visual cues. Besides this, accommodation and eye-tracking skills were also given to the learners.

Accommodation involved being able to quickly adjust eye focus to changing circumstances such as changing between page and eye as the eye moves down a page of writing; and eye-tracking involved the skill of scanning a line print from word to word and line to line while keeping one's place. Koenig and Holbrook (2000) posit that the pedagogy of learners with visual impairments should consider capacitating the learner with mobility skills, ways of securing rapid information, self-help skills and usage of the tactile reading approach using Braille. The learners' progress as a result of the support was significant. For instance, the observation of a teacher participant (**IET-1**) assures this finding. He reported that "...it is very nice to see that the student with visual challenges has been showing progress... and working with peers..."

- *For learners with hearing impairments (hard-of-hearing)*

Learners with hearing impairments, in the current study, were challenged in the implementation of CFLR due to difficulties in auditory perception and auditory processing. These difficulties affected the perceptual activities of the lesson which were relevant to develop PA and reading ability of the learners. Marschark, Lang and Albertini (2002) and Farrell (2008) state that hearing loss affects the ability of auditory discrimination, the ability to perceive consonant sounds, auditory sequencing, word blending and segmentation ability.

The researcher provided support in accordance with the special conditions of the learners with hearing problems. This included providing visual support for learning such as handouts and visual aids on what the researcher discussed and did in the classroom. The researcher ensured the learners with hard-of-hearing could see and hear who was talking or reading; spoken words were presented with visual aids and gestures of the researcher; the researcher also provided the class with face-to-face contact and ensured that the learners looked at him; repeating what other learners said and discussed; and controlling the classroom background noise not to distract them from the classroom activities.

The IEP programme for these learners involved auditory discrimination activities which were aimed at recognising and discriminating letter sounds from an audio recording. There were intensive auditory segmentation and blending activities which significantly

contributed to the learners' phonological and morphological awareness (Wolf & O'Brien, 2001).

5.2.2.2 Large classroom size

In line with the Education for All and Millennium Development Goals, the Ethiopian government has aggressively worked to make education accessible to all Ethiopian citizens. Ethiopian Education Sector Development Program-V (ESDP-V) reported that as the result of concerted efforts since 1996, the number of primary schools (including Alternative Basic Education-ABE) has risen from 11,000 to 32,048 and student enrollment at this level has grown from less than 3 million to over 18 million within the period. This progress represents a considerable achievement.

Currently, large numbers of school aged children have been able to get education access in their neighboring primary schools. According to USAID (2007), the growth of large classrooms in the developing world is tied to two interrelated trends: global initiatives for universal education and rapid population growth. There are results of a web of factors that make large classrooms an enduring feature of the developing nation (ibid.).

According to the findings of the study, there is much work to be done by the concerned bodies to create a conducive learning environment in terms of achieving manageable class sizes and providing learning resources. For instance, the study indicated that teaching reading in large class sizes will not allow teachers to give learners individual attention required. As a result, this might lead to increased learner dropout rates or high number of learners repeating a grade. In supporting this finding, Blatchford, Moriarty, Edmonds and Martin (2002) and Hoxby (2000) state that large class size has many effects on students' engagement, behavior, and student retention.

The finding of the study revealed that there were 85 learners on average in one low-resourced classroom which had an average area of 20 square metres. It was very narrow and had no space to move freely. It was very challenging to reach each and every learner in the classroom. That inhibited the support system supposed to be provided to the learners. The response of a teacher participant (**IET1**) also showed his

observation: “...of course.....your new approach is very interesting... but I am afraid that it may be affected by large class size...” According to Holloway (2000) and Wilson (2003), large class size has effect on the instructional approach of teachers and hinders increased teacher contact with learners, differentiated instruction, improved classroom management, and improved teachers’ morale.

Therefore, the researcher in the study needed to be creative to manage the large class size to make the intervention more effective. The researcher thus consulted various studies which suggest appropriate means to be used in large classrooms. For instance, Blatchford, et al. (2002), Rice (1999), Rocko (2004) and Rothstein (2010) suggest using small group discussion, peer tutoring, and shifting teaching to appropriately-sized classrooms. Furthermore, the guidelines developed by USAID’s BESO II project contractors and Ethiopian teachers were also applied for the effective use of classroom space.

Based on the findings of the above research, the study used the following procedure in the experimental schools where large class size existed. Firstly, the researcher established basic rules for pleasant group behaviour. These acceptable behaviours included how to speak without disturbing the class, how to take turns; how to work together, how to enter and leave the classroom, and how to request support and materials. By keeping to these simple rules, all learners were voluntarily participating in the reading lesson. The established rules also helped the researcher to manage disruptions that could occur due to large class size.

Secondly, the researcher formed cooperative learning teams which could be used in accordance with the objective of the lesson. For instance, for an activity which required cooperative work, the classroom was arranged with clusters of students. For pair work, learner remained at their desks and performed their tasks. Furthermore, the researcher organised remedial and enrichment activities to suit diverse learners’ needs. To mention a few, learners with similar needs were grouped into small homogenous groups to provide them with similar support. Therefore, the influence of the large class size was controlled.

5.2.2.3 Learners' psychological issues

There were some observed psychological issues which inhibited learners from learning to read in the new intervention. Therefore, the learners' psychological factors had an influence on the implementation of CFLR in the experimental schools. According to Lee and Shute (2010) and Zins, Bloodworth, Weissberg and Wallberg (2004), psychological factors have a significant influence on the academic success and failure of learners. The psychological factors observed in the study were reading anxiety, poor self-efficacy, poor motivation and unstable emotional state. These factors are discussed as follows:

- Learners' reading anxiety

Cognitive psychologist, Bandura (1997) believes that anxiety is a learned reaction to stress and a result of inappropriate thinking about circumstances. For instance, learners may develop anxiety which is related to the school situation or activities which involve reading, written assignments, taking timed tests or presentation of projects (Rajab, Zakaria, Rahman, Hosni & Hassani, 2012).

Reading anxiety was first introduced by Zbornik and Wallborown (1991:3) who suggest that "reading anxiety represents a specific aspect of general anxiety that has been invested in the reading process". It also indicates that school conditions and classroom activities may trigger anxiety and cause further problems with the required task (Young, 2000).

Therefore, reading anxiety in the study refers to learners' fear of making mistakes, and feelings of worry and humiliation of having to expose their incompetence to others in reading activity, not wanting to be ridiculed and judged by their peers as poor readers. Based on the observation of the researcher and qualitative data collected from the participants, learners who experienced a high level of anxiety exhibited "freeze up" and had difficulty in performing certain activities designed in the intervention. Data also indicated that the learners showed signs of restlessness and agitation that led them to inconsistent performance in learning to read in English. Saito, Horwitz and Garza (1999) also explain that reading anxiety is a specific, situational-type phobia toward the act of reading; it depicts an unpleasant emotional reaction toward reading that

results when the student's intellectual drives of curiosity, aggression and independence become associated either separately or in combination with person/s that have a significant emotional influence over the learner's behaviour or belief system.

The study also attempted to identify some causes of learners' reading anxiety and its impact on the learners' reading endeavours. The qualitative data depicted that learners' exposure to foreign language was the major factor for reading anxiety. The following data were reflected from various learners during the intervention time; "I fear speaking English"; "I hate reading coz I can't speak English"; "I can't read in English coz I don't know the language" The reflections of the learners illustrate that they associated their reading difficulty with their poor skill in English language. In supporting this finding Rajab, Zakaria, Rahman, HHosni and Hassani (2012:363) explain that:

In the area of foreign language or second language learning, reading is seen as being a more demanding task. In order to fully comprehend a text, the learner is expected to be familiar with spelling patterns, sentences structure, syntax, lexicons and other complex semantic relations. And often, the learner finds difficult to make meaning from texts that language learners find reading as an anxiety-provoking task. Reading anxiety may result in poor comprehension and, thus, need to be addressed accordingly especially in the area of foreign or second language learning (page, 263).

The other major factor that creates reading anxiety for the learners is the variation exists between first language of the learners and their second language, English. Furthermore, the irregularities found in English language pronunciation is a source of reading challenge that leads to hostile feeling and anxiety. Dehqan and Samar(2017) and Nichols et al.(2000) indicate that unfamiliar linguistic component, cultural material and curricular content cause reading anxiety due to the fact that English writing systems might completely differ from the learner's mother tongue language in terms of its pronunciation and language structure; and some learners might find reading English text very difficult as the writing system does not exactly reflect or symbolise the real pronunciation. Similarly, in the study, there were some learners who showed poor motivation and frustration when they were invited to engage in the reading activities since they had no familiarity with their second language, English. Having recognised

the learners' poor motivation, lack of familiarity and inappropriate introduction with English language, the researcher provided support (see sections 4.2.2, 4.2.3, 5.2.3.1 & 5.2.3.2).

- Learners' poor self-concept/self-efficacy

Learners of the experimental schools, in the study, were found to have a poor self-concept due to the belief they had about their reading ability. At the beginning of the intervention learners were not willing to participate and had no motivation. They also indicated that they were not competent since they could not read.

The learners frequently used the following expression "I am very lazy coz I can't read"; "I dislike my-self coz ...I can't read as my friends did"; "reading is very difficult for me...I do not know the reason why..." The learners' expressions indicate that they linked their poor reading ability with the concept they had towards themselves. Furthermore, they associated their poor self-concept with their self-efficacy that they believed they could not read. For instance, the phrases "... no I can't stand.."; "...oh...I hate reading coz I can't read..."; "I don't think I can read.." illustrate that the learners developed poor self-efficacy. Therefore, the researcher understood from the learners' expression given in the classroom that some of them had poor self-concept.

Similar findings from Schunk (1996) and Finney and Schra (2003) hypothesised that poor self-efficacy negatively influences the individual's choice of activities to put effort in, the level of commitment and the results attained. In addition, Bandura (1997) posits that self-efficacious subjects are always ready to accept challenges and successfully complete whatever work assigned to them; hence, learners should be self-efficacious.

- Self-regulation

Some learners of the study were found to have poor self-regulation skills. They were observed having challenges in paying attention to the intervention given by the researcher, lacked organisation in their classroom activities and homework, displayed nervousness with some activities, and poor participation and low performance on individual, paired and group work activities.

- Poor motivation

Some learners with poor motivation were challenged in the study. It was a bit challenging when the researcher tried to involve learners with poor motivation in the phonological and morphological activities designed to them. Therefore, he needed to increase the intrinsic motivation of the learners through various strategies. According to Harmer (1991), teachers' instructional approach, which refers to the way that learners are taught, needs to initiate their motivation? If learners are bored with the teacher's method, their motivation would likely be lost or gradually decreased (ibid.).

The achievement and support system provided to the learners challenged with poor self-efficacy and motivation have been indicated in section 5.2.3.1. As a result of the support system, it was observed that the learners' reading anxiety levels also improved. Learners who exhibited reading anxiety at the beginning of the intervention were gradually able to show progress. Their self-concept/self-efficacy also improved.

5.2.3 Research Objective 3

To investigate the views of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of CFLR instruction for Grade 3 English reading.

The third objective of the research was investigated by employing a qualitative research method with a case study design. The researcher invited teachers and parents to observe the implementation of CFLR at experimental schools. Then he interviewed them to get their opinions on the implementation and effect of the new instructional approach on reading skills of Grade 3 learners. The researcher analysed the opinions of teachers, learners and parents thematically (See section 4.2). The views of the participants are discussed in the following sub-sections.

5.2.3.1 Learners' motivation

In the study, motivation was considered as an important characteristic of learners since it is related to their desire to participate in reading process, their learning goals, competence related beliefs and needs that influence their reading activities and achievement (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala & Cox, 1999; Lumsden, 1999). Furthermore,

Applegate and Applegate (2010); Ahmadi, Ismail, and Abdullah (2013) and Ghaedrahmat, Entezari and Abedi (2014) state that the motivation to read has become one of the main contributors to whether or not a learner succeeds in school.

The findings of the study revealed that learners in the control schools were neither intrinsically nor extrinsically motivated with the conventional instructional approach. The most important finding of the present study is that teacher participants in the control and experimental groups emphasised the role of motivation on enhancing the reading skill of learners. The interview data collected from learners, teachers and parents, as well as observation of the researcher, showed that most learners did not have motivation in English reading lessons. Rather, they were bored and frustrated. Due to lack of motivation, most of them did not participate. For instance, teacher participant from a control school (**ICT3**) declared that “...*I am not comfortable with what I am doing in the classroom ...coz I couldn't enhance the reading skill of the learners...they have no motivation for the lesson...*” In addition, another teacher from similar group (**ICT5**) disclosed that “...*eh...well..I have been trying my best...but the learners have no motivation...*” The responses of the teacher participants indicated that they believed that learners' motivation had paramount value in teaching reading skill. However, learners had no motivation and, as a result, they did not participate in reading activities.

In supporting the above result, various research findings in the field of reading motivation confirmed that motivation is a determinant factor in the achievement of learners' reading skills (Chapman & Tunmer, 1995). Other findings also disclosed that there is a positive relationship between learners' level of motivation and improved level of reading skills. For instance, they found a relationship between young children's reading self-concept (learner's perception of reading competence, the reading difficulty of learners, and their attitude toward reading) and word recognition and reading comprehension skills (Chapman, Tunmer & Prochnow, 2000). Furthermore, Pintrich, Marx and Boyle (1993) and Pintrich (2003) also indicate that motivation provides an activating, energising role for cognitive processes, which, in turn, can impact reading achievement.

Cognisant of the importance of learners' motivation in reading, the researcher addressed the issue in the experimental groups of the study. He helped the learners with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. However, he emphasised the learners' intrinsic motivation more than extrinsic motivation. Research findings from Ryan and Deci (2000) and Meece and Miller (2001) show that internal motivation is strongly related to intrinsic motivation because it comes from within the individual and it moves the individual to pursue an activity for its own sake rather than for external reasons. Furthermore, Metsala, Wigfield and McCann (1996) indicate, that if learners are intrinsically motivated to read and self-satisfied, they will increase the frequency with which they read. Furthermore, Rosenblatt (2005) explained that when learners are engaged in reading for aesthetic reasons, they will be motivated since the reading incites feelings, ideas, and attitudes that are linked through private past experience. Rosenblatt also states that, when learners' reading initiates connections to individual responses, they will be more likely to be interested and continue to read.

In the field of reading motivation, several researchers have examined the relationships among motivation variables and literacy skills. For example, Chapman and Tunmer (1995), Chapman, et al. (2000) and Turner (1995) found relationships of young children's reading self-concept (students' perceptions of reading competence, the difficulty of reading, and their attitude toward reading) with word recognition and reading comprehension skills). Findings also showed that children who reported with negative reading self-concepts performed more poorly on reading-related tasks than did children with positive reading self-concepts (Chapman et al., 2000).

In the study, five interrelated dimensions of reading motivation (control, interest, self-efficacy, involvement and collaboration) were addressed as internal motivation for reading (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schiefele, 1999; Taboada, Tonks, Wigfields & Guthrie, 2009).

- Self-monitoring

This activity refers to the provision of opportunities to the learners to make choices and reflect on their reading. They can control their pace, mistakes committed and self-correction. Skinner, Wellborn and Connell (1990) explain that learners' self-regulation/control over their reading is an individual interpretation of the control that

the learner can have over his/her experience and expectations, that he/she can generate preferred outcomes and reject unpleasant ones.

In the study, learners were given training on language and reading comprehension. Having done this activity, the researcher let the learners practice their own reading by using various reading strategies and materials presented in the classroom. The researcher intervened only if the learners sought more clarification and additional support on the reading activities. Therefore, the learners were free to practice their reading and had control over their own activity. The finding indicated that most of the learners performed well in phonological awareness, word recognition and comprehension of simple sentences. In supporting this finding, Chang (2007) found that regardless of different levels of English proficiency, learners who applied self-monitoring strategy obtained higher scores on the comprehension test than learners who did not apply the self-monitoring strategy.

- Interest

Interest is another dimension of internal motivation that can be possessed by the learner. Alexander and Murphy (1998) and Schiefele (1999) state that interest of the learner refers to relatively stable evaluative orientation toward a certain domain. It is also associated with cognitive processes such as deeper processing of texts and learning when other factors such as text length, text variety, background knowledge and text difficulty were associated (ibid.). Hidi and Renninger (2006) also explain that interest can be observed when the interaction between individual and content make up positively.

Therefore, in the study it was observed that learners exhibited a high level of interest in participating in the implementation of CFLR. The data collected from teachers and parent participants depicted that, contrary to the control schools, learners in the experimental schools were interested on the reading lessons. For instance, the responses of the following participants support the finding. To indicate that learners have no interest in their lesson, a teacher participant (**ICT3**) from a control school reported that: *"I am not comfortable with what I am doing in the classroom ...coz I couldn't enhance the reading skill of the learners...they have no motivation for the lesson...they aren't interested on reading..."* Similarly, another teacher participant

(ICT5) from the control school also supported the finding saying that learners were not interested in attending reading lesson in the classroom. He disclosed that:

*“...eh...well..I have been trying my best...but the learners have no motivation...my instructional approach is that... I will read to them ...then they will follow me by struggling with their books. After that I will give them class works from their text... I observed that only very few of them attempted to do the activities given...most of them **had no interest** to follow my lesson...”* Capen (2010) shows that even if students have the skills and ability to read, they might not choose to read unless they are motivated.

To the contrary, learners in the experimental schools exhibited good interest in participating in the implementation of CFLR. For instance, a teacher participant from experimental school (IET4) reported that:

*“I also observed the importance of learners’ motivation on their learning...they are interested on your lesson...your method is very good to motivate the learners and also to make them motivate themselves intrinsically.....wow...they are **interested** on the lesson...”* Capen (2010) also confirms that teachers role and classroom environment have influence on the reading motivations of learners.

The response of a parent participant (IEP5) from the experimental school approved that the learners’ interest increased. He said that;

*“...thank you for your new method...I saw learners are reading stories through your help.....the classroom situation is very attractive. You decorated the classroom with very nice teaching aids... **the learners interest is very high..**I also like the stories selected for the instruction...”*

This finding is supported by Pintrich (2003) and Unrau and Schlackman (2006) who state that interest is correlated with cognitive processes such as deeper processing of text.

- Involvement

Learner participants engaged in the reading practice enthusiastically. They exerted effort in completing the activities. The researcher observed them while they

participated in the reading activities. The interview data collected from teachers and parents in the experimental schools also depicted that the learners' level of involvement in the reading activities was good as a result of the intervention. For instance, a teacher participant (ITE 2) described learners' involvement by indicating their striving to read. He said that *"it is very interesting. I am very happy to see that learners are **striving** to read through your new approach."* Another teacher participant (ITE 4) also reported that *"...learners are **happily** participating in the activities..."* The phrase *"happily participating"* indicates the involvement of learners in a reading activity. Furthermore, the following verbatim also shows the learners were involved in the reading activity. The participants used the phrase *"**highly motivated and participating eagerly...**"* and *"...**actively involved in the lesson...**"*

(ITE 3) *"...You made the classes more decorated, attractive and dynamic than I did...and I observed most of the learners of my school were **highly motivated and participating eagerly...**"*

(IEP3) *"...learners are highly motivated ...I observed that your learners are **actively involved in the lesson... that is very nice...**"*

The views of the participants indicated that motivation is an important psychological factor that contributes to good reading participation. Pintrich (2003) also depicts that without motivation, students become less engaged in classroom activities and minimise their learning.

- Self-efficacy

Learners' reading self-efficacy is another dimension of internal motivation. According to Chapman et. al. (2000) and Schunk and Pajares (2002), reading self-efficacy refers to the learner's judgment or self-evaluation of their ability to do well on reading activities. Therefore, the study investigated the reading self-efficacy of the learners. Prior to the implementation of the CFLR, the qualitative data of the current study revealed that learners at both control and experimental schools had poor self-efficacy.

The finding of the study implied that the implementation of CFLR significantly contributed to enhance the reading self-efficacy of learners at the experimental schools.

In protecting the reading self-efficacy of learners, the researcher continually encouraged the learners not to be influenced by their peers. This is due to that some learners were comparing their reading ability with their peers and judging themselves as good and poor readers. Guthrie, McRae and Klauda (2007) explain that loss of reading self-efficacy occurs due to learners' understanding of their own reading performance. Furthermore, Edmunda and Bauserman (2006) posit that at an early age, learners are aware of their reading ability compared to other learners because they can easily draw a comparison between their own ability and that of peers. Then if they feel that they are capable readers, they will believe in their ability to read; otherwise, they will refuse to participate in reading activities (Guthrie et al., 2007).

- Collaboration

Learners' willingness to collaborate and work together with their classmates is another dimension of internal motivation. In collaborative reading, learners share reading strategies and conceptual ideas grasped from the reading text (Almasi, 1995). Therefore, the study utilised collaborative learning approach in the reading lesson. The qualitative data of the study found that learners actively participated in cooperative learning.

The following interview of the teachers and parents indicate that learners were benefited from their collaborative learning;

IET1: *The learners' level of motivation is appreciable. I observed that learners were motivated by themselves **they are working independently and collaboratively**... I believe that learning becomes more meaningful when learners are motivated by the teacher as well as by themselves...*

IET5: *...I observed that learners are **helping each other in learning together**... this is very good approach..*

IEP3: *... learners are highly motivated ...I observed that your learners are actively involved in the lesson.. that is very nice...**the collaborative learning approach also very interesting**...*

IEP4: ...*The teaching aids are very impressive...the stories are also very good...please, you should teach the school teachers to use this new approach.....the learners collaboration is very good...*

5.2.3.2 Learners familiarity with English language

Familiarising learners with English language is one of the fundamental activities of CFLR instruction. As indicated in (section 4.2.2 & 4.2.3) the researcher introduced the essential parts of oral language components with a gradual task. Sufficient examples and activities of phonological awareness, morphological awareness and very simple sentence construction were presented to the learners. They practised individually, in pair and group activities in accordance with the objectives of the lessons. The quantitative and the qualitative data indicated that learners became familiar with English language letters, words and sentences. Furthermore, they became able to read stories presented to their level.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY RESULTS

5.3.1 Epistemological Implications

The implementation of CFLR, in the study, gave prominence to oral language decoding and written language comprehension to improve reading skills of Grade 3 learners in experimental schools. Learners' involvement in the theoretical and practical activities of oral language decoding and written language comprehension required their motivation. The study adds insights in to how to motivate learners in English reading activities. The knowledge gained from this study also provides input concerning endeavours to relate reading activity to the background knowledge (schema) and intrinsic motivation of learners.

5.3.2 Pedagogical Implications

The study proved that the effect of CFLR helped Grade 3 learners to improve their reading skill in contrast to conventional method. The new approach encouraged learners to be engaged in various activities to develop their oral language decoding and written language comprehension. More specifically, the learners' phonology, morphology and syntax knowledge and skills were improved. As a result of this improvement, their linguistic knowledge was also enhanced.

The new approach also significantly contributed to improving the learners' cipher knowledge (systematic relationships between written and spoken words); lexical knowledge (relationships between the units of the spoken and written word); letter knowledge (the ability to recognize and manipulate the units of the writing system); knowledge of the alphabetic principle (knowing that a systematic relationship exists between the internal structure of written and spoken words); and concept about print (correspondence between printed and spoken words). As the result of these improvements, the 'written language comprehension' skill of the learners which is termed 'decoding' was enhanced and they became able to read.

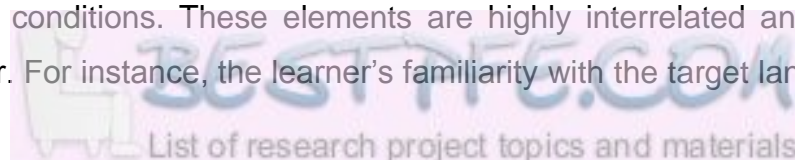
Assessment of classroom reading activity is another important aspect of the CFLR. It provides teachers with sufficient practical activities which can be taken as early predictors of poor reading and good reading skills, such as phoneme segmentation, alphabetic recognition, match spoken to printed words, word recognition, and concept of words in text which all aid the continuous and formative assessment of reading skill.

Furthermore, CFLR also contributed to improving the interest and reading self-efficacy, reducing reading anxiety, and encouraging involvement and cooperative learning of the learners. These psychological characteristics of the learners were very helpful in actively involving the learners in the reading activities. The inclusive educational approach incorporated with the CFLR helped special needs learners to be successful. Furthermore, special needs learners also benefited from the IEP support provision in the respective schools.

Therefore, this study recommends that using CFLR to teach reading skills should be considered by teachers. Curriculum planners and instructional designers also should give due consideration to the contribution of CFLR in reading instruction in English lessons.

5.4 MODEL OF READING INSTRUCTION DEVELOPED BY THE RESEARCHER

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher developed a model for reading instruction. As Figure 5.1 below indicates, the reading instruction should give due consideration to language familiarity, schema, cognitive skills, psychological factors, home and school conditions. These elements are highly interrelated and one can influence the other. For instance, the learner's familiarity with the target language is a



fundamental requirement for reading ability. Therefore, the child should be familiar with the target language. It involves cipher knowledge; lexical knowledge; letter knowledge; and knowledge of the alphabetic principle.

Language familiarity can get sufficient ground from the schemata of learners. Schemata of the learners involve the learner's background knowledge about the world, social, cultural and language issues. It is fundamental to learning language and reading skill. The schemata have their foundation in the normal cognitive status of the learners. Therefore, the cognitive skills which involve learning ability, understanding, meaning construction ability, eye movement and text scanning skills are very important to the schemata as well as language familiarity and reading skill development of the learners. Psychological factors are also governing elements which firmly establish the learning and development of the learner. For instance, the learner's interest, reading efficacy, involvement in learning activities and self-monitoring skills are crucial which allow the learner to be engaged in the learning activity and able to achieve (Kaniuka, 2010; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006).

Home conditions are another critical factor which facilitates the learning performance of the learner. For instance, a learner needs to have access to educational resources such as books, computer and audio-recordings. The learner also needs to have enough time to read at home with someone who can provide support. Similarly, the school conditions are crucial for the learner to be provided with adequate learning opportunities. Therefore, the school should have a reading culture, sufficient reading materials, ICT (computers, videos and audio-recorders), classroom with sufficient teaching aids, manageable class sizes, diversity accommodation, culturally-responsive instruction and well trained teachers (Turner, 1995; Perry, Turner & Meyer, 2006). Incorporation of these important elements will provide the learner with a suitable learning environment for reading. The following figure depicts how these elements relate to each other.

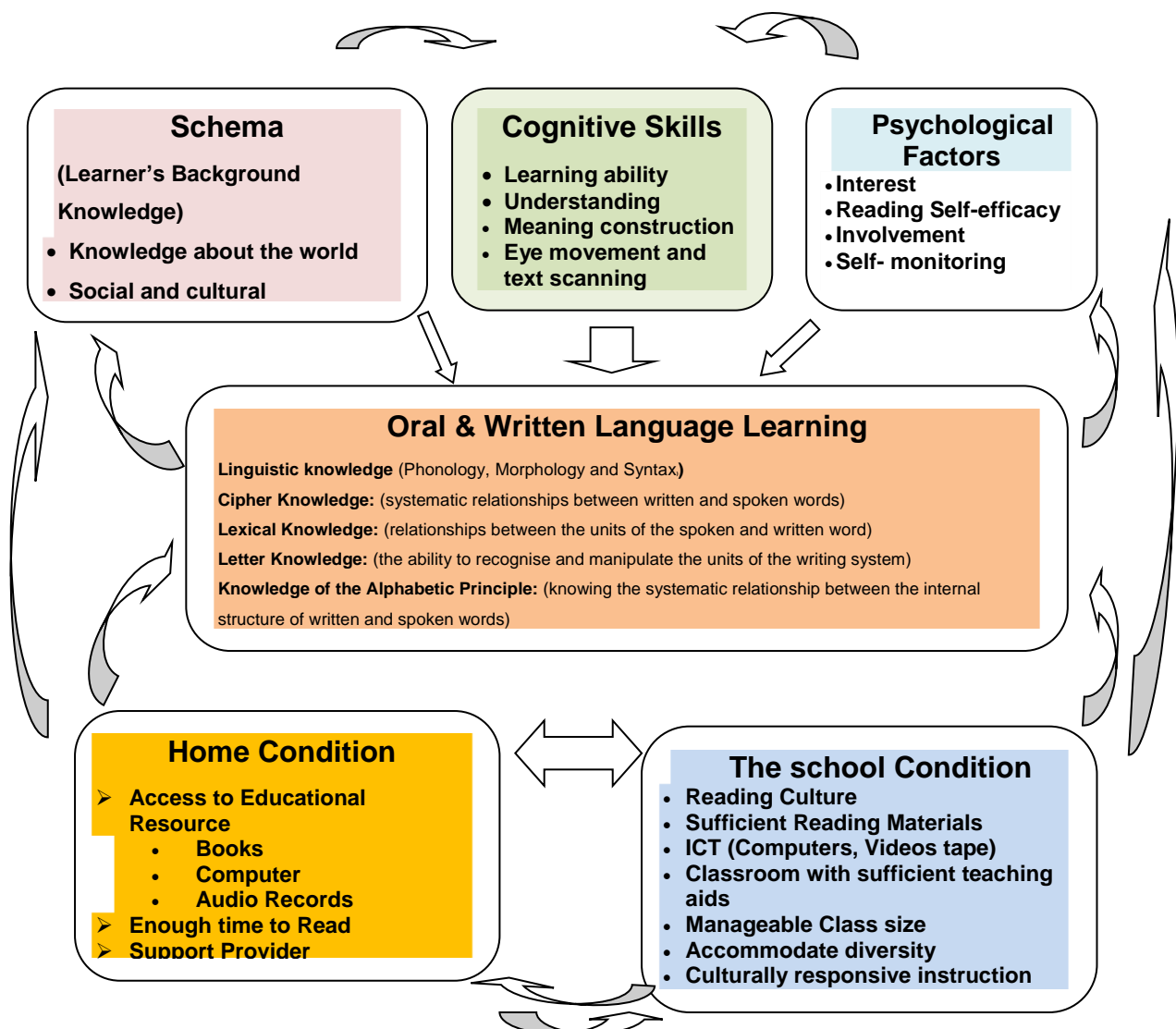


Figure 5.1a: Model of reading instruction developed by the researcher

Figure 5.1 can be easily assimilated and memorised by teachers with the help of the following star figure constructed by using abbreviations (S-Schema, C-Cognitive Skills, P-Psychological factors, H-Home conditions, S-School conditions, OWLL-Oral and Written Language Learning).

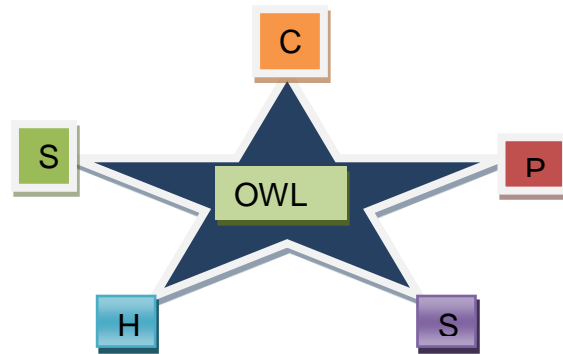


Figure 5.1b: Model of reading instruction developed by the researcher

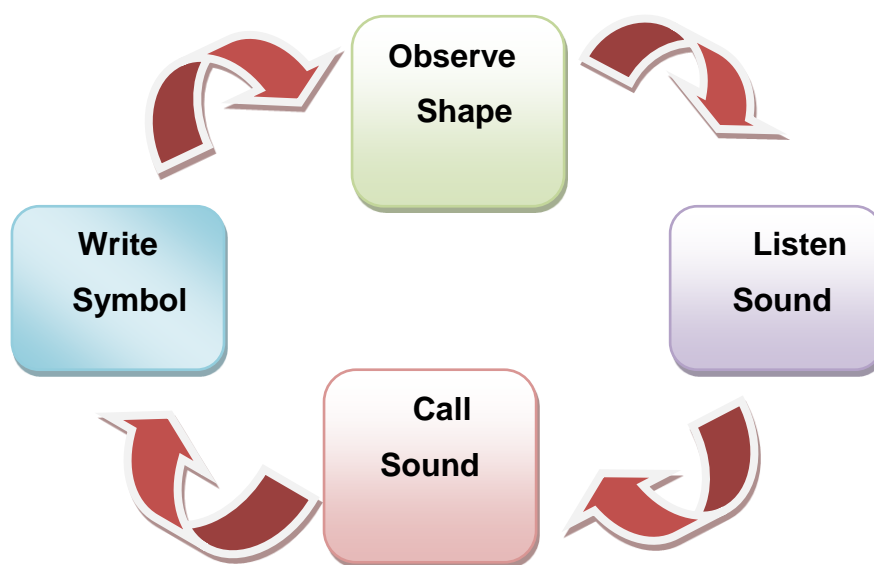


Figure 5.1c: Model for word teaching developed by the researcher

5.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY PREDICTORS OF GOOD READING SKILL

The qualitative and quantitative data of the study revealed some early predictors of good reading skill. As the study indicated, learners from the experimental schools exhibited improved skills and behaviour during the implementation of CFLR. These were demonstrated by good comprehension skill in the classroom and good scores on the post-test result as well. For instance, learners' performance on the tasks (phoneme segmentation, alphabetic recognition, match spoken words to printed words, word recognition, and concept of words in text) given during the implementation of CFLR, were best predictors of good reading skills. Learners who performed well on the above tasks were found with good reading ability and good score on the achievement test

(Lonigan, Burgess & Anthony, 2000; Scarborough, 1998; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002; Torppa, Lyytinen, Erskine, Eklund & Lyytinen, 2010).

Furthermore, the learners with good reading skills exhibited characteristics of cognitive, (fast learning, easily understanding, fast and active construction of meanings and eye movement and text scanning); motivational (interest, reading self-efficacy, involvement and self monitoring); and linguistic (language proficiency). Therefore, these can be taken as early predictors of good reading skill (Carlisele, 2000; Deacon & Kiby, 2004).

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The findings of the study depicted that CFLR was an effective instructional approach to teach reading skill in Grade 3 English. The findings also confirmed that learners' motivation is an important characteristic of learners that contributes to increasing their interest, reading self-efficacy, involvement and learning cooperatively with others. Findings also showed that the learners' schemata, cognitive abilities, home conditions and school situations are interrelated factors in teaching oral and written language. Furthermore, the study revealed that phoneme segmentation, alphabetic recognition, match spoken words to printed words, word recognition, and concept of words in text are early predictors of good reading skill.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Reading is an important skill that is closely linked to one's success because the ability to read opens doors to success in academic, occupational and other practical skills used in daily life. Therefore, an investigation focused on early grade reading contributes to research on specific areas of learners' reading difficulty and indicates possible solution. Similarly, the study implemented a new reading instruction approach and investigated its effect on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools found in Hawassa and Dilla towns in SNNPR, Ethiopia.

The preceding chapter discussed the major findings of the study. It explained the interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative result of the study in terms of research objectives. This section presented the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the major findings.

6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The primary limitation of the study was its failure to use random selection of samples for the two experimental and control groups. Therefore, the results of the study were generalised only to the control and experimental schools which participated in the study.

The second limitation of the study was that it did not use video-recordings to record the intervention sessions. Therefore, it was difficult to evaluate the overall activities of the researcher in the experimental schools' classrooms.

The third limitation of the study was the length of time used for the implementation of the intervention. CFLR was implemented over three months. Since reading skill is a cognitive activity that requires understanding linguistic concepts and familiarity with comprehension skill, the time used for the intervention was very short. Therefore, if other studies are to be conducted over a relatively longer period, they would show considerable output.

6.3 SUMMARY

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of the CFLR instruction method on English reading skills of Grade 3 learners. The study was conducted in 10 selected primary schools found in Hawassa and Dilla city administration SNNPR, Ethiopia employing a convergent mixed methodology. The quantitative section consisted of a quasi-experimental research design while the qualitative section used a case study design. Therefore, the researcher used a non-equivalent group design with intact classes in both the experimental and control groups.

In the experimental group, five schools with Grade 3 English learners participated in the study. The researcher employed a similar arrangement in the control schools. The quantitative part involved 1,325 Grade 3 learners drawn from 10 township elementary schools to fill questionnaire and write achievement test. Of these learners, 673 (339 boys & 334 girls) (from five schools) formed the experimental group in Dilla town and 652 (352 boys & 300 girls) (from the remaining five schools) formed the control group in Hawassa city. For the qualitative data, the researcher selected 10 English teachers (five from each group); 10 Grade 3 learners (five from each group); and 10 parents of Grade 3 learners (five from each group) by purposive sampling method to take part in the interview.

As tools for data collection, the study used achievement tests, semi-structured interviews and observation. The study commenced with the administration of a pre-test (reading achievement test) to both groups (experimental and control). In order to ensure anonymity, the researcher assigned index numbers to learners for use in the achievement test. He used codes to represent learners in the pre-test as well as in the post-test.

The study analysed quantitative and qualitative data separately to supplement each other. The quantitative data were treated by the use of various statistical techniques. The study used independent t-tests to investigate statistical differences between pre-test and post-test results. ANCOVA also helped to evaluate the interaction between the covariate (learners' pre-test scores) and the independent variable (CFLR) in the prediction of the dependent variable (learners' reading achievement post-test scores). The study used an alpha level of 0.05 for the interpretation of statistical data. The study also implemented thematic analysis to analyse qualitative data.

The study found that the mean score of the pre-test of the control group was ($n= 652$, $M=40.23$, & $SD=12.3$) and their post-test mean was ($n= 652$, $M=46.32$ & $SD=11.63$). There are 6 marks slight differences between the pre-test and the post-test results. However, the mean score of the pre-test of the experimental group was ($n= 673$, $M=39.70$ & $SD=12.7$); and their post-test mean was ($n= 673$, $M=66.15$ & $SD=10.8$). There are 26.45 marks larger differences between the pre-test and the post-test results than the control groups result. The probability of error is less than 0.05 ($p=0.000<0.05$).

The study indicated statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test. Based on this, it is possible to state that the implementation of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) improved the reading skill of the learners significantly better than the usual instructional method. The qualitative findings also revealed the challenges in the implementation of the intervention. For instance, the study indicated learners' diversity, large classroom size and learners' psychological issues as the major challenges in the implementation of the intervention. Therefore, the researcher provided educational and psychological support to the learners and took remedial action to intervene in these challenges.

Furthermore, the qualitative findings also showed the views of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of CFLR instruction. The results of the qualitative data indicated that the new instructional approach helped to improve learners' reading motivation. Besides that, the new method contributed to minimising their reading anxiety, increased reading motivation and enhanced their reading skill.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

The study found that CFLR instruction can improve the reading skills of Grade 3 learners in the area of oral language and written language comprehension as well as minimising reading anxiety, poor motivation and poor self-efficacy resulting from reading difficulty.

Prior to implementing the intervention, the researcher identified early predictors of good reading skills that gradually developed in to improved reading skill. These early

predictors are the learners' ability on phoneme segmentation, alphabetic recognition, match spoken to printed words, word recognition, and concept of words in text. They contributed significantly to the study by giving direction to the researcher to specifically know learners' strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, it is possible to state that these early predictors of good reading skills provide important guidance for teachers to know their learners and provide appropriate educational support.

The study investigated the contribution of learners' background knowledge (schema), cognitive skills, psychological factors, home conditions and school conditions in teaching reading skills to Grade 3 English learners. The study found strong relationships between these factors. They are highly interrelated and interdependent factors. For instance, the learners' prior knowledge provided a sufficient foundation for the cognitive activity of the learners to learn new language elements. Good cognitive skill also helped the learners to be motivated and get acquire reading self-efficacy. Furthermore, learners' home and school conditions also made a significant contribution to enriching learners' background knowledge and providing sufficient opportunity to enhance the reading skills of learners. Thus, it is possible to conclude that the learners' background Knowledge (schema), cognitive skills, psychological factors, home condition and school condition are critical factors in teaching reading skill for Grade 3 English learners.

Learners' familiarity with oral language elements (phonological, morphological and syntax awareness) and written language elements (cipher knowledge, lexical knowledge, letter knowledge, alphabetic knowledge and concept about print) have significant value in improving the reading skills of Grade 3 learners. Subsequently, this familiarity helped learners to reduce reading anxiety and enhance self-efficacy. Therefore, the researcher concludes that elements of oral and written language have paramount value in reading instruction for Grade 3 learners.

The study indicated that teaching reading in large class sizes hindered the provision of individual support required if learners had reading difficulties. As a result, this might lead to increased learner dropout rate or a high number of learners repeating a grade. Hence, the study concludes that teaching reading in large class size affects active participation of learners and the provision of teachers support.

The study also found that learners with special needs (learners who have sensory, cognitive, emotional, psychological, physiological, and language and communication impairments) faced visual, auditory, cognitive, emotional and social problems in learning to read. However, the inclusive teaching approach used which was responsive to the special conditions of the learners helped them to benefit from the intervention. Therefore, based on the finding of the study, it is possible to conclude that an inclusive instructional approach can address the special needs of disadvantaged learners in learning reading in mainstream schools.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are forwarded:

- English curriculum planners should consider using learners' background knowledge (schema) and reading motivation as critical factors in Grade 3 reading instruction.
- Regional and district education officers and planners should take into consideration that there should be class sizes with manageable limits in Grade 3 English reading class since large class size hinders the effectiveness of reading instruction and the provision of teachers' support.
- English teachers' training also should properly incorporate the use of learners' background knowledge (schema) and reading motivation.
- Teachers should consider learners' educational background (learning readiness, parentage status, parents' education and socio-economic conditions) to provide appropriate interventions for learners to participate fully in the classroom reading activities.
- Teachers should work with parents to create sufficient opportunities and suitable situations at home for the reading activities of the learners.
- Teachers should consider the reading model developed by the researcher in teaching reading in English to Grade 3 learners.
- Teachers should use phoneme segmentation, alphabetic recognition, match spoken to printed words, word recognition, and concept of words in text as predictors of reading skills since the findings of current study indicate that learners with these early predictors exhibited significant improvement in their reading skill.

- Schools should have periodic assessment of reading difficulties of learners so as to provide timely support.
- It is advisable that teachers should use socially, culturally and linguistically responsive inclusive instructional approach in teaching reading.
- School psychologists and counselors should enhance the motivation, self-esteem and self-efficacy of learners with reading difficulties by providing psychological interventions.
- Parents should ensure availability of reading resources at home.
- Parents should provide sufficient time for reading at home.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The finding of the study indicated several suggestions for future research.

Firstly, the study was conducted only on one grade level, i.e., Grade 3 learners. Future studies using various grade levels, age, social, cultural, economic and ability groups may show new insight in the field of reading research by comparing CFLR with that of conventional method.

Secondly, in the study, immediately after the implementation of the treatment, the post-test was administered to the participants to determine the effect of CFLR. However, this way of test administration did not give the opportunity to know how long the effects of CFLR are retained by the learners. Therefore, future researchers should employ a delayed post-test some time after the treatment to determine the learners' retention of skills and knowledge.

Finally, the study did not use ICT products like video, computer and language and reading laboratories. Future researchers on the area of early grade reading should consider incorporating the function of these ICT products to investigate their implications for learners' reading skill.

REFERENCES

- Abidin, M.J.Z., Pour-Mohammadi, M, Alzwari, H. (2012). EFL students' attitudes toward learning English language: The case of Libyan secondary school students. *Asian Social Science*, 8(2): 119–134.
- Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print*. Cambridge, Mass: The MIT Press.
- Adams, M.J. (2000). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print*. Cambridge, Mass: The MIT Press.
- Adams, M.J. and Collins, A.M. (1979). A schema-theoretic view of reading. In Fredolfe, R.O. (Ed.) *Discourse Processing. Multidisciplinary Perspectives*. Norwood: Ablex.
- Ahmadi, M. R., Ismail, H. N. & Abdullah, M. K. K. (2013). The relationship between students' reading motivation and reading comprehension. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(18).
- Ajjdeh, P. (2003). Schema theory-based pre-reading tasks: A neglected essential in the ESL reading class. *The Reading Matrix*, 3 (1).
- Ajjdeh, P. (2006). Schema theory-based considerations on pre-reading activities in ESP textbooks. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 16: 1–19.
- Alderson, R.C. (2000). *Assessing reading*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Alexander, P. A., & Murphy, P. K. (1998). Profiling the differences in students' knowledge, interest, and strategic processing. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90: 435–447.
- Al-Issa, A. (2006). Schema theory and reading comprehension: implications for teaching. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning*, 3(7): 41– 48.
- Al-Jahwari & Al-Humaidi, S. (2015). Prior knowledge in EFL reading comprehension: Omani teachers' perspectives & classroom strategies. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 4 (1): 169–181.
- Almasi, J. (1995). The nature of fourth graders' socio-cognitive conflicts in peer-led and teacher-led discussions of literature. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30: 314–351.
- An, S. (2013). Schema theory in reading. *Theory and practice in language studies*, 3 (1): 130–134.

- Anderson, R.C., and Pearson, P.D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading. In Pearson, P.D., Barr, R. Kamil, M.L. and Mosenthal, P. (Eds.) *Handbook of Reading Research*. New York: Longman. 255–292.
- Annie E. Casey Foundation (2010). “*EARLY WARNING! Why Reading by the end of third-grade matters*” A KIDS COUNT Special Report from the Annie E. Casey Foundation. Baltimore: Annie E. Casey Foundation.
- Applegate, M.D., Applegate, A.J., & Modla, V. B. (2010). “She’s my best reader: She just can’t comprehend”: Studying the relationship between fluency and comprehension. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(6), 512–521.
- Archer, A.L., Gleason, M.M., & Vachon, V.L. (2003). Decoding and fluency: Foundation skills for struggling older readers. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 26(2): 89–101.
- As-Chall, J.S. (1996). *Learning to read: The great debate*. (3rd ed.). Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C. & Sorensen, C. K. (2010). *Introduction to research in education* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- August, D. & Shanahan, T. (2010). Response to a review and update on developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the national literacy panel on language minority children and youth. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 341–348.
- Ayres, P. & Van Gog, T. (2009). Editorial: State of the art research into cognitive load theory. *Journal Computers in Human Behavior*, 25(2).
- Babbie, E.R. & Mouton, J. (2002). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Baker, T. R., & White, S. H. (2003). The effects of G.I.S. on students' attitudes, self-efficacy, and achievement in middle school science classrooms. *Journal of Geography*, 102(6): 243–254.
- Bandura, Albert (1977), *Social learning theory*, Alexandria: Prentice Hall,
- Banks, J. A. (1994). Transforming the mainstream curriculum. *Educational Leadership*, 57:4–8.
- Banks, J. A. & Banks, C. A. (1997). *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives* (3rd ed.). Needham Heights: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bartlett, F.C. (1932). *Remembering: A study in experimental and social psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Bashir, A. S., & Scavuzzo, A. (1992). Children with language disorders: Natural history and academic success. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 25: 53–65.
- Beck, I. and Juel, C. (1999). The role of decoding in learning to read. In *Reading Research Anthology: The Why? of Reading Instruction*. Novato: Arena Press. 78–88.
- Berg, B.L. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Biemiller, A. & Boote, C. (2006). An effective method for building meaning vocabulary in primary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98: 44–62.
- Blatchford, P., Moriarty, V. Edmonds, S. & Martin, C. (2002). Relationships between class size and teaching: A multi method analysis of English infant schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 39 (1): 101–132.
- Blessing, J.D. & Florister, J. G. (2012). *Introduction to research and medical literature for health professionals*. (3rd ed.). Philadelphia: David D. Cella.
- Boden C. & Brodeur D. (1999). Visual processing of verbal and nonverbal stimuli in adolescents with reading disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 32 (1): 58–71.
- Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bohlman, C.A. & Pretorius, E.J. (2002). Reading skills and mathematics. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 16:196–206.
- Bouffard, T., Marcoux, M., Vezeau, C. & Bordeleau, L. (2003). Changes in self-perceptions of competence and intrinsic motivation among elementary school children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73:171–186.
- Bordens, K.S. & Abbott, B.B. (2011). *Research design and methods: A process approach*. (8th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Brazier-Carter P.M. (2008). Language learning through storybook reading. Headstart Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College. A PhD Dissertation.
- Brewer, W.F. (2000). Bartlett's concept of schema and its impact on theories of knowledge representation in contemporary cognitive psychology. In A. Saito (Ed.), *Bartlett, culture and cognition* (pp.69-89). UK Psychology Press.

- Brown, D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (5th ed.). New York: Pearson Education.
- Burnard, P. (2004). Writing a qualitative research. *Nurse Education Today*, 24, 174–179.
- Cain, K. J., Oakhill, J., & Bryant, P. (2004). Children's reading comprehension ability: Concurrent prediction by working memory, verbal ability, and component skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 96(1): 31–42.
- Cain, K., & Oakhill, J. V. (1999). Inference-making ability and its relation to comprehension failure in young children. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 11: 489–503.
- Capen, R. (2010). The role of the teacher and classroom environment in reading motivation. *Illinois Reading Council Journal*, 38(4): 20–25.
- Carlisle, J.F. (2000). Awareness of the structure and meaning of morphologically complex words: Impact on reading. *Reading and Writing*, 12: 169–190.
- Carrell, P.L. (1991). Second language reading: Reading ability or language proficiency? *Applied Linguistics*, 12(2): 159–179.
- Carrell, P.L. & Eisterhold, J.C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. . *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 17, No. 4 (Dec., 1983), pp. 553-573. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL). Accessed: 31/10/2012.
- Castles, A., & Coltheart, M. (2004). Is there a causal link from phonological awareness to success in learning to read? *Cognition*, 91:77–111.
- Catts, H., Adlof, S. & Ellis-Weismer, S. (2006). Language deficits in poor comprehenders: A case for the simple view of reading. *Journal of Speech-Language-Hearing-Research*, 49, 278–293.
- Catts, H., Hogan, T. & Adlof, S. (2005). Developmental changes in reading and reading disabilities. In Catts, H. & Kamhi, A. (Eds.). *Connections between Language and Reading Disabilities*. Mahwah: Erlbaum. 25–40.
- Catts, H., Adlof, S., Hogan, T. & Ellis-Weismer, S. (2006). Are specific language impairment and dyslexia distinct disorders? *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, 48, 1378–1396.

- Catts, H. W., & Kamhi, A. G. (1999). *Language and learning disabilities*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Catts, H.W. & Kamhi, A.G. (2011). *Language and reading disabilities* (3rd ed.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Chang, M-M. (2007). Enhancing web-based language learning through self-monitoring. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 23(3): 187-196.
- Chang, H.N. & Romero, M. (2008). *Present, engaged, and accounted for: The critical importance of addressing chronic absence in the early grades*. New York: National Center for Children in Poverty.
- Chapman, J.W. & Tunmer, W. E. (1995). Development of young children's reading self-concepts: An examination of emerging subcomponents and their relationship with reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87: 154–167.
- Chapman, J. W., Tunmer, W. E. & Prochnow, J. E. (2000). Early reading-related skills and performance, reading self-concept, and the development of academic self-concept: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92, 703–708.
- Chen, H.C. (2002). A preliminary study of Chinese EFL learners' difficulties in vocabulary learning and remedial learning strategies. *Papers selected from the 17th conference of TVES Education*, 81-91. Taipei: Crane.
- Chia, H.L. (2001). Reading activities for effective top-down processing. *FORUM* 39 (1): 22.
- Chih-Ming, C. & Yi-Lun, L. (2009). Personalized context-aware ubiquitous learning system for supporting effective English vocabulary learning. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 1–24.
- Chinwonno, A. (2001). A comparison of Thai and English reading comprehension strategies of pre-service teachers in Thailand. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.
- Christle, C.A. & Yell, M.L. (2008). Preventing youth incarceration through reading remediation: Issues and solutions. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 24: 148–176.
- Chun, C.K.W. (2000). Effects of text structure-based knowledge and strategies on second language expository prose comprehension. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.

- Clinton, V. E. (2011). The effects of interest on inference generation while reading. A dissertation submitted to the faculty of the graduate school of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis and Saint Paul, United States.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. (6thed.). New York: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. (7thed.). London: Routledge.
- Conderman, G. & Strobel, D. (2006). Problem solving with guided repeated oral reading instruction. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 42(1): 34-39.
- Cook, T.D. (2002). *Randomized experiments in education: Why are they so rare?* Northwestern University, USA: Institute for Policy Research Working Paper.
- Corbiere, M., Fraccaroli, F., Mbekou, V., & Perron, J. (2006). Academic self-concept and academic interest measurement: A multi-sample European study. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 21:3–15.
- Corwyn, R. F., & Bradley, R. F. (2002). Family process mediators of the relation between SES and child outcomes. Unpublished manuscript, University of Arkansas at Little Rock.
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*. (3rded.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nded.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Crouch, L., & Korda, M. (2008). EGRA Liberia: Baseline assessment of reading levels and associated factors. *Prepared for the World Bank under Contract No. 7147768*. Research Triangle Park: RTI International.
- Cushner, K., McClelland, A. & Safford, P. (1996). *Human diversity in education: An integrative approach*. (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Daneman, M. & Newson, M. (1992). Assessing the importance of subvocalization in normal silent reading. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 4, 55–77.
- Davis-Kean, P. (2005). The Influence of parent education and family income on child achievement: The indirect role of parental expectations and the home environment. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 19(2): 294–304.
- Day, R.R. & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- De Jong, M.T. & Bus, A.G. (2004). The efficacy of electronic books in fostering kindergarten children's emergent story understanding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 39, 378–393.
- Deacon, H.S. & Kirby, J.R. (2004). Morphological awareness: Just "more phonological"? The roles of morphological and phonological awareness in reading development. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 25, 223–238.
- Dehqan, M. & Samar, R.G. (2017). Reading Comprehension in a socio-cultural context: Effect on learners of two proficiency levels. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98: 404–410.
- Delamont, S. (2012). *Handbook of qualitative research in education*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Delpit, L. D. (1995). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. New York: New Press.
- Delrose, L.N. (2015). Effects of encoding practice on alphabet, phonemic awareness, and spelling skills of students with developmental delays. Unpublished doctoral thesis. University of Louisiana, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
- Demirel, O., and Epçaçan, C. (2011). Validity and reliability study on the scale of belief self-efficiency reading comprehension. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 4(16): 120–128.
- Dentisak, D. (2010). Enhancing English reading comprehension through a text structure reading strategy call program. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Suranaree University of Technology, City.
- Denton, K., Reaney, L., and West, J. (2001). *Home educational activities, literacy resources and kindergartners' reading knowledge and skills*. Presentation at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Minneapolis, USA.
- Descombes, M. (2003). Ground rules for good research: A ten-point guide for social researchers. England: Open University Press.
- Dev, P.C. (1997). Intrinsic motivation and academic achievement: What does their relationship imply for the classroom teacher? *Remedial and Special Education*, 18(1): 12–19.
- De Vos, AS, Strydom, H, Fouche, CB & Delport, CSL. (2012). *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

- Donald, D., Lazarus, S., & Iolwana, P. (2010). *Educational psychology in social context*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Donkor, F. (2010). The comparative instructional effectiveness of print-based and video-based instructional materials for teaching practical skills at a distance. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 11(1): 96–116.
- Downey, C.M. (2010). Child acquisition of referring expressions. Thesis? Louisiana State University.
- Droop, M., & Verhoeven, L. (2003). Language proficiency and reading ability in first- and second-language learners. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 38, 78–103.
- Eid Alhaisoni (2017). Prior Knowledge in EFL Reading Comprehension: Native and Nonnative EFL Teachers' Perceptions, Classroom Strategies and Difficulties Encountered. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 5 (1): 30–41.
- Edmunds, K.M.& Bauserman, K.L. (2006). What teachers can learn about reading motivation through conversations with children. *International Reading Association*, 59(5): 414–427. doi:10.1598/RT.59.5.1.
- EGRA/Egypt (2013). *Egypt grade 3 early grade reading assessment baseline*. Research Triangle Park: RTI International.
- EGRA/Ethiopia (2010). *Early grade reading assessment. Data analytic report language and early learning*. Research Triangle Park: RTI International and the Center for Development Consulting.
- EGRA/ Kenya (2008). *Early grade reading Kenya: Baseline assessment*. Research Triangle Park: RTI International.
- EGRA/South Africa (2009). *Integrated education program impact study of SMRS using early grade reading assessment in three provinces in South Africa*. Research Triangle Park: RTI International.
- Elley, W.B. (1994). *The IEA study of reading literacy: Achievement and instruction in thirty-two school systems*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Elsäcker W. (2002). *Development of reading comprehension: The engagement perspective*. Enschede: Feboprint
- Epstein, J. (1992). School and family partnerships. In Alkin, M. (Ed.): *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*. (6thed.). New York: MacMillan. 1139–1151.

- Erdoes, C., Genesee, F., Savage, R. & Haigh, C.A. (2010). Individual differences in second language reading outcomes. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 15:3–25.
- Eskey, D.E. (2005). Reading in a second language. In Hinkel, E. (Ed.): *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum. 563–580.
- Ethiopian Education Sector Development Programme- V (ESDP- V). (2008 – 2012). E.C. 2015/16 - 2019/20 G.C.
- Faltis, C. (1997). *Join fostering: Adapting teaching for the multicultural classroom*. Upper Saddle River: Merrill.
- Farnia, F. & Geva, E. (2013). Growth and predictors of change in English language learners' reading comprehension. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 36:389–421.
- Farrell, M. (2008). *Educating special children. An introduction to provision for pupils with disabilities and disorders*. London: David Fulton.
- Farrell, M. (2009). *Foundations of special education: An introduction*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- Finney, S.J., and Schraw, G. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs in college statistics courses. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 28, 161–186.
- Fletcher, J.M. Lyon, G.R., Fuchs, L.S., & Barnes, M.A. (2007). *Learning disability. From identification to intervention*. New York: Guilford.
- Flowerday, T., Schraw, G., & Stevens, J. (2004). The role of choice and interest in reader engagement. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 72(2): 93–114.
- Foster, E. M., & Kalil, A. (2005). Developmental psychology and public policy: Progress and prospects. *Developmental Psychology*, 41, 827–832.
- Fox, C. & Bolton, M. (2003). Evaluating the effectiveness of a social skills training (SST) programme for victims of bullying. *Educational Research*, 45(3): 231–247.
- Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th ed.). San Francisco: McGraw-Hill.
- Franke, M.C., & Jager, G. (2013). *Pragmatic back-and-forth reasoning*. Manuscript, Amsterdam: Tübingen.

- Fredriksson, U. (2002). *Reading skills among students of immigrant origin in Stockholm*. Stockholm: Institute of International Education, Stockholm University.
- Gaigher, E., Rogan, J. M. & Brown, M. W. H. (2006). The effect of a structured problem-solving strategy on performance in physics in disadvantaged South African schools. *African Journal of Research in Science Mathematics and Technology Education*, 15–26.
- Gall, M.D., Gall, J.P., & Borg, W.R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction*. (8thed.). United States of America: Pearson Education.
- Gambrell, L. & Marinak, B. (1997). Intrinsic motivation and rewards: What sustains young children's engagement with text? *Literary Research and Instruction*, 47: 9-26.
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.
- Georgeon, O.R. & Ritter, F.E. (2011). An intrinsically motivated schema mechanism to model and simulate emergent cognition. *Cognitive Systems Research*, 15–16: 75.
- Ghaedrahmat, M., Entezari, J. and Abedi, A. (2014). Impact of demotivating factors on the reading comprehension achievement of Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of Language Learning and applied Linguistics World*, 5(1): 250–263.
- Gove, A. and Cvelich, P. 2011. *Early reading: Igniting education for all. A report by the early grade learning community of practice*. (Revised ed.). Research Triangle Park: Research Triangle Institute.
- Gough, P.B., Hoover, W.A., & Peterson, C.L. (1996). Some observations on a simple view of reading. In C. Cornoldi, & J. Oakhill (Eds), *Reading comprehension difficulties: Processes and intervention* (pp. 1-13). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Gough, P. B. (1972). One second of reading. In Kavanagh, J.F. and Ignatius G. Mattingly, I.G. (Eds.): *Language by Ear and by Eye* (pp.). Cambridge: MIT Press. 331–358.

- Grabe, W. (2004). Research on the teaching of reading. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24: 44-69.
- Grabe, W. & Stoller, F.L. (2002). *Teaching and researching reading*. New York: Pearson Education.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F.L. (2011). *Teaching and researching reading*. (2nd ed.). Harlow: Pearson.
- Guastello, E., Beasley, T.M., & Sinatra, R C. (2000). Concept mapping effects on science content comprehension of low-achieving inner-city seventh graders. *Remedial and Special Education*, 21(6): 356–364.
- Guay, F., Chanal, J., Ratelle, C.F., Marsh, H.W., Larose, S.& Boivin, M. (2010). Intrinsic, identified, and controlled types of motivation for school subjects in young elementary school children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(4): 711–735.
- Guthrie, J.T. & Wigfield, A. (1997). *Reading engagement: Motivating readers through integrated instruction*. Newark: International Reading Association.
- Guthrie, J.T., Wigfield, A., Metsala, J.L.& Cox, K E. (1999). Motivational and cognitive predictors of text comprehension and reading amount. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 3(3): 231–256. doi:10.1207/s1532799xssr0303_3.
- Guthrie, J.T., McRae, A. & Klauda, S.L. (2007). Contributions of concept-oriented reading instruction to knowledge about interventions for motivations in reading. *Educational Psychologist*, 42(4): 237–250.
- Habibian, M. and Roslan, S. (2014). The relationship between self-efficacy in reading with language proficiency and reading comprehension among ESL learners. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(14): 119–126.
- Hagtvet, B.E. (1997). Phonological and linguistic-cognitive precursors of reading abilities. *Dyslexia* 3(3).
- Hamachek, D. (1995). Self-concept and school achievement: Interaction dynamics and a tool for assessing the self-concept component. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 73(4): 419-425.
- Hancock, G.R.& Mueller, R.O. (2010). *The reviewer's guide to quantitative methods in the social sciences*. London: Routledge.
- Hanson, W.E., Creswell, J.W., Plano Clark, V.L., Petska, K S. (2005). Mixed methods research designs in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52, 224–235.

- Harlow, L.L. (2005). *The essence of multivariate thinking: basic themes and methods*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harris, R. J. (2001). *A primer of multivariate statistics*. (3rded.). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hattingh, A. & Killen, R. (2003). The promise of problem-based learning for training pre-service technology teachers. *SAJHE/SATHO*, 17(1): 39–46.
- Hayes, B.L. (1991). The effective teaching of reading. In Hayes, B.L. (Ed.). *Effective Strategies for Teaching Reading*. Needham Heights: Allyn and Bacon. 3–12.
- Haynes, M. & Baker, I. (1993). American and Chinese readers learning from lexical familiarization in English text. In Huckin, T., Haynes, M. & Coady, J. (Eds.): *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary Learning*. Norwood: Ablex Hedge. 130–152.
- Helland, T. & Kaasa, R. (2005): Dyslexia in English as a second language. *Dyslexia*, 11 (1): 41-60.
- Hengari, J.U. (2007). Identification of reading difficulties amongst Grade 4 learners of the Arandis Primary School in Erongo Region, Unpublished Research Report. University of Namibia, Windhoek.
- Henning, E., Gravett, S. & Van Rensburg, W. (2005). *Finding your way in academic writing*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Henning, E., Rensburg, W. & Smit, B. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Hernandez, D.J. (2012). *Double jeopardy: How third grade reading skills and poverty influence high school graduation*. City University of New York. Annie E. Casey Foundation.
- Hidi, S. & Renninger, K. A. (2006). The four-phase model of interest development. *Educational Psychologist*, 41, 111–127.
- Holloway, J.H. (2000). Preparing teachers for differentiated instruction. *Educational Leadership*, 58(1):82-83.
- Hood, S., Soloman, and N., Burns, A. (1996). Focus on reading. Sidney. Macquarie University.
- Hoover, W., & Gough, P. B. (1990). The simple view of reading. *Reading and Writing*, 2, 127-160.

- Hossein T. (2012). *A dictionary of research methodology and statistics in applied linguistics*. Tehran: Rahnama Press.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115 (4): 1239–1285.
- Hsueh-chao, M.H. & Nation, P. (2000). Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 13: 403–425.
- Hulan, N., Layne, V. & McIntyre, E. (2011). *Reading instruction for diverse classrooms*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Hunt, A. & Beglar, D. (2005). A framework for developing EFL reading vocabulary. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 17: 23-29.
- Jackson, S. L. (2012). *Research methods and statistics: A critical thinking approach*. (4th ed.). Wards worth, USA: Linda Shreiber-Ganster.
- Jennings, J.H., Schudt-Caldwell J. & Lerner, J.W. (2006). *Reading problems: Assessment and teaching strategies*. (7th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education
- Johns, J., Lenski, S.D. & Elish-Piper, L. (1999). *Early literacy assessments and teaching strategies*. Dubuque: Kendall/Hunt.
- Johnson, B & Christensen, L. (2011). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches*. (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2012). *Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Johnson, F.R. (2001). Spelling exceptions: Problems or possibilities? *The Reading Teacher*, 54: 372-378.
- Johnson, R. B. & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2006). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7): 14–26.
- Johnston, R.S., Anderson, M. & Holligan, C. (1996). Knowledge of the alphabet and explicit awareness of phonemes in pre-readers: The nature of the relationship. *Reading and Writing*, 8(3): 217-234.
- Johri, P. K. (2005). *Educational Thought*. New Delhi, India: Anmol Publications.
- Jong, P.F. & Leseman, P.M. (2001). Lasting effects of home literacy on reading achievement in school. *Journal of School Psychology*, 9 (5): 389–414.
- Kaniuka, Theodore S. (2010). Reading achievement, attitude toward reading, and reading self-esteem of historically low achieving students. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 37: 184–188.

- Kasanda, C., Lubben, F., Gaoseb, N., Kandjeo-Marenga, U., Kapenda, H. & Campbell, B. (2005). The role of everyday contexts in learner-centered teaching: The practice in Namibian secondary schools. *International Journal of Science Education*, 27(15): 1805-1823.
- Kavale, K.A., & Reese, L. (1992). The character of learning disabilities: An Iowa profile. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 15, 74–94.
- Kendeou, P., van den Broek, P., White, M.J., & Lynch, J.S. (2009). Predicting reading comprehension in early elementary school: The independent contributions of oral language and decoding skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101, 765–778.
- Kirby, J.R. & Savage, R.S. (2008). Can the simple view deal with the complexities of reading? *Literacy*, 42, 75–82.
- Kirmizi, F. (2011). The relationship between reading comprehension strategies and reading attitudes. *Education 3-13*, 39(3): 289–303.
- Koenig, A.J. and Holbrook, M.C. (Eds.) (2000) *Foundations of education: instructional strategies for teaching children and youth with visual impairments*, 2. New York: American Foundation for the Blind Press.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994). *The dream keepers: Successful teachers of African American children*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lee, J. and Shute, V. J. (2010). Personal and social-contextual factors in K-12 academic performance: An integrative perspective on students' learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 45(3): 185–202.
- Lehmann, R. (1996). Reading literacy among immigrant students in the United States and the former West Germany. In Binkley, M., Rust, K. & Williams, T. (Eds.). *Reading Literacy in the International Perspectives. Collected papers from the IEA Reading Literacy Study*. Washington, DC: NCES.
- Leipzig, D.H. (2001). *What is reading?* WETA. Public Broadcasting.
- Lerner, J.W. (1989). Educational intervention in learning disabilities. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 28: 326–331.
- Lerner, J.W. (1993). *Learning disabilities: Theories, diagnosis, and teaching strategies*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Lerner, J.W. (2002). *Learning disabilities: Theories, diagnosis, and teaching strategies*. (8thed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

- Lervag, A. & Aukrust, V. (2010). Vocabulary knowledge is a critical determinant of the difference in reading comprehension growth between first and second language learners. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 51, 612- 620.
- Lesaux, N., Crosson, A., Kieffer, M., & Pierce, M. (2010). Uneven profiles: Language minority learners' word reading, vocabulary, and reading comprehension skills. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 475-453.
- Lesaux, N., Lipka, O. & Siegel, L. (2006). Investigating cognitive and linguistic abilities that influence the reading comprehension skills of children from diverse linguistic backgrounds. *Reading and Writing*, 19, 99-131.
- Lewis, A. & Norwich, B. (Eds.). (2005) *Special teaching for special children? Pedagogies for inclusion*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Liamputtong, P. & Ezzy, D. (2005). *Qualitative research methods* (2nd ed.). Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Lietz, P. (1996). *Changes in reading comprehension across cultures and over time*. Münster: Waxmann.
- Li, G. & Edwards, P.A. (2010). *Best practices in ELL instruction*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Lloyd, D.N. (1978). Prediction of school failure from third-grade data. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 38, 1193–2000.
- Lipson, M.Y., and Cooper, J.D. (2002). Understanding and supporting comprehension development in the elementary and middle grades. In Cooper, J.D. (Ed.). *A Legacy of Literacy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 1–15.
- Liu, Y. (2005). Effects of online instruction vs. traditional instruction on students' learning. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 2(3): 57–64.
- Liu, M., and Huang, W. (2011). An exploration of foreign language anxiety and English learning motivation. *Education Research International*, 12, 1–8.
- Lonigan, C., Burgess, S. & Anthony, J. (2000). Development of emergent literacy and early reading skills in preschool children: Evidence from a latent-variable longitudinal study. *Developmental Psychology*, 36, 596–613.
- Lukhele, B. B. S. (2013). Exploring relationships between reading attitudes, reading ability and academic performance amongst primary teacher trainees in Swaziland. *Reading and Writing*, 4(1): 1–8.

- Lumsden, L. (1999). *Student motivation: Cultivating a love of learning*. Salt Lake City: Publishers Press.
- Lyon, R. (1999). Overview of reading and literacy initiatives. In *Reading research anthology: The why? of reading instruction, consortium on reading excellence (CORE)*. Novato: Arena Press. 7-12.
- Marschark, M., Lang, H.G. and Albertini, J.A. (2002). *Educating deaf students. From research to practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mancilla-Martinez, J. & Lesaux, N. (2010). Predictors of reading comprehension for struggling readers: the case of Spanish-speaking language minority learners. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102, 701-711.
- Maxcy, S. J. (2003). Pragmatic threads in mixed methods research for multiple modes: The search for multiple modes of inquiry and the end of the philosophy of formalism. In Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (Eds.) *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage. 51–89.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2011). Paradigms or toolkits? Philosophical and methodological positions as heuristics for mixed methods research. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, 24(2): 27–30.
- McCormick, S. (1992). Disabled readers' erroneous responses to inferential comprehension questions: Description and analysis. *International Reading Association*, 27(1): 54–77.
- McMillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry*. (7th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- McGregor, G. & Vogelsberg, R. (1998). *Inclusive schooling practices pedagogical and research foundations: A synthesis of the literature that informs best practices about inclusive schooling*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.
- Meece, J. L., & Miller, S. D. (2001). Changes in elementary school children's achievement goals for reading and writing: Results of a longitudinal and an intervention study. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 3, 207- 229.
- Melby-Lervåg, M., Lyster, S-A. H., & Hulme, C. (2012). Phonological skills and their role in learning to read: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*. Advance online Publication.

- Memiş, A. & Bozkurt, M. (2013). The relationship of reading comprehension success with metacognitive awareness, motivation, and reading levels of fifth grade students. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 8(15): 1242–1246.
- Merriam, S. B., Caffarella, R.S. & Baumgartner, L.M. (2007). *Learning in adulthood*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Metsala, J. L., Wigfield, A. & McCann, A. D. (1996). Children's motivations for reading. *Reading Teacher*, 50(4): 360–362.
- Michel De Certeau.(2000) "Reading as Poaching." *The Practice of Everyday Life*. Trans. Steven F. Rendall. Berkeley: University of California Press,.165-176.
- Ministry of Education, Ethiopia (2008). *Education statistics annual abstract*. Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- Montano, D.E. & Kasprzyk, D. (2008). Theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and the integrated behavioral model. In Glanz, K., Rimer, B. & Viswanath, K. (Eds.): *Health Behavior and Health Education: Theory, Research, and Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 67–96.
- Morgan D.L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 79 (10): 931–938.
- Mulhall, A. (2003). In the field: Notes on observation in qualitative research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 41(3): 306–313.
- Murray, D.E. & Christison, M. (2010). *What English language teachers need to know Volume II: Facilitating learning*. London: Routledge.
- Muter, V., Hulme, C., Snowling, M.J. & Stevenson, J. (2004). Phonemes, rimes, vocabulary, and grammatical skills as foundations of early reading development: Evidence from a longitudinal study. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5): 665–681.
- Naseri, F. & Ghabanchi, Z. (2014). The relationship between self-efficacy beliefs, locus of control and reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL advance learners. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 5(1): 156–174.
- Nation, K., Clark, P., Marshall, C. M. & Durand, M. (2004). Hidden language impairments in students: Parallels between poor reading comprehension and

- specific language impairment? *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Impairment*, 47, 199–211.
- National Association of School Psychologists (2000). *Professional conduct manual for school psychologists containing the principles for professional ethics and the standards for the provision of school psychological services*. Durham, New Hampshire.
- National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities. (1997). Learning disabilities: Pre-service preparation of general and special education teachers. In National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (Ed.): *Collective perspectives on issues affecting learning disabilities: Affirming diversity* (2nd edition). New York: Longman Publishers.
- National Reading Panel. (2000). *Teaching children to read: Reports of the subgroups* (NIH Pub. No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.
- Nation, K., Cocksey, J., Taylor, J. & Bishop, D. (2010). A longitudinal investigation of early reading and language skills in children with poor reading comprehension. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 51, 1031–1039.
- Nation K., & Norbury, C.F. (2005). Why reading comprehension fails. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 25:21–32.
- Nation, K. & Snowling, M.J. (2004). Beyond phonological skills: Broader language skills contribute to the development of reading. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 27, 342-356.
- Nation, K. & Snowling, M. E. (1998). Semantic processing and the development of word-recognition skills: Evidence from children with reading comprehension difficulties. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 39, 85–101.
- Nel, N. (2011). Second language difficulties in a South African context. In E. Landsberg (Ed.): *Addressing Barriers to Learning: A South African Perspective*. Pretoria: Van Schaik. 167–186.
- Neuman, W.L. (2006). *Social research methods*. (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Ngwenya T. (2010). Correlating first-year law students' profile with the language demands of their content subjects. *Per Linguam*, 26:74-99.
- Nichols, W. D., Rupley, W.H., Webb-Johnson, G. & Tlusty, G. (2000). Teachers role in providing culturally responsive literacy instruction. *Reading Horizons*, 41(1):1.
- Nieto, S. (1996). *Affirming diversity*. (2nd ed.). New York: Longman Publishers.

- Norris, J.A. (2001). *Phonic faces cards*. Baton Rouge: LA: Elementary. Com
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Nunes, T (Ed.) 1999. *Learning to read: an integrated view from research and practice*. London: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Nuttall, C. (1996). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2002). *Reading for change. Performance and engagement across countries.*, Paris:OECD.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2001). *Knowledge and skills for life. First results from PISA 2000*. Paris:OECD.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2002). *Reading for change. Performance and engagement across countries*. Paris: OECD.
- Ozmen, H. (2008). The influence of computer-assisted instruction on students' conceptual understanding of chemical bonding and attitude toward chemistry: A case for Turkey. *Computers and Education*, 51(1): 423–438.
- Pachtman, A. B, & Wilson, K. A. (2006). What do the kids think? *The Reading Teacher*, 59: 680–684.
- Park, G.P.(2004). Comparison of L2 listening and reading comprehension by university students learning English in Korea. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37: 448-458.
- Pashler, H. (Ed.) (2002) *Stevens' handbook of experimental psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Paul, J. (2004) *Introduction to the philosophies of research and criticism in education and the social sciences*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Perry, N. E., Turner, J. C.& Meyer, D. K. (2006). Classroom contexts for motivating learners. In Alexander, P.A &Winne, P.H. (Eds.): *Handbook of educational psychology*. (2nd ed.). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.327–348.
- Pieterse, G. (2010). Establishing a framework for an integrated, holistic, community based educational support structure. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth.
- Pikulski, J.J. (1998). Improving reading achievement: Major instructional considerations for the primary grades. *Paper presented at the Commissioner's Reading Day Statewide Conference*. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

- Pintrich, P.R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95, 667- 686.
- Pintrich, P. R., Marx, R. W., & Boyle, R. A. (1993). Beyond cold conceptual change: The role of motivational beliefs and classroom contextual factors in the process of conceptual change. *Review of Educational Research*, 63, 167-199.
- Polit, D.F.& Hungler, B.P. (2009). *Essentials of nursing research methods, appraisal and utilization*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Porte, G.K. (2010). *Appraising research in second language learning: A practical approach to critical analysis of quantitative research* (2nd ed.). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Prasse, D.P. (2006). Legal supports for problem-solving systems. *Remedial and Special Education*, 27(1): 7–18.
- Pressley, M. (2006). Reading instruction that works: the case for balanced teaching. (3rded.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Pretorius, E.J. (2002). Reading ability and academic performance in South Africa: Are we fiddling while Rome is burning? *Language Matters*, 33:169–196.
- Pressley, G. M., & Harris, K. H. (2006). Cognitive strategies instruction: From basic research to classroom instruction. In Alexander P.A &Winne,P.H. (Eds.).*Handbook of Educational Psychology* (2nded.). Mahwah: Erlbaum.265–286.
- Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In Kamil, M.L.,Mosenthal, P.,Barr, R. &Pearson, P.D. (Eds.) *Handbook of Reading Research*(Vol. 3). Mahwah: Erlbaum. 545–562.
- Rahman, H. A., Rajab, A., Wahab, S. R. A., Nor, F. M., Zarina, W., Zakaria, W. & Badli, M. A. (2017). Factors affecting motivation in language learning. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 7: 543–547.
- Rajab, A., Zakaria, W. Z. W., Rahman, H. A., Hosni, A. D. & Hassani, S. (2012). Reading anxiety among second language learners. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66: 362–369.
- Rayner, K.,Foorman, B., Perfetti, C.A., Pesetsky, D. &Seidenberg, M.S. (2001).How psychological science informs the teaching of reading. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 2, 31–74.

- Rego, L.M.L.B. (1991). The role of early linguistic awareness in children's reading and spelling. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Oxford University, Oxford.
- Rentsch, J. R., Mot, I. & Abbe, A. (2009). *Identifying the core content and structure of a schema for cultural understanding. (Technical Report 1251)*. Arlington: United States Army Research Institute.
- Rice, Jennifer King. (1999). The impact of class size on instructional strategies and the use of time in high school. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21 (2): 215.
- Richek, M. A., Caldewell, J., Hennings, J.& Lerner, W. (1996). *Reading problems assessment and teaching strategies*. (3rd ed.). Massachusetts. A. Simon and Schuster Company.
- Richards, J.C. & Anderson, N.A. (2003). How do you know? A strategy to help emergent readers make inferences. *The Reading Teachers*, 57(3):290–302.
- Riegler, A. (2007). The radical constructivist dynamics of cognition. In Wallace, B. (Ed.) *The Mind, The Body and The World: Psychology after Cognitivism?* London: Imprint.91–115.
- Riet, M & Durrheim, K. (2006). Putting design into practice: Writing and evaluating research proposals. In Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K.& Painter, D.(Eds.) *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for Social Sciences*, (2nd ed.) CapeTown: UCT Press. 80 –111.
- Ritchie, J & Lewis, J. (2003). Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers. London: Sage.
- Robinson, L. (2003). Technology as a scaffold for emergent literacy: Interactive storybooks for toddlers. *Young Children*, 58, 42–48.
- Rocko, Jonah E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review*, 94 (2): 247–252.
- Rose D (2004). Sequencing and pacing of the hidden curriculum: how indigenous children are left out of the chain. In Miller, J., Marais, A. & Davies,B.(Eds.). *Knowledge, Pedagogy and Society*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Rosenblatt, L. (2005). The acid test for literature teaching. In Luedeke,L. (Ed.).*Making Meaning with Texts: Selected Essays / Louise Rosenblatt* . Portsmouth: Heinemann. 62–71.

- Rothstein, J. (2010). Teacher quality in educational production: Tracking, decay, and student achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 125 (1): 175–214.
- Rubin, A. & Babbie, E. (2010). *Research methods for social work*. (7thed.). USA: Linda Schreiber.
- Rumelhart D.E. (1982). Schemata. The building blocks of cognition. In Guthrie, J. (Ed.). *Comprehension and Teaching: Research Reviews*. Newark: International Reading Association. 3–26.
- Ryan, R. M. & Deci, E.L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54–67.
- Saito, Y., Horwitz, E.K. & Garza, T.J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83 (2): 202–218.
- Sani, A. M. & Zain, Z. (2011). Relating adolescents' second language reading attitudes, self-efficacy for reading, and reading ability in a non-supportive ESL setting. *The Reading Matrix* 11(3): 243–254.
- Scarcella, R.C. & Oxford, R.L. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Scarborough, H.S. (2005). Developmental relationships between language and reading: Reconciling a beautiful hypothesis with some ugly facts. In Catts, H.W. & Kamhi, A.G. (Eds.): *The connections between language and reading disabilities* (pp.). Mahwah: Erlbaum. 3–24.
- Scarborough, H. (1998). Early identification of children at risk for reading disabilities phonological awareness and some other promising predictors. In Shapiro, B., K., Accardo, P.J. & Capute, A.J. (Eds.): *Specific Reading Disability: A View of the Spectrum*. York: York Press. 75–119.
- Schiefele, U. (1999). Interest and learning from text. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 3, 257–279.
- Schunk, D. H. (1996). Self-evaluation and self-regulated learning. *Paper presented at the Graduate School and University Center*, City University of New York.
- Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2002). The development of academic self-efficacy. In Wigfield, A. & Eccles, J.S. (Eds.). *Development of Achievement Motivation*. San Diego: Academic Press. 16–32.

- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9): 9–16.
- Scott, C. (2004). Syntactic ability in children and adolescents with language and learning disabilities. In Berman, R. (Ed.): *Language Development across Childhood and Adolescence*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 107–143.
- Seymour, S. & Walsh, L. (2006). *Essentials of teaching academic reading*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Shanahan, T. & Beck, I. (2006). Effective literacy instruction for English language learners. In August, D. & Shanahan, T. (Eds.). *Developing literacy in second-language learners*. Mahwah: Erlbaum. 415–488.
- Shaywitz, S.E. (1996): Dyslexia. *Scientific American*, 275:98–104.
- Shaywitz S.E. & Shaywitz, B.A. (2005). Dyslexia (Specific Reading Disability). *Biological Psychiatry*; 57:1301–1309.
- Shea, J.A., Arnold, L., & Mann, K.V. (2004). A RIME perspective on the quality and relevance of current and future medical education research. *Academic Medicine*, 79(10): 931-938.
- Skinner, E. A., Wellborn, J. G. & Connell, J. P. (1990). What it takes to do well in school and whether I've got it: A process model of perceived control and children's engagement and achievement in school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82: 22–32.
- Smith, F. (2004). *Understanding reading: A psycholinguistic analysis of reading and learning*. (6th ed.). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Snowden, J.S., Kindell, J., Thompson, J.C., Richardson, A.M. & Neary, D. (2012). Progressive aphasia presenting with deep dyslexia and dysgraphia. *Cortex* (9): 1234–1239.
- Snow, E.C., Burns, S.M. & Griffin, P. (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington: National Academy Press.
- Stanovich, K.E. (2000). *Progress in understanding reading: Scientific foundations and new frontiers*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Storch, S. & Whitehurst, G. J. (2002). Oral language and code-related precursors to reading: Evidence from a longitudinal structural model. *Developmental Psychology*, 38, 934–947.

- Strydom, H. (2005). Ethical aspects of research in the social sciences and human service professions. In: De Vos, A.S. (ed.). *Research at Grassroots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. (3rd ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik. 56–69.
- Suzanne Hidi (2001). Interest, Reading, and Learning: Theoretical and Practical Considerations. *Educational Psychology Review*, Vol. 13, No. 3.
- Sweet, R W. (1997). Don't read, don't tell: Clinton's phony war on illiteracy. *Policy Review*, 83: 38-42.
- Taboada, A., Tonks, S.M., Wigfield, A. & Guthrie, J.T. (2009). Effects of motivational and cognitive variables on reading comprehension. *Reading and Writing*, 22(1): 85–106.
- Talib, J. (2009). Effects of parents' work conditions on children's school achievement: A study of dual-earner families. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 5(3): 170–178.
- Taylor, D. B., Ahlgrim-Delzell, L., & Flowers, C. (2010). A qualitative study of teacher perceptions on using an explicit instruction curriculum to teach early reading skills to students with significant developmental disabilities. *Reading Psychology*, 31, 524-545.
- Taube, K. (1988). Reading acquisition and self-concept Dissertation. Umea: Umea University.
- Tausch, C. (2012). A syntax-based reading intervention for english as second-language learners. The Louisiana State University.
- Thompkins, G.E. (2003). *Literacy for the 21st century*. (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Torppa, M., Lyytinen, P., Erskine, J., Eklund, K. & Lyytinen, H. (2010). Language development, literacy skills, and predictive connections to reading in Finnish children with and without familial risk for dyslexia. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 43, 308–321.
- Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE) (1994). *Education and training policy*. Addis Ababa: TGE.
- Turkington, C. and Harris, J.R. (2006). *The encyclopedia of learning disabilities* (2nd ed.). New York: Facts on File.

- Turner, S.L. & Lapan, R.T. (2005). Evaluation of an intervention to increase non-traditional career interests and career-related self-efficacy among middle-school adolescents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(1): 516–531.
- Turner, J. (1995). The influence of classroom contexts on young children's motivation for literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30:410–441.
- UNESCO. (1998). *Education for All 2000 bulletin*, No. 32. Paris: UNESCO.
- Unrau, N.& Schlackman, J. (2006). Motivation and its relation to reading achievement in an urban middle school. *Journal of Educational Research*, 100, 81–101.
- USAID. (2009). *First principles for early grades reading programs in developing countries*. USA: The International Reading Association in cooperation with the American Institutes for Research under the EQUIP1 LWA.
- USAID. (2007). *Large class sizes in the developing world: What do we know and what can we do?* American Institutes for Research under the EQUIP1 LWA.
- Verhoeven, L. (2000). Components in early second language reading and spelling. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 4, 313–330.
- Verhoeven, L., Reitsma, P.& Siegel, L. (2011). Cognitive and linguistic factors in reading acquisition. *Reading and Writing*, 24, 387–394.
- Walton, M. (1998). *Teaching reading and spelling to dyslexic children*. London: David Fulton.
- Waltz, C., Strickland, O.& Lens. E. (2010). *Measurements in nursing research*. Philadelphia: Davis.
- Welman, C., Kruger, F., & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research methodology*. (3rd ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Wigfield, A. (1997). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation: A developmental perspective. *Educational Psychology Review*, 6(1): 49–78.
- Willis, J. (2007). *Brain-friendly strategies for the inclusion classroom*. Washington D.C.: Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data.
- Wolf, M. & Stoodley, C.J. (2007). *Proust and the squid: the story and science of the reading brain*. New York: Harper.
- Wolf, M. & O'Brien, B. (2001). On issues of time, fluency and intervention. In Fawcett, A. (Ed.) *Dyslexia: Theory and Good Practice*. London: Whurr.

- Wren, S., Litke, B., Jenkins, D., Paynter, S., Watts, J. & Alanis, I. (2001). *The cognitive foundations of learning to read*. Austin, Texas: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, U.S. Department of Education.
- Wristers, K., Francis, D.J., Foorman, B.R., Fletcher, J.M. & Swank, P.R. (2000). Growth in precursor reading skills: Do low-achieving and IQ-discrepant readers develop differently?
- Yazdanpanah, K.H. (2007). The effect of background knowledge and reading comprehension test items on male and female performance. *The Reading Matrix*, 7: 64-80.
- Yirgashewa Bekele (2013). Effect of prompt letter-naming accuracy on early childhood learning to read Amharic: *Proceedings of the National Symposium on Establishing, Enhancing and Sustaining Quality Practices in Education* 26&27 April, 2013 Wollega University, Nekemte, Ethiopia.
- Young D. (2000). An investigation into the Relationship between L2 Reading Anxiety and L2 Reading Comprehension, and Self-Reported Level of Comprehension Topic Familiarity Features of an L2 Text and Reading Ability in the L1 and L2. Ron Leow & Cristina Sanz. (Eds.) *Current Research on the Acquisition of Spanish*. Summerville: Cascadilla Press. 15-33.
- Yuanfang, Y. (2009). A study of foreign language learning motivation and achievement: from a perspective of socio-cultural theory. *CELEA Journal*, 32 (3): 87–97.
- Zbornik, J.J. & Wallbrown, F.H. (1991). The development and validation of a scale to measure reading anxiety. *Reading Improvement*, 28(1): 2-13.
- Zhang, L. (2006). The psycholinguistic schema theory and ESL reading methodology. In *Teaching English in China*, 29 (3). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Zins, J. E., Bloodworth, M. R. Weissberg, R. P. & Walberg, H. J. (2004). The scientific base linking social and emotional learning to school success. In Zins, J., Weissberg, R., Wang, M. & Walberg, H.J. (Eds.). *Building Academic Success on Social and Emotional Learning*. New York: Teachers College Press. 3–22.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: PROOF OF PROPOSAL APPROVAL



A I R M A I L

SONA B D MR
DILLA UNIVERSITY
P O BOX 419
DILLA
ETHIOPIA

STUDENT NUMBER : 4902-435-3
ENQUIRIES : mandd@unisa.ac.za
FAX : (012) 429-4150
2015-02-06

Dear Student

I have pleasure in informing you that your research proposal has been approved. Please register and pay online for the research component of the degree for the 2015 academic year. Registration for 2015 commenced on 24 November 2014 and closes on 27 March 2015. Please refer to the Unisa website: www.unisa.ac.za/studentfunding if you are interested in applying for a postgraduate bursary. The closing date for the bursaries is 14 February 2015.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "C. M. D.", written over a horizontal line.

for Registrar (Acting)



University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone +27 12 429 3111. Facsimile +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX 2: PROOF OF ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNISA



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

17 August 2016

Ref : 2016/08/17/49024353/26/MC

Student : Mr BD Sona

Student Number : 49024353

Dear Mr Sona

Decision: Ethics Approval

Researcher: Mr BD Sona
Tel: +251 4633 13859
Email: brishb@yahoo.com

Supervisor: Dr. R Tabane
College of Education
Department of Psychology of Education
Tel: +2712 429 2056
Email: tabanrj@unisa.ac.za

Proposal: The effect of a cognitive foundation of learning to read on the reading skills of Grade 3 learners: The case of selected primary schools in Hawassa and Dilla towns, SNNPR, Ethiopia

Qualification: D Ed in Psychology of Education

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for the duration of the research.

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee on 17 August 2016.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the College of Education Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the*



University of South Africa
Pretorius Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 39, UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.

- 3) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Note:

The reference number **2016/08/17/49024353/26/MC** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the College of Education RERC.

Kind regards,

Dr M Claassens
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
mcdtc@netactive.co.za
mcdtc@netactive.co.za



Prof VI McKay
EXECUTIVE DEAN

Approval template 2014



University of Limpopo
Tlokweng Campus, P.O. Box 1020, Tlokweng, 0720
Tel: +27 15 709 1111 Fax: +27 15 709 1112
Email: info@unilim.ac.za Website: www.unilim.ac.za

APPENDIX 3: PERMISSION LETTER TO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The Executive Manager

Department of Education,City Administration, City

Dear Sir/Madam

Letter to Request Permission to conduct research in selected primary schools

My name is Berhanu Dendena, a student at the University of South Africa. I want to apply for permission to conduct research in your school for my DEd in Psychology of Education study. The purpose of the study will be investigating “The aim of this study will be to investigate the effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia.” To this effect, I will employ a mixed-method, consisting of a quasi-experimental design and a qualitative case study design.

The study will investigate how Grade 3 learners can be effectively included in education system. The benefits of the study are that educators will be equipped with knowledge so as to be able to face and overcome challenges in the inclusion of learners with reading difficulties in the mainstream schools. The research might also improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school- based supports provided for children with reading difficulties in schools.

The study will be conducted in 10 schools. Five schools will be selected from Dilla city administration so as to form experimental group. Dilla city administration is the capital city of Gedeo Zone. Whereas the other five schools will be selected from Hawassa city administration to form control group. Hawassa city administration is the capital city of South Nation Nationalities and People region. Thus, I would like to request your permission to conduct research in the selected schools oftown. Since the study records information from groups of participants in an educational setting where participants are not identified there is no potential risks to anyone. Feedback procedure will entail disseminating the findings of the study through hard copy, conference and training to the participating schools as well as the community.

I hope my application will be taken into consideration.

Yours faithfully

Berhanu Dendena Sona

Institute of Education

[Tel:+251463312097](tel:+251463312097) Cell number: 00251911932303/ 00251913121960

Email. 49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za/ brishb@yahoo.com

Supervisor

Dr. Tabane, Ramondungoane

Department: Psychology of Education

Telephone: (012) 3524139 Email: tabanrj@unisa.ac.za



APPENDIX 4: PERMISSION LETTER TO SCHOOLS

... .. School

Dear Sir/Madam

Letter to Request Permission to conduct research in your schools

My name is Berhanu Dendena, a student at the University of South Africa. I want to apply for permission to conduct research in your school for my DEd in Psychology of Education study. The purpose of the study will be investigating the effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia. To this effect, I will employ a mixed-method, consisting of a quasi-experimental design and a qualitative case study design. The study will entail how Grade 3 learners can be effectively included in education system. The benefits of the study are that educators will be equipped with knowledge so as to be able to face and overcome challenges in the inclusion of learners with reading difficulties in the mainstream schools. The research might also improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school- based supports provided for children with reading difficulties in schools.

The study will be conducted in 10 schools. Five schools will be selected from Dilla city administration so as to form experimental group. Dilla city administration is the capital city of Gedeo Zone. Whereas the other five schools will be selected from Hawassa city administration to form control group. Hawassa city administration is the capital city of South Nation Nationalities and People region. Thus, I would like to request your permission to conduct research in the selected schools oftown. Your school has been selected for the study because it is accessible to the researcher so as to carry out the study. Since the study records information from groups of participants in an educational setting where participants are not identified there is no potential risks to anyone. Feedback procedure will entail disseminating the findings of the study through hard copy, conference and training to the participating schools as well as the community.

I hope my application will be taken into consideration.

Yours faithfully

Berhanu Dendena Sona

Institute of Education

[Tel:+251463312097](tel:+251463312097) Cell number: 00251911932303/ 00251913121960

Email. 49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za/ brishb@yahoo.com

Supervisor

Dr. Tabane, Ramondungoane

Department: Psychology of Education

Telephone: (012) 3524139 Email: tabanrj@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX 5: PERMISSION LETTER TO TEACHERS TO TAKE PART IN INTERVIEW

... .. School

Dear Teacher

Letter to Request Permission to conduct interview with you

My name is Berhanu Dendena, a DEd student at the University of South Africa. The title of my study is “The effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia.” To this effect, I will employ a mixed-method, consisting of a quasi-experimental design and a qualitative case study design. The study will entail how Grade 3 learners can be effectively included in education system. The benefits of the study are that educators will be equipped with knowledge so as to be able to face and overcome challenges in the inclusion of learners with reading difficulties in the mainstream schools. The research might also improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school- based supports provided for children with reading difficulties in schools.

The study will be conducted in 10 schools. Five schools will be selected from Dilla city administration so as to form experimental group. Whereas the other five schools will be selected from Hawassa city administration to form control group. Your contribution in the success of this study is very valuable and due to this fact, you are kindly requested to participate in this research. I will be visiting your school from the 1st October to 30th December 2016. Therefore, you can participate on the interview only for one day for an hour. During the interview, you will be expected to answer questions on how you teach reading skill to Grade 3 learners.

While carrying out the interviews you should feel free to expand on the discussion topic as well as other related aspects that could enrich this topic. If during the interview you feel that you are not in a position to respond to some questions, you are allowed to say so and indicate that we should move on to the next one. Interviews will be recorded. Participation is voluntary and there will be no penalty if you decide not to participate. In order to protect your identity, a code number will be assigned to you. All data collected will be kept securely in order to protect interviewee identity. Since the study records information from groups of participants in an educational setting where participants are not identified, there is no potential risk to anyone. Feedback procedure will entail disseminating the findings of the study through hard copy, conference and training to the participating schools as well as the community.

Thus, I am asking for your willingness to participate in the interview

Yours faithfully

Berhanu Dendena Sona

Institute of Education

[Tel:+251463312097](tel:+251463312097) Cell number: 00251911932303/ 00251913121960

Email. 49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za/brishb@yahoo.com

APPENDIX 6: PERMISSION LETTER TO PARENT TO ALLOW YOUR CHILD IN A STUDY

Dear Sir/Madam

Letter to Request your Permission to allow your child to participate in a study

My name is Berhanu Dendena. I am a student at University of South Africa studying for a DEd in Psychology of Education. The purpose of the study will be investigating the effect of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skills of Grade 3 learners. The study will improve the instructional approach and school - based supports provided for learners with reading difficulties.

The study will entail how Grade 3 learners can be effectively included in education system. The benefits of the study are that educators will be equipped with knowledge so as to be able to face and overcome challenges in the inclusion of learners with reading difficulties in the mainstream schools. The research might also improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school- based supports provided for children with reading difficulties in schools.

Therefore, I am going to collect information for this study. The study will be conducted in 10 schools from the 1st October to 30th December 2016. Five schools will be selected from Dilla city administration where as the other five schools will be selected from Hawassa city administration. The contribution of your child is very valuable to the success of this study. Due to this fact, you are kindly requested to allow your child participate in this research to write a small test which will take an hour and also talk to me in an interview about how reading skills in English is taught in his/her class.

While carrying out the interviews, which will take 20 minutes, the child is free to speak what he/she feels about how reading skill is taught to him/her. Interviews will be recorded. Participation is voluntary and there will be no penalty if the child decides not to participate. In order to protect the identity of the child, a code number will be assigned. All data collected will be kept securely in order to protect interviewee identity. You will also receive a signed copy of assent. Since the study records information from groups of participants in an educational setting where participants are not identified, there is no potential risks to anyone. Feedback procedure will entail disseminating the findings of the study through hard copy, conference and training to the participating schools as well as the community.

Thus, I am asking for your permission to allow your child participate in the study.

Yours faithfully

Berhanu Dendena Sona
Institute of Education

Tel: +251463312097 Cell number: 00251911932303/ 00251913121960

Email. 49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za / brishb@yahoo.com

Supervisor Dr. Tabane, Ramondungoane

Department: Psychology of Education Telephone: 012) 3524139 Email:

tabanrj@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX 7: PERMISSION LETTER TO LEARNER TO TAKE PART IN THE STUDY

... .. School

Dear learner

Letter to Request Permission to participate you in a research

My name is Berhanu Dendena. I am a student at University of South Africa. I am studying how to improve the reading skill of Grade 3 learners. Your participation in this study is very important. Thus, I will like you to participate in the study to write a small test which will take an hour and also talk to me in an interview about how you are taught reading skills in English in your class. Since, the result of the study will help you to enhance your reading skill; you will be benefited from the study.

I will be visiting your school from the 1st October to 30th December 2016. The test will take an hour. The Interviews will take only 20 minutes on another day. During the interview, you will answer questions on how reading skill is taught to you. If you are not interested to respond to some questions, you are allowed to leave and answer which you like. Interviews will be recorded. Participation is voluntary and there will be no penalty if you decide not to participate. There is no potential risk to any one since, I will use a code number keep the information securely In order to protect your identity. Feedback procedure will entail disseminating the findings of the study through hard copy, conference and training to the participating schools as well as the community. Thus, I am asking for your willingness to participate in the interview.

Yours faithfully

Berhanu Dendena Sona

Institute of Education

Tel:+251463312097 Cell number: 00251911932303/ 00251913121960

Email. 49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za/ brishb@yahoo.com

Supervisor

Dr. Tabane, Ramondungoane

Department: Psychology of Education

Telephone: (012) 3524139

Email: tabanrj@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX 8: PERMISSION LETTER TO PARENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY

Dear Sir/Madam

Letter to Request Permission to conduct interview with you.

My name is Berhanu Dendena I am a student at University of South Africa studying for a DEd in Psychology of Education. The purpose of the study will be investigating the effect of Cognitive foundation of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skills of Grade 3 learners. The study will improve the instructional approach and school - based supports provided for learners with reading difficulties.

Therefore, I am going to collect information for the study. The study will be conducted in 10 schools. Five schools will be selected from Dilla city administration where as the

other five schools will be selected from Hawassa city administration. Your contribution in is very valuable to the success of this study. Due to this fact, you are kindly requested to participate in this research as an interview participant at_____ school.

I will be visiting the school of from the 1st October to 30th December 2016. Thus, you can choose one suitable day and give me an appointment for an interview. During the interview, you will be expected to answer questions on how reading skill is taught to your child. Interviews to be carried out will take a period of not more than an hour. While carrying out the interviews you should feel free to expand on the discussion topic as well as other related aspects that could enrich this topic. If during the interview you feel that you are not interested to respond to some questions, you are allowed to say so and indicate that we should move on to the next one. Interviews will be recorded. Participation is voluntary and there will be no penalty if you decide not to participate. There is no potential risk to any one since, I will use a code number keep the information securely In order to protect your identity. Feedback procedure will entail disseminating the findings of the study through hard copy, conference and training to the participating schools as well as the community.

Thus, I am asking for your willingness to participate in the interview.

Yours faithfully

Berhanu Dendena Sona

Institute of Education

[Tel:+251463312097](tel:+251463312097) Cell number: 00251911932303/ 00251913121960

Email. [49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za/](mailto:49024353@mylife.unisa.ac.za) brishb@yahoo.com

Supervisor

Dr. Tabane, Ramondungoane

Department: Psychology of Education

Telephone: (012) 3524139

Email: tabanri@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX 9: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM SNNPR GOVERNMENT EDUCATION BUREAU TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY

በደ/ብ/ብ/ሕ/ክ/ መንግሥት ጉምረት ቢሮ
የመምህራንና የትምህርት ልማት ዋና የሥራ ሂደት
SNNPRS EDUCATION BUREAU
Teachers and Education Leaders Development Core process

006/h90-511/82
ተገ 25/Oct/2016 35

To: Mr. Berhanu Dendena Sona

Dear Sir

Subject: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

Your application to conduct research was received on 21/October/2016. The title of your study is "The effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the Reading Skill of Grade 3 Learners at Selected Primary schools in Hawasa & Dilla cities, SNNPR Ethiopia." Your research topic is the timely response for what we have been currently challenged at early grade reading skills.

The purpose of your study and the research design you sought to follow give an impression that the outcomes of your findings and recommendations will improve the reading instructional approach for early grade learners. Thus, your request has been approved.

Please, with this supportive letter, discuss with Sidama Zone Education Department, Hawassa City Administration Education Department and Dilla City Administration Education Department for further support you are seeking. You are also requested to adhere to your University's research ethics as indicated in your research ethics document.

Therefore, I grant permission to you to carry out your research at 10 selected primary schools found in Hawassa and Dilla City on condition that no disturbance will occur to the normal teaching learning programs of the schools.

I wish all the best in your study

Thank you in advance.

በደ/ብ/ብ/ሕ/ክ/ መንግሥት ጉምረት ቢሮ
የመምህራንና የትምህርት ልማት ዋና የሥራ ሂደት
SNNPRS EDUCATION BUREAU
Teachers and Education Leaders Development Core process

CC

❖ Teachers & Edu/Leaders



☎ 04-62-20-54-90

ፋክስ / fax 0462207187

0462204571

ፖ.ሣ.ቱ

✉ 506 ህዋሃ
POB

HAWASSA

APPENDIX 10: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM SIDAMA ZONE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT PILOT STUDY


Sidaamu Zoone Gashshoodi
Sidaamu Zoone Roosu Biddishsa
በኢትዮጵያ የትምህርት ሚኒስቴር
የሲዳሞ ምዕራባዊ ትምህርት ዞን

Ref. No: ED/12-704/12

Date: October 25/2016

To: Mr. Berhanu Dendena Sona

Dear Sir

Subject: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Pilot Study

You requested our office to give you permission to conduct pilot study on "*Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia.*" As you indicated, the pilot study will be conducted at two selected primary schools found in Sidama zone, SNNPR for the main research of your PhD study. I realized that the aim of this study will be to examine the research process and tools of data collection.

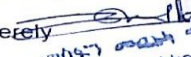
Concerning the ethical issues, you stated that the information will be recorded from groups of participants in an educational setting where they are not identified and there is no potential risk to anyone.

Therefore, I grant permission to you to carry out your pilot study at two selected primary schools found in Sidama zone, SNNPR specifically in Aposto and Chuko towns on condition that:

- No disturbance will cause to the teaching and learning process of the schools.
- Make thoroughly arrangements with the teachers for Grade 3; so that you can utilize the same time learners have to read in their respective classes.
- Approach the teachers and the persons concern in a humble way to assist you by answering your interview and questionnaires.
- A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the schools principals that would indicate the researcher has been granted permission from Sidama zone Education Office, SNNPR to conduct the study.

I wish all the best in your study

Sincerely,


Mesfin Meshukka Miregiou
የመምህራን ጥያቄ ማስፈጸሚያ
ዶ/ር/ሶስተኛ/ሀ/ዘ/የወርሃ/የወርሃ/የወርሃ



APPENDIX 11: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM HAWASSA CITY ADMINISTRATION EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY

በደቡብ ብሔር ብሔረሰቦችና ሕዝቦች ክልል መንግስት
የሀዋሳ ከተማ አስተዳደር
ትምህርት መምሪያ

Southern Nations, Nationalities and peoples Regional
Government Hawassa City Administration Education
Department



ቁጥር _____
Ref No. 93715/4
ቀን _____
Date 25/October/2016

To: Mr. Berhanu Dendena Sona

Dear Sir

Subject: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

You requested our office to give you permission to conduct research at five selected primary schools found in Hawassa town for the fulfillment of your PhD Degree. The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia.

Concerning the ethical issues, you stated that the information will be recorded from groups of participants in an educational setting where they are not identified and there is no potential risk to anyone. The information will be used only for academic purposes.

Therefore, I grant permission to you to carry out your research at five selected primary schools found in Hawassa City on condition that:

- No disturbance will cause to the teaching and learning process of the schools.
- Make thoroughly arrangements with the teachers for Grade 3; so that you can utilize the same time learners have to read in their respective classes.
- Approach the teachers and the persons concern in a humble way to assist you by answering your questionnaires.
- A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the schools principals that would indicate the researcher has been granted permission from Hawassa City Administration Education Office to conduct the study.

I wish all the best in your study

Thank you in advance






አክሊሉ አበበ ጋርሴ
Aklilu Abebe Garse
የመማር ማስተማርና የህዝብ
ዋና ሥራ ገደት
የአዩ ዓለት ትምህርት ሰርዛለት
Special Needs' Education Specialist

ፖ.ሣ.ቁ. _____
፳ 046-2-21-47-58 ፋክስ 0462-20-74-43
"አባክምን ምላሽ ሲጽፉ የደብዳቤውን ቁጥር አይርሱ"

P.O.Box _____

APPENDIX 12: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM GEDEO ZONE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY

| | | |
|---|--|---|
|  ትምህርት ለሁሉም ይዳረስ በደ/ብ/ብ/ሕ/ነ/መንግሥት የጌዴዔ ዞን ትምህርት መምሪያ |  S.N.N.P.R.S GEDEO ZONE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTEMENT |  |
|---|--|---|

ቁጥር 9/1032/152/31
Ref.No Nov 8/2016
ቀን _____
Date _____

To: Mr. Berhanu Dendena Sona
Dear Sir

Subject: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research


You requested our office to give you permission to conduct research at selected primary schools found in Dilla town, Gedeo zone, SNNPR for the fulfillment of your PhD Degree. I realized that the aim of this study will be to investigate the effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia. You also indicated on your application letter that the research may improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school-based supports provided for children with reading difficulties in schools.

Concerning the ethical issues, you stated that the information will be recorded from groups of participants in an educational setting where they are not identified and there is no potential risk to anyone. The information will be used only for academic purposes.

Therefore, I grant permission to you to carry out your research at five selected primary schools found in Dilla City on condition that:

- a) NO disturbance will cause to the teaching and learning process of the schools
- b) Make thoroughly arrangements with the teachers for Grade 3; so that you can utilize the same time learners have to read in their respective classes.
- c) Approach the teachers and the persons concern in a humble way to assist you by answering your questionnaires.
- d) A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the schools principals that would indicate the researcher has been granted permission from Gedo Zone Education Departement to conduct the study.

I wish all the best in your study
Thank you in advance


የጌዴዔ ዞን መምሪያ
የትምህርት ሚኒስቴር
የሕዝብ አገልግሎት
የጌዴዔ ዞን መምሪያ
የትምህርት ሚኒስቴር
የሕዝብ አገልግሎት

ገዢ መልስ በግብርና ዘርፍ የሚገኝ ደብዳቤ ቁጥር ይጥቀስ

Fax 046-331 0726 Tel 046-331 26 63

ለትምህርት ጥራት ሁላችንም እንግባ!!

APPENDIX 13: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM DILLA CITY ADMINISTRATION EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CONDUCT MAIN STUDY

SNNPR GOVERNMENT GEDEO ZONE



DILLA CITY ADMINISTRATION
EDUCATION OFFICE

Ref. No: 01/2310/152/35

Date: November 09/2016

To: Mr. Berhanu Dendena Sona

Dear Sir

Subject: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

You requested our office to give you permission to conduct research at selected primary schools found in Dilla town, Gedeo zone, SNNPR for the fulfillment of your PhD Degree. I realized that the aim of this study will be to investigate the effect of a Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read (CFLR) on the reading skill of Grade 3 learners at selected primary schools in southern Ethiopia. You also indicated on your application letter that the research may improve the functionality of the instructional approach and school-based supports provided for children with reading difficulties in schools.

Concerning the ethical issues, you stated that the information will be recorded from groups of participants in an educational setting where they are not identified and there is no potential risk to anyone. The information will be used only for academic purposes.

Therefore, I grant permission to you to carry out your research at five selected primary schools found in Dilla City on condition that:

- No disturbance will cause to the teaching and learning process of the schools.
- Make thoroughly arrangements with the teachers for Grade 3; so that you can utilize the same time learners have to read in their respective classes.
- Approach the teachers and the persons concern in a humble way to assist you by answering your questionnaires.
- A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the schools principals that would indicate the researcher has been granted permission from Dilla City Administration Education Office to conduct the study.

I wish all the best in your study

Thank you in advance

Tadesse Germamo Bedesi
Head of Education Office



+251463310615

APPENDIX 14: ACHIEVEMENT TEST

SUBJECT: English

LEVEL: Grade 3

TOPICS COVERED: Reading Comprehension, Language Comprehension, Decoding, Background knowledge, Linguistic Knowledge, Phonology, Semantics, Syntax, Cipher Knowledge, Lexical Knowledge, Knowledge of Alphabetical Principle, Letter Knowledge and Concept about Print.

Instruction: Dear students read the following passage carefully and give answer for the questions.

My little Sister

My name is Aster. My little sister, Marta, is seven years old. She is five years younger than I am. Since I am the older, I always try to show my little sister the right things to do. Big sisters must teach their little sister what they must and must not do.

I walk Marta to school on her first day. I try to help her understand school rules. I tell Marta it is not nice to shout at school. I say “Marta, you must not shout. You must speak quietly.” Marta likes to talk loudly and play with friends. I tell her that she cannot do this in class.

When I get to Marta’s classroom, she is running around with her friends. I tell Marta that good students mustn’t do things like that. Good students must stay in their seats, listen carefully, speak quietly and study.

I know that Marta will do what is right because she is a good student. Good students work hard and follow the rules. Teachers like good students and will be true friends with them. Therefore, teachers like Marta and they will be her friends. Schools would like to reward good students since they are respected in the school. Other students also like to follow good students. Furthermore, good students will advice their classmates to keep the rule of schools and give respect to their teachers. Thus, Marta is a good student and her school will reward her.

Source: English for Ethiopia Student book: Grade Three. Page 47

I. Multiple Choice Items

Instruction: Choose the best answer for the following questions based on the story. Write the letter of each correct answer on the space provided.

- _____ 1. Who is the elder sister?
A. Ster B. Marta C. Mahlet
- _____ 2. Who is the younger sister?
A. Ster B. Ayantu C. Marta
- _____ 3. How old is Aster?
A. 5 years old B. 7years old C. 12years old
- _____ 4. What gig sisters must teach their little sister?
A. What they must B. What they must not do C. Both
- _____ 5. What things do good students do in their classroom?
A. Shouting B. Running C. Respecting
- _____ 6. Why schools would like to reward good students? Because;
A. They respect the rule of a school. C. They talk loudly in the school.
B. They disturb in the school.
- _____ 7. Why Marta likes to talk loudly in the school?
A. She does not know the rule of the school. C. She is very bad student.
B. She is not good student.
- _____ 8. Good students must not do one of the following in their classroom.
Stay in their seats B. Listen carefully C. Speak loudly
- _____ 9. Who gets in to Marta's classroom and talks to her?
Marta's teacher B. Marta's sister C. Marta's friends
- _____ 10. Why other students like to follow good students in their school?
The school reward bad students C. The school prize good students.
The school punishes good students

II. True or False Items

Instruction: For the following questions if the statement is correct say "True" and if the statement is incorrect say "False."

- _____ 11. Understanding school rules is not important.
- _____ 12. Good students will advise their classmates to keep the rule of schools.
- _____ 13. Students must give respect to their teachers.
- _____ 14. The school rewards disciplined students.
- _____ 15. Good students work hard and follow the rules.

III. Matching Items

Instruction: In the following chart, please, write what you "must do" and "Must not do" at your home.

| No | Must do | Must not do |
|----|---------|-------------|
| 16 | | |
| 17 | | |
| 18 | | |
| 19 | | |
| 20 | | |

IV. Matching Items

Instruction: For the following words found under column "A," please, find their opposite meaning from the words labelled under column "B."

| A | B |
|-----------------|----------|
| _____ 21. Good | A. Quite |
| _____ 22. Old | B. Slow |
| _____ 23. Big | C. Bad |
| _____ 24. Shout | D. Young |
| _____ 25. Fast | E. Small |

V. Matching Items

Instruction: For the following words found under column "A," please, find their similar meaning from the words labelled under column "B."

| A | B |
|-------------------|--------------|
| _____ 26. Rule | A. Value |
| _____ 27. Respect | B. Law |
| _____ 28. Nice | C. Prize |
| _____ 29. Reward | D. companion |
| _____ 30. Friend | E. Fine |

VI. Multiple Choice

Instruction: From the following group of words please, select the pseudo words (wrong words)

| | | |
|------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| _____ 31. A. Fork | B. Fook | C. Food |
| _____ 32. A. Sack | B. Sick | C. Sook |
| _____ 33. A. Can | B. Cap | C. Cam |
| _____ 34. A. Sook | B. Look | C. Cook |
| _____ 35. A. foot ball | B. Hand ball | C. Head ball |

VII. Matching Item

Match the following picture with the sentences found below. Please, write the letter of the picture on the blank space.



Source: English for Ethiopia Student book: Grade Three. Page 12

- _____ 36. Who are playing marbles? _____ 37. Who are playing catches?
 _____ 38. Who are playing jacks _____ 39. Who are playing football? _____ 40.
 Who are jumping a rope?

VIII. Multiple Choices

Dear students from the given words, please, select five of them which begin with consonants and put under column "A" and also put those begin with vowels under column "B."

| | | | | | |
|---------|----------|-----------|--------|----------|--------|
| Student | Elephant | Ice-cream | Honest | Cattle | Orange |
| Sleep | Teacher | Cake | Parrot | Umbrella | Apple |

| No. | Consonants (A) | Vowels (B) |
|-----|----------------|------------|
| 41 | | |
| 42 | | |
| 43 | | |
| 44 | | |
| 45 | | |

VIII. Filling the Blank

Instruction: Dear students, please, fill the missing letters to make the words meaningful.

46. G__ d 47. Mo_h_r 48. B__ve 49. E_h_opia 50. F__t

APPENDIX- 15: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

1. What is reading in English lesson?
2. What is your understanding of reading difficulty?
3. What is your understanding of the phrase “self-esteem”?
4. Do you think that reading difficulty affect the self-esteem of learners? Why?
5. Do you think that reading difficulty affect the success of learners in their education? Why?
6. Did you observe any reading difficult on your learners? If yes, what was the cause?
7. What strategies do learners use in reading?
8. Did you observe low educational performance of learners as result of poor reading skills?
9. Do you think it is good to incorporate the instruction of reading skill in English lessons?
10. To what extent does the instruction of reading skills get emphasis in English lesson?
11. What instructional strategy do you use to enhance the reading skills in English lesson?
12. In your understanding, can the usual instructional approach help to improve the reading skills of early grade learners?
13. Do you have any challenge in using the usual instructional approach?
14. What is the best way to incorporate the instruction of reading skills in English lesson?
15. What is your understanding of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read?
16. Do you think this form of teaching is effective in enhancing reading skills of learners?
17. What are the challenges, if any, that can be associated with a Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read in teaching reading skills?
18. Do you think the National Curriculum gives suitable direction to English language teachers to enhance the reading skills of early grade learners?
19. What do you advise to English teachers to implement Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read to teach reading skills?

APPENDIX 16: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR LEARNERS

1. What is reading in English lesson?
2. What is your understanding of reading skill in English lesson?
3. What is your understanding of reading difficulty?
4. What is your understanding of the phrase “self-esteem”?
5. Do you think that reading difficulty affect the self-esteem of learners? Why?
6. Do you think that reading difficulty affect the success of learners in their education? Why?
7. Did you observe any reading difficult on your learner? If yes, what was the cause?
8. What strategies do you use in reading? What about your friends?
9. Did you observe low educational performance of learners as result of poor reading skills?
10. Do you think it is good to incorporate the instruction of reading skill in English lesson?
11. To what extent does the instruction of reading skills get emphasis in English lesson?
12. What instructional strategy does your teacher use to enhance the reading skills of learners in English lesson?
13. In your understanding, can the usual instructional approach used by the teachers help to improve your reading skills of early grade learner?
14. Do you have any challenge on the usual instructional approach used by your teacher?
15. What way do you suggest to incorporate the instruction of reading skills in English lesson?
16. What is your understanding of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read?
17. Do you think this form of teaching is effective in enhancing your reading skills?
18. What are the challenges, if any, that can be associated with a Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read in teaching reading skills?
19. What is your attitude towards a Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read in teaching reading skills?
20. Do you think the English language text book of grade 3 helps to improve your reading skills?

APPENDIX- 17: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARENTS

1. What is reading in your understanding?
2. What is your understanding of reading skill in English lesson?
3. What is your understanding of reading difficulty?
4. What is your understanding of the phrase “self-esteem”?
5. Do you think that reading difficulty affect the self-esteem of learners? Why?
6. Do you think that reading difficulty affect the success of learners in their education? Why?
7. Did you observe any reading difficult on your child? If yes, what was the cause?
8. What strategies does your child use in reading? What about your friends?
9. Did you observe low educational performance of learners as result of poor reading skills?
10. Do you think it is good to incorporate the instruction of reading skill in English lesson?
11. To what extent does the instruction of reading skills get emphasis in English lesson?
12. What instructional strategy does teachers of your child use to enhance the reading skills of your child in English lesson?
13. In your understanding, can the usual instructional approach used by the teachers help to improve your reading skills of early grade learner?
14. Do you have any challenge on the usual instructional approach used by your teacher?
15. What way do you suggest to incorporate the instruction of reading skills in English lesson?
16. What is your understanding of Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read?
17. Do you think this form of teaching is effective in enhancing your reading skills?
18. What are the challenges, if any, that can be associated with a Cognitive Foundation of Learning to Read in teaching reading skills?
19. Do you think the English language text book of grade 3 helps to improve your reading skills?

APPENDIX 18: QUESTIONNAIRE ON BACKGROUND OF LEARNERS WHO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY.

| | |
|--|------|
| DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF A LEARNER | |
| AGE : _____ | |
| LEARNER CODE: _____ | |
| GENDER CPDE: _____ | |
| INSTRUCTIONS: Answer the following questions by only ticking (✓) the correct option from those provided. | |
| Parentage status | Mark |
| Living with both parents | |
| Living with single parent | |
| live with guardian | |
| No parents | |
| Other: _____ | |
| Employment status of parent(s) | |
| Government employed | |
| Non-government employed | |
| Self-employed | |
| Parent unemployed | |
| Other: _____ | |
| Education level of parent(s) | |
| Ma degree & above | |
| BA degree | |
| College diploma | |
| High school level | |
| Primary school | |
| Illiterate (No reading & Writing) | |
| Other: _____ | |
| Access at home | |
| Have reading books | |
| Have no reading books | |
| Have enough time to read | |
| Have no enough time to read | |
| Have someone to support on reading at home | |
| Have no anyone to support on reading at home | |
| Have a computer at home | |
| Do not have a computer at home | |
| Parents motivate learning at home | |
| Parents motivate learning at home | |
| Other: _____ | |

APPENDIX 19: QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER'S PROFILE INSTRUCTIONS

You are kindly requested to complete both sections of the form, section A and B.

The questions are formulated in such a manner that you can provide a one-word (or just a number) written response or choose one of the options provided; If possible, you are requested to answer all questions; Your responses to this questionnaire will form part of data for the current study. All your responses will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity.

Teacher profile

1.1 Age: _____

1.2 Gender: _____

1.3 The category and type of qualification you have:

1.3.1 Certificate in English language teaching _____

1.3.2 Diploma in English language teaching _____

1.3.3 BA degree in English language teaching _____

1.3.4 MA degree in English language teaching _____

1.4 What is your teaching experience in subject(s) mentioned in section 1.3

(Please only specify in years, e.g., 1yr, 2yrs, 3yrs, etc.): _____

1.5 Please, mention additional in-service training taken (e.g.,

1.5.1 Continuous Professional Development _____

1.5.2 Higher Diploma for Teachers _____

1.5.3 Seminars/ Workshop on Reading skills improvement _____

1.6 Weekly teaching load carried by English language teachers: _____

1.7 The weekly teaching load indicated in section 1.6 can be described as

1.7.1 Normal Load _____

1.7.2 Moderately loaded _____

1.7.3 Severely loaded _____

APPENDIX- 20: QUESTIONNAIRE ON SCHOOL PROFILE

1. School code: _____.
2. School ownership (Public or Private): _____.
3. Location of the school (Town, City or Rural): _____.
4. The total number of learners currently attending English lesson in grade 3:_____
5. The number of students in one classroom:_____
6. Student-teachers ratio (Especially grade 3 learners with their English language teachers):_____
7. Suitability of classrooms for the reading instruction (Overcrowded, Exposed to noise, presence of enough light etc.):_____
8. Student-book ratio (Specially, grade 3 learners with English reading books):
9. What facilities does the school have to enhance the reading skills of early grade learners? (e.g., School library with sufficient reading books, language laboratory etc.)_____
10. Teachers motivational level (Especially, with regard to their salary, work place condition, school leadership system, learners related factor e.g., disruptiveness, less motivated to learn etc.)_____

APPENDIX- 21: OBSERVATION CHECK LIST FOR TEACHERS

1. The teacher gives equal weight and emphasis to reading skills in English lesson.
2. The teacher motivates learners to be engaged in reading activities.
3. The teacher provides appropriately levelled passage to learners to read and then ask some explicit, detailed questions about the content of the text.
4. Phonological Awareness — The teacher provides a variety of tasks to learners to demonstrate awareness of rhyme, alliteration, and phoneme awareness.
5. Phonics — The teacher provides a variety of tasks to learners to spell words and identify words that share certain characteristics with target words.
6. Oral Reading Accuracy — The teacher orders learners to read passage aloud, and makes notes of oral reading "miscues"
7. Word Synonyms — The teacher gives synonyms words to the learners to demonstrate through matching.
8. Word Recognition — The teacher presents regular and irregular words from increasingly difficult lists of words to learners to identify correctly
9. Consonant Sounds — The teacher presents different words to the learners so as to identify the sounds (phonemes) that correspond to different letters (consonants).
10. Short Vowel Sounds — The teacher provides a various activities to the learners so as to identify a variety of different words that all contain the same short vowel sound
11. Passage Fluency — The teacher monitors oral reading rate and accuracy while the learners read passages of text aloud while
12. Word Opposites— The teacher asks learners to match antonyms to show their vocabulary knowledge.
13. Multiple Meanings —The teacher gives words and asks learners to provide at least two independent meanings for each word given.
14. Reading Comprehension — The teacher presents written words with pictures the learners, then order them to must match written words with pictures.
15. Written Expression — The teacher g gives orders to the learners to write the alphabet and dictated words quickly and accurately.

APPENDIX 22: OBSERVATION CHECK LIST FOR LEARNERS

1. Learners are motivated to be engaged in reading activities.
2. Learner read a passage of text that is levelled appropriately, and then asked some explicit, detailed questions about the content of the text.
3. Learners demonstrate awareness of rhyme, alliteration, and phoneme awareness through a variety of tasks.
4. Learners attempt to spell words and identify words that share certain characteristics with target words.
5. Learners vocabulary knowledge is demonstrated through matching synonyms.
6. Learners demonstrate knowledge of word meanings by generating definitions, synonyms, or other appropriate responses.
7. Learners correctly identify regular and irregular words from increasingly difficult lists of words.
8. Learners correctly identify the sounds (phonemes) that correspond to different letters (consonants).
9. Learners correctly identify a variety of different words that all contain the same short vowel sound
10. Learners read graded passages of text silently, and then must describe what the passage is about.
11. Learners read passages of text aloud while the teacher monitors oral reading rate and accuracy.
12. Learners provide at least two independent meanings for each word given.
13. Learners correctly identify pseudo words in a list using reasonable conventions of English spelling-sound relationships.
14. Learners match written words with pictures, read short sentences aloud correctly and answer explicit comprehension questions.
15. Learners quickly and accurately write the alphabet and dictated words.

APPENDIX 23: STORIES

Story-1: The Boy and the Rabbit

A boy was reading a story about a rabbit sitting in his room. In the mean while he saw a real rabbit jumping in his room. He frightened and shouted. His mother also scared listening to her baby's shouting. She rushed in to his room and asked what happened to him. Pointing to the window with his pencil, he said "Rab ... bit.. rabbit ...entered in my room through the win...dowwindow." The mother smiled and said "my darling that is not a rabbit. It is your new puppet I threw it to you through the window.

Story-2: The Fisher and the Little Fish

Once up on a time a fisher, after fishing all day, he caught only a little fish. The little fish said "master! please, let me go. I am too small to your meal just now. If you put me back into the river, I shall soon grow. Then you can get a big meal of me." The fisher smiled on the little fish and said "my little fish! I have you now. You are big enough for my meal. If I let you go, I may not catch you hereafter."

Moral: A little thing in hand is worth more than a great thing in prospect.

Story-3: The Lion, the Fox, and the Beasts

The Lion was sick and ordered animals to come and hear his last will and testament. So a Goat came to the Lion's cave, and stopped there listening for a long time. Then a Sheep went in, and before she came out a Calf came up to receive the last wishes of the Lord of the Beasts. But soon the Lion seemed to recover, and came to the mouth of his cave, and saw the Fox, who had been waiting outside for some time. "Why do you not come to pay your respects to me?" said the Lion to the Fox.

" Majesty's! I beg your pardon" said the Fox, "but I noticed the track of the animals that have already come to you; and while I see many paw marks going in. But, I see no one coming out. Till the animals that have entered your cave come out again, I prefer to remain in the open air."

It is easier to get into the enemy's toils than out again.

Story-4: The Man and His Two Wives

In the old days, an old man had two wives. The first wife was old and the second one was young. Both of them loved him very much, and desired to see him like themselves. Now the man's hair was turning gray, which the young wife did not like, as it made him look too old for her husband. So every night she used to comb his hair and pick out the white ones. But the elder Wife saw her husband growing grey with great pleasure, for she did not like to be just like his mother. So every morning she used to arrange his hair and pick out as many of the black ones as she could. Finally, the man found himself entirely bald.

Yield to all and you will soon have nothing to yield.

Story-5: The Young Thief and His Mother

A young man had been caught in a daring act of theft and had been condemned to be executed for it. He expressed his desire to see his Mother, and to speak with her before he was led to execution. Then, he was permitted to see his mother. When his mother came to him he said: "I want to whisper to you," and when she brought her ear near him, he nearly bit it off. All the bystanders were horrified, and asked him what he could mean by such brutal and inhuman conduct. "It is to punish her," he said. "When I was young I began with stealing little things, and brought them home to mother. Instead of rebuking and punishing me, she laughed and said: "It will not be noticed." It is because of her that I am here today."

Story-6: The Shepherd Boy

A young shepherd boy was looking after his sheep. He wanted to trick the village farmers. Then, he rushed down towards the village and shouted "Wolf, Wolf." The villagers came out to help him, but they could not see any wolf. This pleased the boy so much. A few days afterwards, he tried the same trick, and again the villagers came to help him. The boy laughed on the farmers. But shortly after this, a wolf actually came out from the forest, and began to chase the sheep. Now the boy became terrified and cried out "Wolf, Wolf," louder than before. But this time the villagers, who had been fooled twice before, thought that the boy was again deceiving them. And nobody was willing to come for help. So the wolf ate all of the sheep.

"A liar will not be believed, even when he speaks the truth."

APPENDIX 24: DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDIT



Blue Diamonds Professional Services (Pty) Ltd

Enhancing your brilliance

Tel: 031 916 1420

Fax: 086 627 7756 Email: jaybee@telkomsa.net

Website: www.jaybe9.wix.com/bluediamondsed

22 February 2018

Declaration of professional edit

THE EFFECT OF A COGNITIVE FOUNDATION OF LEARNING TO READ ON THE READING SKILLS OF GRADE
3 LEARNERS
IN 10 SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN HAWASSA AND DILLA TOWNS, SNNPR, ETHIOPIA

by

BERHANU DENDENA SONA

I declare that I have edited and proofread this thesis. My involvement was restricted to language usage and spelling, completeness and consistency, referencing style and formatting of headings, captions and Tables of Contents. I did no structural re-writing of the content.

I am qualified to have done such editing, being in possession of a Bachelor's degree with a major in English, having taught English to matriculation, and having a Certificate in Copy Editing from the University of Cape Town. I have edited more than 100 Masters and Doctoral theses, as well as articles, books and reports.

As the copy editor, I am not responsible for detecting, or removing, passages in the document that closely resemble other texts and could thus be viewed as plagiarism. I am not accountable for any changes made to this document by the author or any other party subsequent to my edit.

Sincerely,

Signature withheld for security reasons

Dr Jacqueline Baumgardt

Member, Professional Editors Guild

Blue Diamonds Professional Services (Pty) Ltd (Registration Number 2014/092365/07)
Sole Director: J Baumgardt