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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Different people and organizations contributed to the successful completion of this thesis, in one way or another. First of all, I am particularly grateful to Professor BM Nchindila, my supervisor, for his unreserved guidance and insightful comments, throughout the study, without which the thesis would not have reached this stage. Mr. Malan Dawe, my personal librarian at the University of South Africa (UNISA), indeed deserves special thanks for his committed assistance in searching electronic literatures which were critically important for my study. I am indebted to my colleague Mr. Solomon Admasu, University of Gondar, for his timely support in data collection and his tireless work in proofreading the drafts of the thesis. Earnest acknowledgement goes to Mr. Kendie Getachew, Jimma University, for providing me with valuable insights regarding quantitative data analysis. I must also forward sincere appreciation to my colleagues Dr. Temesgen Meraba (Jimma University), Mr. Endalfer Melese (Jimma University), Mr. Getachew Tilahun (Jimma University) and Mr. Mezemir Seifu (Ministry of Education) for their genuine supports in the course of the study. Jimma University and the University of South Africa (UNISA) also deserve due acknowledgements for facilitating my doctoral study and supporting it financially. Finally, I should thank the Ministry of Education, the administrations of the target schools and the teachers who assisted me during data collection and the students who participated in the study for their creditable contributions to the smooth run of the study.

ABSTRACT

This study focused on independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in Ethiopia. Students who practice independent reading develop a love for reading and ultimately become life-long self-initiated readers. Therefore, independent reading should be considered as a vital goal of instruction and research. The issues of focus in this study were students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading its literature, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources along with inclusion of independent reading in classroom instruction and in English textbooks. To this end, the study used quantitative data (collected through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist) and qualitative data (gathered via classroom observation and content analysis). The findings revealed lower predisposition towards and practice of independent EFL reading among public school students ($n = 375$). A statistically significant difference, in favour of non-public schools ($n = 181$), was also found between the two groups of students in scores pertaining to most of the variables investigated. Enhanced scaffolding of independent reading through improved instruction and resource provision, regular short refresher courses for teachers of English and further studies have been recommended to improve public school students' involvement in independent EFL reading.

Key Terms: Access to reading resources, EFL in Ethiopian schools, Independent reading, Life-long self-initiated reading, Out-of-class independent reading, Persistence in independent reading, Reading comprehension ability levels, Reading motivation, Reading strategy use, Scaffolding independent reading

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

This chapter introduces the study in different sections. First, it gives an account of the context of the study (section 1.1). Then, it sets a background for the study focusing on the historical trends in language teaching and the conditions that led to the notion of student autonomy in learning English (section 1.2). After this, while a section (section 1.3) establishes the rationale for the study, another section (section 1.4) explains the statement of the problem. Following this, the research questions are presented (section 1.5). The description of the scope of the study then follows (section 1.6). After this, definitions of key terms are provided (section 1.7) followed by a highlight of the structure of the study (section 1.8). Finally, a brief conclusion (section 1.9) wraps up the presentation and leads to the next chapter.

1.1. The Context of the Study

This study was conducted in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Found in the Horn of Africa bordering with Eritrea to the north, Djibouti and Somalia to the East, Sudan and South Sudan to the West and Kenya to the South, the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia covers an area of 1,100,000 square kilometers. With above 85, 000, 000 inhabitants, Ethiopia is the second-most populated country in Africa. A multilingual and multiethnic country of more than eighty nations, nationalities and peoples, Ethiopia is a founding member of the United Nations, the Non-Allied Movement-G77, the Organization of African Unity, the Pan African Chamber of Commerce, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the African Standby Force. Ethiopia is known for, among other things, her contribution to anthropological research (e.g. the discovery of Lucy, the skeleton of a female *Australopithecus afarensis* discovered in 1974, and other subsequent discoveries), the unique calendar, the syllabic alphabet called Ethiopic, the unique heritages (e.g. the Akum Obelisks in Tigray, the Lalibela Rock Hewn Churches and

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the Gondar Castles in the Amhara Region, the Nejashi Mosque in Tigray, the Jagol Building in Harar, the terrace building tradition of the Konso people) and the generations of prominent athletes. Ethiopia is also known for its victory over the Italian colonial power at the Battle of Adwa in 1936 (Ethiopia retained its national sovereignty during the 19 Century Scramble for Africa) and its export of organic coffee. The capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, is a seat of several international organizations such as the African Union (AU) Head Quarters.

The country's long history of drought and famine is giving way to development and transformation. Reports show that Ethiopia's economy is currently one of the fastest-growing economies in Africa. Although agriculture is the fore-driver of Ethiopia's economic growth, infrastructure, industry and tourism are also undergoing rapid development. Export is diversifying and improving qualitatively; health services have grown in coverage and quality. Because of improvements in economic, social and political spheres, Ethiopia is gaining international importance in many respects. For instance, Ethiopia is a key ally of the US in the fight against terrorism, and has established strong economic ties with the emerging China. The country also plays vital roles in African affairs such as conflict resolution and peace-keeping. Along with positive changes in the economic, political and social spheres, significant developments are being registered in the education sector especially in terms coverage and equity.

Ethiopia's growing participation in economic, social, political and military activities of the world entails the need for improvement in its international communication which is currently possible through English. Thus, policy makers, diplomats, economists, business actors, social workers, educators, lawyers, researchers, media personnel, military officers, police officers and tourist guides who use English fluently and appropriately are highly needed. To address this demand, it is important to improve the quality of English language teaching/learning in the country. It follows that whether the English language education at all levels meets the expectation must be examined consistently. One way of doing this is conducting studies to assess the input, process and product of the English language instruction in the country.

Educating citizens was mainly the responsibility of governments for a long time since the introduction of modern education to Ethiopia. However, with the coming to power of the current government in 1991, privatization was declared although there still are some concerns about the fairness of the practice. This declaration encouraged the private sector (local and international) to invest in all levels of education. As a result, local private kindergartens, primary schools, high schools, preparatory schools and higher learning institutions have emerged in the main towns of the country, especially in the city of Addis Ababa. There are also international private schools and foreign community schools which are contributing to the development of education. This implies that successful educational accomplishments registered in the country are not only attributable to the endeavors of government (public) institutions, but local private schools, international private schools and foreign community schools also take their shares of the success story. Likewise, problems encountered in education concern all types of educational institutions and their personnel. Therefore, studies which aim to investigate the various aspects of education in general and English language education in particular should, in one way or the other, address both public and non-public educational institutions.

In the current Ethiopian educational arrangement, formal schooling begins with kindergarten education (although most children do not have the chance to attend this level) and, through primary, secondary and preparatory levels, continues to higher learning institutions, i.e. technical-vocational schools and teacher training colleges on the one hand and universities on the other (Ministry of Education 2002:77-102). While kindergartens (KGs) can have sub-levels such as KG₁, KG₂ and KG₃, primary schooling is made up of first cycle primary classes (Grades 1 to 4) and second cycle primary classes (Grades 5 to 8). Whereas secondary education includes Grade 9 and Grade 10, preparatory level education embraces Grades 11 and 12. Preparatory education makes students ready for university education. Students who do not meet the minimum requirements in the Grade 10 National Examination for joining pre-university education, i.e. to enter preparatory schools, can enroll in vocational-technical schools or teacher training colleges to acquire certificates and diplomas. University education

is the highest level from which, as stipulated in the current policy document of the Ministry of Education (2002:105), the minimum qualification acquired is BA (BSc) degree.

Whereas there are arguably different instructional languages at KGs, first cycle education is mainly given either in regional languages (e.g. Amharic in Amhara Regional State, Afan Oromo in Oromiya Regional State and Tigrigna in Tigray Regional State). Where there are difficulties due to practical reasons, Amharic (the working language of the Federal Government) is used as a medium of instruction at this level. A typical example is the use of this language for instruction in some first cycle primary classes in Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State. Administrative regions differ in their choice of instructional languages used at second cycle primary schools. In some regions, most subjects are taught through English at this level (e.g. Amhara Regional State and Addis Ababa City Administration) while other regions choose local languages (e.g. Oromiya Regional State where Afan Oromo enjoys the status of the language of instruction at this level). However, while English is the medium of instruction at secondary, preparatory and technical-vocational schools and universities, most teacher training colleges give education in local languages. English is given as a subject in all kindergarten, primary, secondary and preparatory classes. In addition, common courses such as *Communicative English Skills* and *Basic Writing Skills* are offered to all first year university undergraduates. However, whether English is taught as a subject or used as a medium of instruction at different levels of schooling, it still has an EFL status in Ethiopia.

1.2. Background of the Study

Reading is a crucial academic and real-life skill. In academic work, people read textbooks, references, handouts, lecture notes, journal articles and hypertexts while they read stories, novels, newspapers, magazines and so on in real-life. Since reading extends beyond classroom confines, students need hands-on experience of reading of the latter sort in their language study programmes. It is thus vital that they begin practising independent reading skills as early in their schooling as possible. Therefore, second or foreign language instruction programs need to treat independent reading appropriately. This requires language

instruction programmes and teaching approaches that place a considerable degree of emphasis on the active role students can play in the learning process.

However, seen from a historical perspective, trends in language teaching have shown variability in the emphasis they attach to student roles in learning the English language in general and in acquiring reading skills in particular. As such, teaching methods which have markedly influenced EFL instruction, i.e. the Audiolingual Method (AULM), the Situational Language Teaching (SLT) and the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), can be classified into two categories based on their underlying assumptions concerning students' roles in the learning journey. The Audiolingual Method and the Situational Language Teaching give little emphasis to the role of the learner. On the contrary, the Communicative Language Teaching attaches a considerable degree of importance to it.

The Audiolingual Method (Freeman 2000:35; Harmer 2001:79; Parel & Jain 2008:37) treated students as passive individuals to be maneuvered by the teacher. Passive imitation, repetition, memorization and habit formation were typical learner activities in the language classroom with ALUM (Brooks 1964:50). As Richards and Rodgers (200:62) put it, "Learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses". That is, learners' roles were restricted to reacting to stimuli or answering questions under the teacher's directives; learners did not have any control over the content of instruction and pace plus style of their learning (Kumaravadivelu 2006:90).

Therefore, during the prominence of AULM, reading was treated as a conditioned behavior influenced by programming and environmental conditions to be manipulated by the teacher (Alexander & Fox 2004:36). Reading activities were selected, sequenced and presented by the teacher for students to comprehend and demonstrate accurate but mindless reactions. In other words, learners did not have a chance to select reading activities or monitor and evaluate their own reading progress. As a result, the success or failure of language instruction was ascribed to teachers' strengths or limitations to implement the method. Given this context, it is evident that language teaching programmes fail to produce students who can

take charge of their own learning of reading. In such circumstances, creating life-long independent EFL readers can thus be hardly possible.

Similarly, Situational Language Teaching (SLT) failed to acknowledge the active contribution learners could bring to the process of learning. To illustrate this, Richards and Rodgers (2001:43) write: "...the learner is required to simply listen and repeat and to respond to questions and commands. The learner has no control over the content of learning and is often regarded as likely to succumb to undesirable behaviors unless skillfully manipulated by the teacher". In this method, too, reading was conceptualized as a discrete skill to be passively drilled and practised until understanding was reflectively demonstrated. Put differently, students were trained to imitate the teacher and reproduce language accurately: creative use of language and student-initiated reading were barely conceivable. Like AULM, SLT could not enable students to become independent learners and readers of the target language.

In the above teacher-dominated methods, learners were denied opportunities to make active contributions in the process of learning to read. They were not encouraged to contribute to decisions on the learning goals to be achieved, the contents to be learned, the activities to be carried out, the teaching methods to be pursued and the evaluation techniques to be employed. Students were not thus given chance to set reading goals, plan or monitor their reading and evaluate their reading progress (Oldfather & Wigfield, 1996, as cited in Alexander & Fox 2004:50). It was following the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) that learner autonomy in general and independent reading in particular began to gain increasing currency. Therefore, discussions of independent EFL reading are closely aligned to CLT.

The emergence of CLT in the 1980s heralded a re-orientation in teacher-student roles in the classroom. The implication of this phenomenon was that students could learn in an independent way (Breen & Candlin 1980:89) with each learner shouldering responsibility for his/her own learning and for the learning of others in a Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) atmosphere (Harmer 2001:88; Stryker & Leaver 1993:286). This allows learners to

exchange experiences, views and learning strategies thereby enabling them to provide support to one another (Gonzalez 2008:197). In this way, students principally interact with each other and slowly move away from the direct control of the teacher by developing self-directed learning skills (Dickinson 1987:25). In this instructional scenario, teachers play the role of facilitator and help students to develop learning independence. This educational orientation requires students' positive attitude and devoted interests, self-monitoring skills, positive self-efficacy beliefs and active participations.

In Ethiopia, where CLT is already in place, English is taught as a Foreign Language (EFL). It is not widely used in day-to-day communication but is taught as a subject from the first grade and serves as a medium of instruction in all secondary schools (Grades 9 through 12) and in universities. This can have implications for students' attitude, motivation and home-based independent reading. Firstly, the fact that English is not demanded for immediate social interaction and transaction may determine the extent to which students like to learn this language. Secondly, learning English for purposes which are not immediate enough can influence the level and type of motivation students possess. This can also have consequences on their self-efficacy beliefs since learning a foreign language is associated with some degree of debilitating anxiety (Awan, et al. 2010:33; Horwitz 2011:125). Finally, parents, caretakers and other family members cannot provide enough support to children at the early grades to prepare them to become independent EFL readers. This is because the parents, caretakers and other family members themselves, as part of a community where EFL reading is not a strong culture, may not be good readers. All these factors, in one way or another, can determine whether students will become life-long independent EFL readers or not.

In the context of all these potential setbacks, high school and university students are expected to engage in reading a variety of texts written in English. However, initiatives and programs that focus on independent reading are lacking in the country. Therefore, EFL teachers have to play a pivotal role to enable students to develop independent reading skills. Students on their part should also engage constantly in independent EFL reading both in and outside the classroom. An important element in teaching independent reading is the textbook which can

influence teachers' and students' efforts geared towards achieving this noble goal. Self-access reading resources are also an important part in this process. Therefore, studies which aim to explore independent EFL reading in the Ethiopian context should better center on teachers, students, English textbooks and access to independent reading resources. With this rationale, this study aimed to investigate independent EFL reading, focusing on these four elements, among Grade 11 students in selected public and non-public schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

1.3. Rationale for the Study

Justification for a study on independent reading in EFL in Ethiopian schools stems from the fact that in this era of information exploration, independent reading is critically important (Johnson 2003:iv). As such, the quantity and quality of the information one obtains can determine how successfully he/she can function in the immediate and global environment. Thus, it can be argued that how a literate individual knows and how competently he/she can adapt to the demands of the ever-changing world significantly depends on how much and how effectively he/she reads. It is also noteworthy that the English language, as the language of international communication (Richards & Schmidt 2002:180; Phipps & Gonzalez 2004:22), is an important medium through which most of the textual information exploration is accomplished regardless of geographical frontiers. As a result, books, journals, periodicals, manuals, brochures, announcements, guidelines and online documents written in this language are abundantly available to engage readers with varying purposes and preferences (Blachowicz & Ogle 2008:8). Therefore, to be able to deal with the overwhelming amount of real-life reading efficiently and effectively, one has to develop the skills of comprehending English texts.

Obviously, schools are places where reading comprehension ability is nurtured. Since a great deal of school learning is obtained via reading a variety of textual materials, students must have demonstrable reading proficiency. To this end, teachers of English should strive to enable their students to become self-regulated readers who can set their reading goals, apply effective reading strategies, read selectively based on their purposes, monitor their reading

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progresses and take corrective actions when they fail to attain their goals (Zimmerman, Boner & Kovach 1996:48). Personal goal setting, strategic planning, informed strategy implementation and strategic outcome monitoring distinguish independent readers from teacher-dependent readers. It has been proven that the former outperform the latter in their mastery of reading comprehension skills (Cullinan 2000). Therefore, reading instruction should primarily aim to enable students to become life-long independent readers. To this end, apart from receiving strategy-based reading instruction, students must have the necessary predispositions such as adequate reading comprehension ability, positive attitude towards learning to read in a new language and appropriate motivational orientation to learning it.

This is particularly vital in Ethiopia which is increasingly claiming herself in the world stage. The country's economy has been consistently growing and is expected to steadily follow this trend in the future. The country is also registering commendable diplomatic achievements, and her role in international peace-keeping missions is developing considerably. Tourism is growing quantitatively and qualitatively. To further advance her participation in international politics and peace-keeping efforts, boost her diplomatic ties, scale up her share in international trade, exploit her tourism potential and get the most out of its export, Ethiopia needs politicians, diplomats, military officers, policy makers, business leaders, entrepreneurs and tourist guides who can continually acquire ranges of knowledge and skills through reading a variety of texts written in English. Apparently, academic institutions are the chief producers of such personnel. With this understanding, the Ministry of Education has given due emphasis to the teaching of English at all levels of schooling.

As explained in 1.1 above, in the current Ethiopian educational context, English is taught as a subject from Grade 1 to expose students (the future leaders, politicians, diplomats, military officers, policy makers, business leaders or entrepreneurs) to the language as early as possible. In addition, English is the language of instruction in secondary schools (Grades 9 through 12), vocational training institutions and universities. This is believed to involve students in consistent reading of texts, at least academic materials, written in English. This in turn is likely to help them to master the various reading skills. In addition, ample in-service

training opportunities are available for English language teachers to upgrade their qualifications and develop their teaching skills to help their students to become effective learners of the language including the reading skill. As indicated in section 1.1, English is regarded a foreign language in Ethiopia. Although English is taught from Grade 1, it is only used as a medium of instruction in secondary schools and universities; it is not used as a language of business in government institutions. It is thus believed that all opportunities just mentioned can enable students to acquire independent EFL reading skills before they join universities and refine them afterwards.

However, experience shows that the trend is not satisfactory in this regard. Many students fail to demonstrate this ability even when they study at universities. The researcher has repeatedly observed this problem in his teaching of different English courses, including reading skill courses, at Jimma University. One instance is students' frustration upon facing long reading lists included in the course syllabuses they receive upon commencement of courses. Frustrated with the reading lists they label as 'too long', many students ask which readings in the lists are the most important to pass the exams on the respective courses. Secondly, the first question many students usually ask as courses commence is whether the teachers provide handouts. This shows that although they are provided with sufficient reading lists, students tend to insist on obtaining simplified and teacher-selected readings. Worse than all, it is worrying to see several university students asking teachers to tell them which parts of the given handouts should be highlighted or underlined. These students fail to locate useful information in given readings. This condition compelled the researcher to inquire whether students have appropriate predisposition towards independent reading and practise self-reliance in their learning of EFL reading in Grades 11 where they begin to prepare themselves for university education. It is this enquiry and the need to address the problem empirically that stimulated this study which focuses on independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students.

As discussed above, independent EFL reading is indispensable in efforts to create generations of readers. This is especially so in the rapidly developing Ethiopia. It follows that

a study which focuses on independent reading becomes important in the Ethiopian context. This study was thus conducted on independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in Ethiopian focusing on selected schools in the city of Addis Ababa. The following justifications give rationale for the study.

First of all, a study on independent reading can initiate Grade 11 English language teachers in Ethiopia by bringing the issue of independent reading to their attention or helping them to revitalize their awareness of the matter and to take practical actions to assist students to become independent EFL readers. Secondly, it could be useful in informing school managers to try to acquire necessary resources that engage students in persistent out-of-class independent EFL reading. Thirdly, the study can benefit students since they would be taught by informed English language teachers who can alert them into activities and practices pertinent to the development of independent reading. Furthermore, the study can be of help to remind English language Teaching (ELT) syllabus designers and materials writers about the need to create syllabuses and teaching materials that are geared towards encouraging students to develop independent EFL reading skills. These students can eventually contribute their share to efforts which aim to establish a reading culture in schools and in the country at large. Finally, a study that focuses on independent reading can initiate other researchers to conduct further investigations on various aspects of independent EFL reading. Therefore, it is necessary that an investigation into independent reading in EFL among Ethiopian students is carried out.

1.4. Statement of the Problem

The problem this study seeks to address is independent EFL reading. Since the adoption of CLT in the teaching of English in Ethiopia, there has been advocacy in favour of the active role students should play in learning the English language. The underlying belief is that students, rather than acting according to the teacher's directive and coercion, should be enabled to take charge of their learning of English, a great deal of which is done through reading. Therefore, it is generally believed that teachers who teach English to Grade 11 students are aware of how to encourage their students to become independent learners of

reading. Thus, the hypothesis is that students at this level are involved in taking responsibility for the development of their EFL reading skills through self-direction, self-regulation, self-reliance and reflective approach.

However, despite the claimed shift from teacher-centeredness to learner independence, Grade 11 students in various public preparatory schools tend to excessively depend on their English language teachers. Particularly, apart from grave national concerns on the deteriorating status of students' ability in EFL reading, several Grade 11 teachers of English in public schools seriously complain about their students' deficient reading skills. This problem seems to be originating from the inadequate focus on developing students' ability to read independently. On the other hand, non-public schools in Addis Ababa use different textbooks and better resources which can impact on teaching independent reading. If non-public schools are better equipped in teaching independent reading, they would be a good source of comparative data. The question thus is whether there are differences between public and non-public schools in fostering independent reading. Therefore, research evidence is critically required to address this inquiry.

Most of the available international studies (e.g. Harmon 2000; Garner & Bachman 2004; Pearman 2008; Knoester 2009; Harlar et al. 2011) investigated various aspects of independent reading mainly among elementary school pupils in contexts where English is a first language (L_1). This shows that there is a research gap since the emphasis given to independent EFL reading among secondary school students is inadequate whereas this type of reading is vital at this level, too. More importantly, research studies that compare independent EFL reading across public and non-public schools seem to be scarce in EFL contexts including Ethiopia. This implies that there is a need for research studies on independent reading in various EFL contexts.

In Ethiopia, some studies, e.g. Teodros (2005), Nuru-razik (2006), Mesfin (2008) and Haile (2011) looked into autonomous learning of English in its entirety (listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary). However, research studies which exclusively devoted to investigating independent reading among Grade 11 students in the country are

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unavailable. Therefore, this study promises to make original contributions by examining the predispositions towards and practice of independent reading among Grade 11 students in the Ethiopian EFL context. In addition, studies that attempted to compare independent reading across public and non-public schools are equally lacking. As highlighted above, non-public schools are deemed to offer better quality of education since teachers are better remunerated and schools better resourced than most public schools in most parts of the world, Ethiopia included. To this end, the study promises to make another new contribution to the body of knowledge of independent reading since it aims to investigate differences between public and non-public schools concerning Grade 11 students' predisposition towards and involvement in independent reading of materials written in English. The study also has methodological implications that are detailed in the following paragraph.

Unlike previous studies which focused on a single aspect or fewer aspects of independent reading mostly in L₁ contexts, this study looked into independent EFL reading taking account of the various pertinent issues: students' reading comprehension abilities, attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading its literature, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. The study also examined the inclusion of independent reading components in classroom instruction and in English textbooks. This required the use of five data collection instruments (reading comprehension test, questionnaire, observation schedule, content analysis checklist and independent reading follow-up checklist). This allowed for the collection of rich data used to investigate the study variable from different angles. Since the questionnaire employed in this study contains items on attitude, motivation, strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to resources, it is more comprehensive than questionnaires used previously to study independent reading directly or indirectly. Therefore, the study intends to make methodological contribution to future studies by bringing together several dimensions of independent reading. Generally, apart from closing the gaps indicated in the preceding paragraph and adding to the body of knowledge on independent reading, this study has methodological contributions.

1.5. Research Questions

This study attempted to answer the main research question: “What are the predispositions and practices of independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in Ethiopian schools?”

Based on this question, the following specific research sub-questions were posed:

1. What are the reading comprehension ability levels of Grade 11 students in public vs. non-public schools in Ethiopia?
2. What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?
3. What reading strategies do Grade 11 students predominantly use which help them to develop independent reading skills?
4. How persistently do Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools practise independent EFL reading?
5. To what extent do Grade 11 students have access to a variety of independent EFL reading resources?
6. Are there statistically significant differences between Grade 11 students in public schools and those in non-public schools in their predisposition alongside their practice regarding independent EFL reading?
7. What are the independent reading components Grade 11 English teachers in selected schools include in their instructions?
8. How do Grade 11 English textbooks cover independent reading?

The above research sub-questions required both quantitative and qualitative data. The first, the second, the third, the fourth and the fifth questions respectively needed quantitative data on students’ reading comprehension ability, attitude along with motivation, use of reading strategies, persistence of practice in independent reading and access to independent reading resources. That is, while reading comprehension test was used to collect data to address the first research sub-question, questionnaire was employed to generate data used to answer the four subsequent quantitative questions. In addition, to substantiate the data obtained via questionnaire to address the fourth sub-question, some quantitative data were collected

through independent reading follow-up checklist. Whereas the sixth sub-question was addressed using data collected through the reading comprehension test and the questionnaire, the findings were also supported with data generated via independent reading follow-up, classroom observation and content analysis. On the other hand, whereas the seventh research sub-question required qualitative data gathered through classroom observation to examine how teachers would scaffold independent reading, the eighth one was answered using qualitative data generated via content analysis.

1.6. Scope of the Study

This study was conducted in the Ethiopian EFL context in the 2015/2016 academic year. It focused on independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in selected schools in the city of Addis Ababa. Addis Ababa was selected as a focal site with the assumption that, being the capital city of the country, it is better resourced with school, public and international libraries than any other towns in the country. This gives motivated students chances to engage in self-initiated out-of-class reading and build their independent EFL reading skills. In this setting, readers can also have access to English newspapers such as *The Ethiopian Herald* and *Capital* which are not easily available in many towns in the country. Internet infrastructure through which students can have access to electronic texts is also generally better in Addis Ababa than in other town centers of the country. Another rationale for the choice of Addis Ababa was that, unlike in other towns in the country, there are ample public and some non-public preparatory schools in this metropolis. This helped to compare public and non-public schools concerning Grade 11 students' predisposition towards and practice of independent EFL reading. On the other hand, Grade 11 was selected for it was believed that if students develop independent reading habits at this level, they can function well in Grade 12 and in institutions of higher learning where independent reading becomes increasingly vital. In terms of its coverage, while independent reading can be nurtured at home where students may get guidance from parents, caretakers and/or siblings (Padak & Rasinski 2007:350), the study did not focus on this issue since the main focus was only on teachers, students, the English textbook and self-access reading resources.

1.7. Definitions of Key Terms

In this section, definitions of the terms, ‘attitude’, ‘foreign language (FL)’, ‘independent reading’, ‘reading motivation’, ‘scaffolding’, ‘second language (L2/ESL)’ and ‘TOEFL’ are provided since a clear understanding should be established at this point on how these terms are used in the study:

Attitude: Attitude is generally understood as a favorable or unfavorable feeling, i.e. the like or dislike a person holds towards another person, an object, a situation, an event or an activity. Baumeister and Vohs (2007:65) define attitude as “the general and lasting positive or negative opinion or feeling about some person, object, or issue”. According to these authors, attitudes primarily arise from psychological needs and social interactions. Lawrence (2008:104-113) also elaborates that attitude includes a person’s evaluation of the attitude object which involves emotional reaction, thinking and action, i.e., it subsumes affective, cognitive, and behavioral components. Accordingly, the affective component consists of emotions or feelings towards the attitude object, and the cognitive component concerns thoughts or beliefs about the same object. The behavioral component consists of actions or behaviours directed towards the attitude object. In this study, ‘attitude’ is used to refer to whether students, as learners of English as a foreign language, like or dislike learning English as a school subject in general and reading in this language in particular.

Foreign language: The term ‘foreign language’ is used to refer to a language that is not the native language of a particular community, and is not largely used as a medium of communication in government offices, media, etc. Foreign languages are typically taught as school subjects to enable students to communicate with native speakers or read materials written in the language being learned (Richards & Schmidt 2002:206). This definition fairly fits in the Ethiopian context where English is taught as a subject from the first grade. It also serves as a medium of instruction in all high schools and universities. As a result, printed books (textbooks and reference books) written in English are rather available at most high schools and universities. In fact, a reasonable variety of short stories, novels, magazines and newspapers written in this language are also fairly available commercially and in libraries, especially in the city of Addis Ababa, for individuals who engage in self-initiated reading. In

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Ethiopia, the label English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is used to refer to the general context not to individual students' level of exposure to English. For example, some non-public school students use English as their first language. Therefore, 'EFL speakers' does not strictly describe these students although the general context can affect their language use out of school.

Independent reading: Independent reading is the reading of non-academic texts such as fictions, magazines, newspapers, autobiographies and biographies (in print or electronic form) that students do in line with their own preferences of the materials to be read and the place and time of reading. This happens without the teacher's direct involvement in assigning reading tasks, requiring a reports and checking comprehension (Franz 2008:332). This needs proper training and practice so that students develop positive attitudes, appropriate motivation and effective strategy use which help them to develop life-long self-initiated reading habits (White 2011, as cited in Chiu 2012:267). In this study, 'independent reading' is used synonymously with 'self-initiated reading' and in few instances with 'autonomous reading'.

Reading motivation: According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:406), reading motivation is the force that initiates someone to read. Watkins and Goffey (2004:110) underline: "...even the most able or skillful students may not engage in reading if they lack motivation". Baker and Wigfield (1999:453) on their part explain that approaches to studying reading motivation are grounded on the engagement and the achievement motivation perspectives. The engagement perspective is understood as embracing cognitive, affective and social aspects of reading. This claim is based on the work of Afferbach and Reiking (1996:xv) who state: "The engagement perspective views readers as motivated, strategic, knowledgeable and socially interactive". Accordingly, engaged readers are motivated to read for various purposes, use prior knowledge/experience to acquire new understandings and actively participate in meaningful social interactions about reading. It follows that motivated readers are readers who have positive attitude towards reading, are appropriately motivated to read, can coordinate their strategy and knowledge and engage more in self-initiated reading to fulfill their personal goals, desires or intensions (Lau 2009:715), which ultimately help them to

become life-long readers. In this study, reading motivation is conceptualized as embracing reading goal and reading self-efficacy (see sub-section 2.2.1 in Chapter 2).

Scaffolding: Scaffolding, a crucial procedure that facilitates learning, relates to Social Constructivist Theory which was pioneered by Lev Vygotsky (Jumaat & Tasir 2014:74). According to Jumaat and Tasir, Vygotsky's Social Constructivism posits that students' interactions with their teachers, peers, tutors and parents help them to learn new concepts and skills effectively. Scaffolding involves teachers in providing procedural support to students at the early stages of learning, gradually decreasing the guidance as students achieve mastery of the concept or skill being learned. Doing so lessens the difficulty posed by complex contents and tasks. This in turn enables students to focus attention on constructing higher level abilities such as critical thinking skills which are important in independent learning. In this study, 'scaffolding independent reading' is used to refer to teachers' efforts to foster student independence through reading strategy instruction and provision of appropriate tasks which link in-class reading with out-of-class reading. In scaffolding independent reading teachers aim to provide systematic support to help students increasingly develop appropriate predispositions and practical skills which enable them to engage in self-initiated reading of various texts.

Second language: Second language (L2/ESL) is defined as the language that is learned some time later than the acquisition of a native language (Stern 1983:12). For example, English learned or used in English-speaking countries like the United States and Britain by immigrants, whose native languages are not English, is considered as English as a Second Language. As Sullivan (2009:178) notes, English is the dominant language of administration, commerce, education and other spheres of life in these contexts. According to Sullivan, the concept of English as a Second Language is also used to refer to the use of this language in the former British colonies in Asia and Africa where English enjoys the status of an official language. Likewise, Richards and Schmidt (2002:472) define second language as any language an individual learns after acquiring his/her native language. According to these authors, English is a second language in countries like Nigeria, India, Singapore and the Philippines, where it is used in various spheres of life such as business, education and

government offices. However, since English is not commonly used in various spheres of life such as business, education and government offices in Ethiopia, it is regarded not as a second but a foreign language, which poses more challenges for independent reading to take root as opposed to ESL contexts.

Although attempts are made to draw a distinction between ‘second language’ and ‘foreign language’, it is useful to note that the two terms are usually considered as a continuum since they are two situations of learning (second language learning and foreign language learning), not two kinds of language. In connection with this, Stern (1983:16–17) argues that a distinction should be made between native language and non-native language while the difference between the forms of the non-native language (second language and foreign language) is less important and can at times be misleading. A possible conclusion that can be drawn from this argument is that, although second language learners can differ slightly from foreign language learners in motivation and performance, assumptions, theories and explanations pertaining to learning a second language and learning a foreign language can overlap.

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is a standardized test of English language proficiency for non-native English language speakers who have the desire to study in US universities. TOEFL is one of the two major English-language tests in the world, the other being **IELTS** (International English Language Testing System). TOEFL has a dimension called ‘TOEFL Junior tests’, a general assessment of middle school-level English-language proficiency, i.e. for students aged 11–14. These tests are administered in two formats: TOEFL Junior Standard (on paper) and TOEFL Junior Comprehensive (via computer). The TOEFL Junior Standard test has three sections: Reading Comprehension, Listening Comprehension and Language Form and Meaning. The TOEFL Junior Comprehensive test has four parts: Reading Comprehension, Listening Comprehension, Speaking and Writing. In this study, a reading comprehension test adapted from the Junior Standard test sub-component was used to test the reading comprehension abilities of the target students.

1.8. The structure of the Study

This study is organized into seven chapters. The first chapter, this chapter, describes the context of the study, establishes the rationale of the study, discusses the background of the study, gives an account of the nature of the research problem, states the research questions, explains the scope of the study, provides definitions of key terms and highlights the structure of the study. While the second chapter deals with the literature review along with the conceptual framework of the study, the third provides details on the methodology employed in the research project. In the fourth chapter, the quantitative findings are presented and interpreted whereas the fifth chapter deals with the qualitative findings. The sixth chapter is where discussion of the findings is made with supporting literature. Finally, conclusions and recommendations are presented in the seventh chapter.

1.9. Conclusion

This chapter introduced the study in different sections. Following a brief introduction, a section was devoted to explain the context of the study while a background was set for the study in a subsequent section. The next section explained the rationale for the study. Then, the statement of the problem was established followed by the research questions. The scope of the study was then detailed preceding the definitions of key terms. Next, highlights were provided on the structure of the study before the chapter ended in a brief conclusion. In the next chapter, Chapter 2, the literature on the topic of a study of independent reading in English as a foreign language in Ethiopian schools is reviewed along with the conceptual framework of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.0. Introduction

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study of independent reading in EFL in Ethiopian schools. This chapter describes the theoretical framework of the study, reviews the literature on this topic and discusses the conceptual framework of the study. The chapter starts with the discussion of the theoretical framework of the study (section 2.1) within which theories of language (acquisition-learning distinction and theory of EFL) are also explained. It then deals with independent reading along with attitude towards learning a new language and reading in a new language, reading motivation (reading purpose and reading self-efficacy), reading strategy use, practice of persistent independent reading, access to reading resources and studies previously conducted on independent reading (section 2.2). Following this, details are given on the conceptual framework of the study (section 2.3) before the chapter comes to its conclusion (section 2.4).

2.1. Theoretical Framework

Independent reading is the reading learners carry out for themselves, without teachers' dominant involvement in task assignment and decision making regarding what, when and why the former read. Thus, independent reading requires independent decision and personal choice. It also needs positive attitude, appropriate motivation, strategic thinking and persistent practice on the part of the learner along with proper coaching from teachers. Therefore, studies focusing on independent reading should be aligned with a theory that accounts for students' attitude, motivational orientation, reading strategy use and persistent self-initiated reading. These are influenced by access to a selection of texts and teacher scaffolding. Historically, language teaching/learning has been influenced by four major theories, namely Behaviourist Theory, Nativist Theory, Cognitive Theory and Social Constructivist Theory. The following discussion deals with these theories and situates the study in one of them.

In Behaviourist Theory, learning is conceived as an acquisition of behaviour as a result of certain environmental factors to be controlled and manipulated by the teacher. In this theoretical stance, learning is believed to occur due to repetition and automatization of behaviour through stimulus- response-reinforcement series (Skinner 1974:202-203). In this view, reading can be broken down into its components (sounds, words, phrases and sentences) which are separately practised by the individual learner in a systematic and developmental manner (Pearson & Stephens 1994, as cited in Alexander & Fox 2004:35). Thus, students should be trained in each component skill under careful programming and strict teacher control. The teacher selects reading activities, sequences them carefully and controls students' behaviour while the latter are expected to passively receive direction, imitate information, practise it and reflexively produce behaviour in the form of a desired response which will be either approved or modified by the former (Alexander & Fox 2004:37). Generally, from a behaviourist standpoint, reading is not a learner-focused experience, but a mechanical process of imitation, repetition and habit formation driven by factors external to the learner.

Secondly, the Nativist Theory posits that the capacity to learn language is innate. The acquirer's contribution to the language acquisition process is therefore the result of genetic programming, while sufficient input is a necessary precondition for language acquisition to occur (Krashen 1982:20-21). In this view, learning to read is seen as an inbuilt capacity, i.e. learners are endowed with an intrinsic competence to understand written language if they are given sufficient exposure in meaningful contexts (Goodman & Goodman 1980, as cited in Alexander & Fox 2004:39). That is, learning to read is not as such a function of teaching, but a matter of information reaching the language acquisition facility. Nativism thus seems to overlook the importance of formal instruction and conscious information processing as well as the worth of text-based strategies and the role of teaching materials in developing students' reading comprehension abilities. Therefore, the Nativist Theory appears more suitable in learning English as a first or second language for these contexts offer learners with sufficient natural exposure to the target language. In other words, this theory is less suited for EFL learning contexts which lack adequate input and contexts for students to use the target language for meaningful interaction.

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Thirdly, the Cognitive Theory views language learning as a mental procedure of information processing, and it focuses on understanding how these activities take place in the human mind (Wilhelm & Engle 2012:143; Mitchell & Myles 2004:95-96; McLaughlin 1987a:133-134). This theory sees reading as a conscious process requiring schematic and text-based comprehension skills. This concerns the application of prior knowledge in text comprehension and information processing skills such as analyzing syntactic structure, identifying text cohesion and working out text structures which are thus conscious cognitive skills that involve analysis and interpretation of written information (Alexander & Fox 2004:42-43).

The Cognitive Theory hence recognizes the useful contribution students' prior knowledge can make in facilitating reading comprehension. It also presupposes strategy-based teaching of reading comprehension (text-based information processing strategies) which has received an extensive focus in language teaching-learning literature and research (O'Malley & Chamot 1990:19). However, this theory seems to focus on the individual reader and overlook the role of socio-cultural factors in shaping reading skills (e.g. cooperative reading). Besides, while Cognitive Theory advocates reading strategy use and training, it fails to sufficiently emphasize the need for systematic attention to affective variables such as students' attitude towards a learning task, intrinsic interest in the learning task and independent involvement in the process of learning.

Finally, the theory that has exerted a prominent influence in education for over three decades now is Constructivism. Constructivism is a learning theory which argues that learners actively construct their own understanding of the world based on their experience, thinking skills and the context in which they operate. In other words, they shape their schematic knowledge and the new information into a new personal knowledge or understanding (Pritchard & Woollard 2010:8) under the mediation of these factors. In their article titled "The Impact of Constructivism on Education: Language, Discourse and Meaning", Jones and Brader-Araje (2002) discuss Constructivism as a theory that gives precedence to the role of the learner in the learning process. According to Darge (2001:58), Constructivist Theory views students as active participants in the construction of knowledge or understanding of meaning under

proper facilitation and coaching from the teacher. In a paper presented in the proceedings of the IEE International Conference on Advanced Learning Techniques in 2001, Li captures the precepts of Constructivism:

Constructivism is a philosophical view about knowledge, understanding, and learning. Constructivism holds that learning is a process of building up structures of experience. By contrast with the traditional view of education as involving the transmission of knowledge from teachers to students, a constructivist view believes that learning occurs through a process in which learners play active roles in constructing the set of conceptual structures that constitute their own knowledge base.

The above explanation places a considerable emphasis on the active role learners can play in the learning process. Students are viewed as active constructors of knowledge, understanding and meaning through involvement, observation, discovery, critical interpretation, reflection and interaction. Generally, as Li summarizes, the following principles underpin Constructivism:

- Knowledge is constructed, not transmitted.
- Knowledge construction is embedded in the learner's interest [related to positive attitude] and personally meaningful activities.
- Learners take active roles in developing their environment.
- Social interaction is an important factor in the construction of knowledge.

As the last principle implies, knowledge construction is not only an individual enterprise, but it also requires social or cooperative actions which help generate diverse array of ideas and multiple interpretations that are contested and eventually negotiated. This argument leads to the Social Constructivist version of Constructivism. The Social Constructivist view posits that the interaction between the student and others (e.g. teachers and peers) should be the focus of theoretical explanation and language instruction (Brown 2007:304-105). Accordingly, the language classroom is not a venue where learners receive the teacher's wisdom, but a space where meaningful social interactions are practised. That is why Brown claims that teachers, materials writers and curriculum developers should create suitable contexts for learners to be actively involved in meaningful interaction with high motivation, exercising self-regulation and control over the task. In this view, reading is seen as an activity that involves students in

active extraction of meaning from a written text. The teacher plays “the essential role of a facilitator or guide with the scaffolding diminishing in proportion to the students’ increasing knowledge, so that students develop self-direction and autonomy” (Alexander & Fox 2004:48).

As explained above, Constructivism views students as active agents in the learning process: they are conceptualized as active constructors of knowledge, understanding or meaning. To play this role successfully, they should, among other things, possess threshold ability (organized in the form of reading comprehension ability and schematic knowledge), employ appropriate learning strategies, show positive attitude towards the learning task, demonstrate appropriate motivation (shaped by goal orientation and self-efficacy beliefs), have access to a variety of resources and participate in meaningful interactions with others (e.g. teachers and peers) regarding their reading. In addition, since knowledge or understanding is slowly constructed, students should be involved in persistent practice of the learning task (e.g. self-initiated out-of-class reading). In fact, Constructivism capitalizes the role of teacher scaffolding in student-centered learning. In support of this, Harries and Graham (1994:233) underline that teaching approaches with constructivist orientation embrace strategy-based instruction and teacher scaffolding. Thus, in the Constructivist Theory, students’ schematic knowledge, strategic thinking, attitude, motivation, access to resources and persistent involvement, along with sufficient teacher scaffolding, are considered vital in reading instruction. These variables are the major determinants of independent reading in general and independent EFL in particular.

Generally, the theories described above differ in their views of the role of students in the learning process. In the behaviourist view, students do not have any control over the content, pace and style of their learning. The Behaviourist Theory is not thus adequate to account for independent EFL reading which requires adequate learner empowerment. Secondly, although the input-driven theory of Nativism considers readers as playing the active role of constructing meaning based on sufficient textual information, it cannot explain independent EFL reading since it does not seem to recognize the roles of learner factors (prior knowledge,

strategic information processing), formal instruction and teaching materials. The third one, i.e. Cognitive Theory also fails to explain independent EFL reading fully. This is because it does not take account of higher order strategies such as planning, deliberate execution and self-assessment in learning (Cleg 2004:293). Learner attributes like attitude and intrinsic motivation which affect the development of independent reading skills are not also sufficiently addressed in this theory. It is, therefore, the Constructivist Theory that offsets the drawbacks of these three theories pertaining to independent reading.

The Constructivist Theory incorporates the view of language as communication and is learner-focused. Since this theory recognizes the value of strategic thinking and the role of teaching materials as sources of input (contents and tasks), it encompasses the precepts advanced by Cognitive and Nativist theorists respectively. This theory also fits within the notion of engaged reading (Alexander & Fox 2004:50) which emphasizes the role of learners' goals, strategic thinking, motivation and self-regulation in their reading of academic texts, self-access print materials, hypertexts and hypermedia resources. This study is thus closely aligned to the Constructivist Theory of learning which recognizes the role of learners' characteristics (attitude towards the learning task, self-regulation through strategic thinking, learning motivation and persistence in the learning task), the role of teacher scaffolding, the need for access to a selection of learning resources and the role of cooperative learning (social construction of meaning), this study is closely aligned to it. Within this framework, the following sub-sections discuss theories of language, the nature of reading and views of reading followed by sections on independent reading and the conceptual framework of the study respectively.

2.1.1. Theories of Language

This sub-section emerges from the theoretical framework explained in section 2.1 above. The sub-section discusses the acquisition-learning distinction and the concept of English as a Foreign Language. Then, it leads to the sub-section which deals with the nature of reading.

2.1.1.1. The Acquisition-Learning Distinction

A distinction is often made between language acquisition and language learning. The acquisition of a new language takes place informally outside the classroom. That is, learners have sufficient exposure to the target language and are involved in fluency activities that help them to develop communicative competence. In the acquisition process, acquirers are not much aware of grammatical rules but have a feel for correctness due implicit exposure to rules in use. On the contrary, language learning is undertaken in formal classroom contexts where students learn about the new language in accuracy-focused instructional scenarios. The distinction between second language acquisition and second language learning is elucidated in Stephen Krashen's Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis.

The Acquisition-Learning Distinction Hypothesis posits: "... adults have two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language" (Krashen 1982:10). These are acquisition and learning. Second language acquisition is similar with the way children acquire competence in their first language. First language (L₁) acquisition does not involve explicit instruction, and children develop first language competence without knowing that they are learning the language. Similarly, second language (SL) acquisition is a sub-conscious and an implicit process. The acquirers are normally not conscious of the rules of the languages being learned; they do not learn the rules consciously but have a feel for correctness. Contrary to acquisition, learning refers to conscious mastery of SL rules, i.e. explicit awareness of grammar and ability to talk about them. In this form of developing SL competence, there can be a tendency of learning more about the language instead of developing communicative competence in the language.

A closer look at the acquisition-learning distinction shows that acquisition takes place in input-rich and anxiety-free situations whereas learning carried out in input-scarce classroom contexts is often influenced by affective variables such as attitude, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. This concerns the issue of the Affective Filter Hypothesis. The affective filter is understood as a mental block that prevents input from reaching the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Accordingly, this hypothesis posits that learners with low affective filter

(positive attitude, high motivation, high self-confidence and low anxiety) generally do better in SL learning which leads to acquisition. Conversely, high affective filter (negative attitude, low motivation, lack of self-confidence and high anxiety) results in poor SL performance which may not lead to acquisition (Krashen 1982:31). It follows that while learning English as L₁ is characterized by the existence of low affective-filter, high affective filter can be experienced in learning ESL and EFL, with the latter being more anxiety-provoking.

Learning a foreign language can pose a considerable degree of challenge on students due to lack of exposure to the language. The challenge can result in cognitive, linguistic and psychological difficulties. Lack of ability in the foreign language can thus cause poor performance which leads to high affective filter, i.e. negative attitude, low motivation, decreased self-confidence and debilitating anxiety. These in turn erode students' success in the language learning endeavor (Stevick 1976, as cited in Krashen 1981:39). Therefore, the learning of English as a foreign language takes place in a high affective filter situation although the severity of the filter varies with specific contexts, student predispositions, types of learning task and task difficulty. In this case, one can assume that the learning of ESL differs from that of EFL. However, Harmer (2007:11) takes a more cautious view of the issue in the following excerpt:

However, this distinction [between EFL and ESL] begins to look less satisfactory when we look at the way people use English in a global context. The use of English for international communication, especially with the Internet means that many EFL students are in effect living in a global target-language community and so might be thought as ESL students instead! Partly as a result of this we now tend to use the term **ESOL** (English for Speakers of Other Languages) to describe both situations. Nevertheless, the context in which the target language is learnt (what community they wish to be part of) is still of considerable relevance to the kind of English they will want and need to study, and the skills they will need to acquire.

The above argument highlights the diminishing status of the distinction between ESL and EFL. This argument can be acceptable in the sense that English continues to serve as the lingua franca of the world (Harmer 2001:1), but it does not represent EFL learning contexts where the internet is not inadequately accessible. Whatever stance one may take about the ESL-EFL distinction, it is agreeable that English is learned as a new language in both cases.

Thus, the teaching of a new language should deal with students' behavioural, cognitive and affective constructs appropriately. That is why finding the best method of teaching a new language has been at the center of theoretical arguments. At this point, it seems necessary to look into the issue of English as a foreign language which is more relevant to the focus of the study.

2.1.1.2. English as a Foreign Language

The term 'foreign language' designates a language that is not the native language of a particular community, and is not broadly used as a medium of communication in government offices, businesses and the media. Therefore, foreign language instruction aims to equip students with basic communicative skills in the language being learned (Eugen, Provenzo & Provenzo 2009:131). A foreign language is typically taught as a school subject to enable students to communicate with speakers native to the language or read materials written in it. This phenomenon fairly fits in the Ethiopian context where English is taught as a subject from the first grade and is also the chief medium of instruction in high schools and universities, i.e. in public and non-public institutions alike.

The teaching of English as a foreign language is primarily classroom-based. In Ethiopia, a country of diverse ethnic and linguistic composition, the majority of the students come to the EFL classroom with varied first language backgrounds (Amharic, Afan Oromo, Guragigna, Tigrigna and others). However, the students' exposure to English is mainly confined to the classroom. Therefore, learning English as a foreign language poses some challenges attributable to cognitive, linguistic and psychological constraints. For example, EFL learners do not usually possess sufficient linguistic repertoire to rely on especially in speaking and writing. Additionally, most often, they struggle with difficult words, unfamiliar expressions and complex sentence structures. This complicates their reading comprehension efforts by creating an intense cognitive load requiring students to apply several problem solving strategies (Hein 2010:121) including reading strategies. The strong cognitive load caused by linguistic difficulty can also affect students' attitude towards learning English and their motivation to learn it.

Thus, learners of English as a foreign language differ from learners of the language in other contexts in their background experience, attitude, motivation, perseverance and access to resources. Affirming this assertion, a synthesis of studies on Japanese students' EFL writing showed that these students' writing performance differed considerably between their first language (L_1) and the English language (EFL). Their writing ability in the EFL was lower than their writing performance in the L_1 due to variations in their previous experiences, the writing strategies they used and the confidence they possessed in writing in the two languages (Manchon 2009:50). The study concluded that students' low writing ability in the foreign language can affect their attitude towards writing, motivation to write, persistence in writing practice and efforts to access available support materials. By implication, independent reading among EFL students at different levels is prone to the influence of these variables. That is, EFL students' attitude towards reading, motivation to read, use of reading strategies, perseverance in reading and access to reading resources considerably determine their involvement in independent reading. Therefore, studies that focus on the practice of independent EFL reading among a certain group of students should take account of these factors without neglecting their comprehension ability levels.

2.1.2. The Nature of Reading

Reading is generally viewed as a means of obtaining information through the process of extracting meanings from printed or electronic texts. Therefore, reading ability is important in academics since it forms a foundation for learning at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. Obviously, a student's academic success is profoundly determined by his/her reading ability (Butler, et al. 2010:1). It is therefore believed that enabling learners to develop reading comprehension skills is the primary goal of reading teachers and experts. Reading is a goal-driven activity that takes place in a variety of contexts (Haworth, Turner & Whitely 2004:66). It is usually conceived as a complex mental action of making sense of written features in order to work out meanings from written texts. This definition coincides with the cognitive perspective of reading that argues: "...comprehension was a dynamic process involving the purposive construction of meaningful representations of text in working

memory” (Harrison & Perry 2004:89). Thus, reading involves comprehension, which is an active process of communication. That is, it is a means of sharing information between the writer and the reader through a text medium. In other words, reading comprehension is an act of parsing, creating, constructing and confirming meaning (Lanning 2012:1). It follows that unless students are able to extract the meanings of texts, relate new information with their prior knowledge, and understand/integrate the words, phrases, paragraphs and ideas in the text, they are hardly reading (Combs 2012:181). This fact is also captured in the work of McNamara (2007:28-29) who writes:

Comprehension means different things to different people. Indeed, comprehension is not a unitary phenomenon but rather a family of skills and activities.... The different types of comprehension share a common core process. A general component in many definitions of comprehension is the interpretation of the information in the text, the use of prior knowledge to interpret this information and ultimately, the construction of a coherent representation or picture in the reader’s mind of what the text is about.... This representation is the foundation from which the reader can retell the story, apply knowledge that has been acquired from the text, identify the theme, and so on.

It is also worth noting that reading is invariably a purposeful and developmental process, which involves two levels: low level processing and deep level processing (McNamara 2007: xi). While low level processing signifies structural and phonemic recognition, word and sentence structure identification and associating them with the respective sounds, at a deeper level, it refers to semantic processing. Semantic processing designates interpretation which occurs when the reader construes the meaning of a written text and relates it to his/her background knowledge or experience. According to McNamara, at this level, the reader endeavors to comprehend the underlying meaning of the sentences, the paragraphs and the entire text. Thus, comprehension of this level denotes the capacity to go beyond the words, to understand the ideas and to work out the associations between ideas conveyed in the text being read. Therefore, we need to explicitly address one or the other of these levels when we discuss the subject of reading.

The notion of reading as involving two levels of information processing had been discussed widely by Mercer and Mercer (1989:334-336) far long before McNamara wrote about it.

Mercer and Mercer classify these two basic processes as decoding and comprehension. As these authors elaborate, the decoding process involves understanding the “phoneme-grapheme relationship and translating printed words into a representation similar to oral language”. Therefore, decoding skills allow the reader to articulate words precisely. On the other hand, comprehension skills help the reader to work out meanings of words in isolation from context and to construct meanings from a written text. Generally, reading is viewed as involving word recognition skills and comprehension skills. It was with this realization that Mercer and Mercer proposed the following schematic sketch of the organization of reading skills:

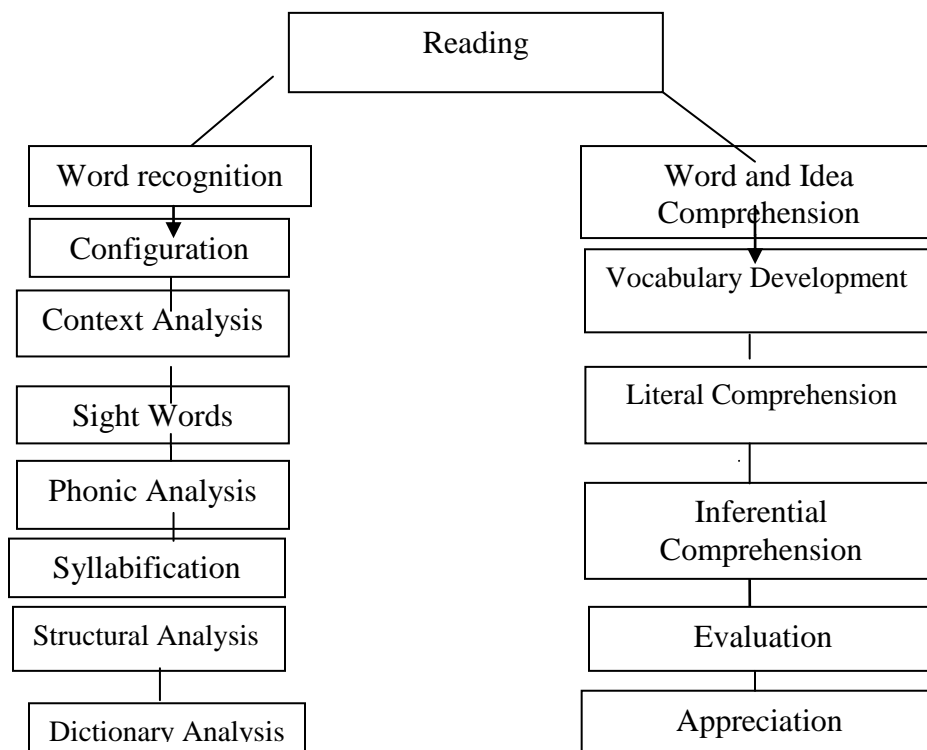


Figure 2.1: Organization of Reading Skills

Source: *Teaching Students with Learning Problems*, P₃₃₄ (3rd Ed.), by Mercer & Mercer, 1989

As shown in the sketch, word recognition requires configuration, context analysis, sight word identification, phonic analysis, syllabification, structural analysis and dictionary analysis. Configuration is the recognition of letter shapes, word lengths, capital letters and letter heights which aid struggling readers (Cunningham & Shagoury 2005:5). In context analysis, the reader guesses meanings of unfamiliar terms using contextual cues (e.g. familiar

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words/phrases, semantic/grammatical clues and pictures). While sight words include familiar words which the reader recognizes easily, phonic analysis denotes the process of decoding words by word-sound combination depending on certain phonological rules. This is important because to be fluent in reading, children must be able to integrate their phonemic awareness skills into phonic principles (sound–symbol relationships), and practise reading to develop automatic and accurate orthographic word recognition abilities (Lyon 1999, as cited in Westby 2007:74). In structural analysis, the reader perceives meaningful chunks (e.g. root words, prefixes, suffixes, possessives, compound words and plurals), rather than concentrating on discrete sounds, to ensure faster reading rate. On the one hand, while syllabification is the process of breaking words up into constituent parts and assigning meanings to individual components, dictionary analysis concerns the use of pronunciation keys/symbols that are provided in dictionaries or glossaries. Generally, although word recognition may not signify reading comprehension that involves deeper level discourse processing, it is an important aspect of reading that learners of English as a new language should develop at the initial stages of learning (Goldenberg & Coleman 2010:43).

As Mercer and Mercer elaborate, reading comprehension includes vocabulary development, literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, evaluation and appreciation. Vocabulary development refers to the process of building one's word knowledge through exposure to reading materials, contact with users of the new language and practice of word-attack skills. Secondly, literal comprehension refers to the recognition and recall of information explicitly stated in a reading passage. Skimming a text to determine the gist, scanning a passage to locate specific information, recalling for important details, recognizing the sequence of events and finding answers to specific questions are instances of literal comprehension (Phipps & Gonzalez 2004:138). The third, inferential/interactive comprehension, pertains to endeavours to determine what the writer means by what he/she says (Patel & Jain 2008:116). It involves the reader in reading between the lines and making predictions, identifying causal relationships and associating textual information with previously acquired information (Westby 2002:77; Gupalakrishnan 2011:51). Inferential comprehension thus requires reasoning, relating background knowledge to what is being read and applying knowledge

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about text structure. Fourthly, evaluation involves the skill of making judgments on accuracy, acceptability, plausibility and validity of the author's arguments (Wallace & Wray 2011:29). Finally, appreciation relates to the reader's emotional and aesthetic reactions (e.g. excitement, fear, boredom and anger) towards the text in concern (Mackenzle 2002:93; Glenberg 2011:7).

Thus, detailed reading comprehension requires the reader's active involvement in guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words (vocabulary development), creating meaning from a written text (literal and inferential comprehension), evaluating the message in the text being read (evaluation) and expressing personal impressions (appreciation) about the information the writer is conveying. One logical argument that arises from this notion is that the text is not the sole determinant of reading comprehension. This is because it is the reader's ability to make an accurate account of a text that determines the ultimate success in his/her comprehension of the text (Broek et al. 2009:108). This fact is explicated in the definition of reading proposed by Snow (2002:11): "We define reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. We use the words *extracting* and *constructing* to emphasize both the importance and the insufficiency of the text as a determinant of reading comprehension". The literature also emphasizes that reading comprehension is a multifaceted process that is shaped by three interdependent elements (the reader, the text and the context) as depicted in the following figure:

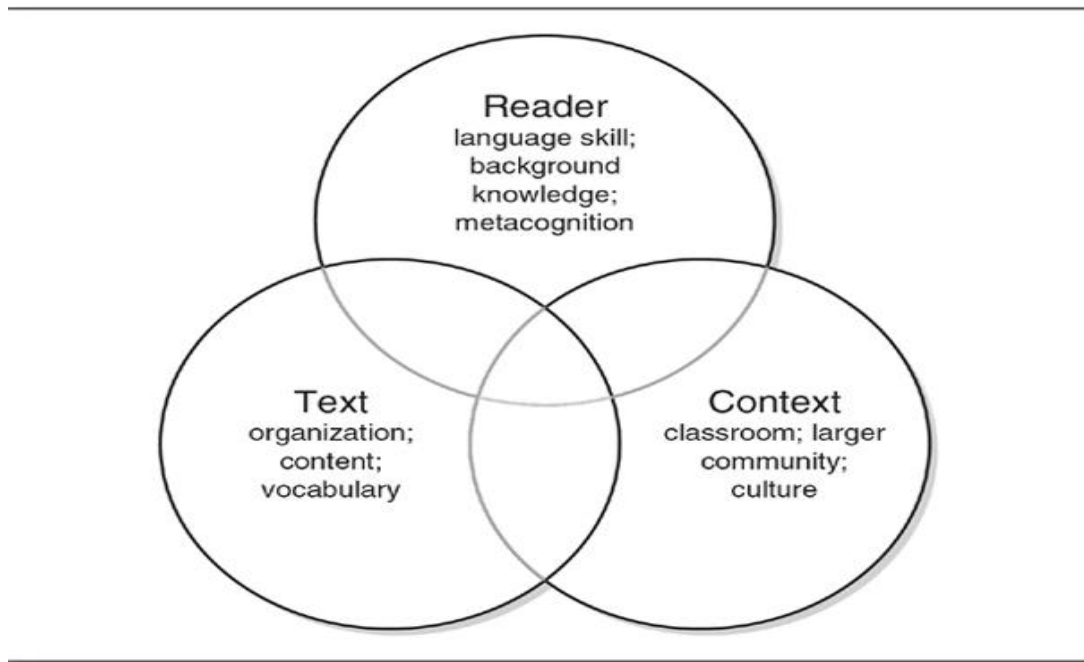


Figure 2.2: *Elements that Affect Reading Comprehension*

Source: *Assessing and addressing literacy needs: Cases and instructional strategies focus on comprehension, P183, by Combs 2012*

2.1.2.1. The Reader

A reader can be defined as a person who decodes, analyzes and interprets information in a reading text with the primary aim of uncovering its meaning. The reader is the one who is responsible for comprehending a text to achieve a specific purpose. Obviously, to comprehend a text, the reader has to possess a wide array of abilities. As Snow (2002:13) elaborately discusses, these include cognitive capacities (attention, memory, critical analysis, inferencing, visualization), motivation (purpose for reading and reading self-efficacy), and various types of knowledge (vocabulary, domain and topic knowledge, linguistic and discourse knowledge, knowledge of specific comprehension strategies), which depend on the texts being read and the type of activities that are selected. At this point, it should be noted that the limited linguistic and discourse ability EFL learners possess due to inadequate exposure to the English language can result in poor attitude, low motivation and thus deficient reading ability. Students in such contexts therefore require special instruction such

as effective reading strategy training so that they can develop as independent readers. Combs (2012:182-183) also affirms the view that the reader plays an active role in the comprehension process. This author categorizes the constructs the reader brings to the reading process into three: oral language and vocabulary development, background knowledge and reading motivation.

The argument forwarded in favour of oral language and vocabulary development is that children who acquire ample expressive skills and vocabulary knowledge early are likely to face less reading comprehension challenges in their later lives. Thus, in EFL contexts like Ethiopia, English language teachers should make meaningful efforts to enable their students to develop expressive skills and vocabulary learning strategies as early as possible. The implication of this is that EFL teaching requires availing resources such as audio visual materials for communication and implementing deep oral literacy activities depicting rich reading cultures. Doing so helps students to become independent EFL readers late in their schooling and in their real lives, too. The second reader-related variable, background knowledge, is also important in shaping reading comprehension. Proficient readers integrate their prior knowledge with the contents of what they are reading. This helps them to engage with the text meaningfully, make reasoned inferences, create images and formulate questions which they get answered as they read along. Conversely, struggling readers use limited background knowledge and achieve little in their reading comprehension. The third reader construct is reading motivation which subsumes reading goal and reading self-efficiency. It is believed that successful readers possess positive attitude, read with a clear purpose and have positive self-efficacy beliefs which enable them to persevere with challenging texts. Such readers also employ a variety of successful strategies selectively and control their reading progress, i.e. they exercise self-regulation in their reading. Good reading comprehension ability, positive reading attitude, appropriate reading motivation and effective reading strategy use along with sufficient access to relevant texts help students to become independent reading.

Overall, the reader is integral to the reading comprehension process. Firstly, the purpose for which one reads significantly impacts on reading comprehension. Secondly, the knowledge, skills and strategies the reader brings to the reading situation such as knowledge of the language, knowledge of the subject matter in the reading text, text processing skills, ability of negotiating meaning, skills of making judgments and capability to use reading comprehension strategies selectively are also important determinants of reading comprehension. Affective constructs like the reader's attitude and motivation also exert a considerable influence on reading comprehension. Obviously, readers differ in their background, preference, motivation and self-regulation (Blachowicz & Ogle 2008:6). These need addressing in classroom instruction. It is when these cognitive and psychological prerequisites come into play constructively that successful reading comprehension occurs. Having said this about the reader, let us now turn to another component of reading comprehension, the text.

2.1.2.2. The Text

A text is a written material (e.g. a manual, a short story, a newspaper, a bulletin, a magazine, a guidebook and a research article available in print or electronically) from which the reader decodes, analyzes and interprets information with the intention of understanding it. Although researchers with a cognitive psychological bias tend to place less emphasis on texts, linguists and applied linguists give them a central position in reading comprehension instruction (Wallace 2003:12). As Wallace points out, the linguistic and sociolinguistic features of texts can baffle or aid especially second language readers, "... who have fewer resources to predict their way through texts". Accordingly, the text (print materials, electronic resources, multimedia documents) is an important agent in reading since its features that include exact wording, meaning-carrying units, discourse markers and nonlinguistic (e.g. figures) items have an important influence on the comprehension process (Guppy & Hughes 1999:14). It is based on such aspects of the text that readers employ different strategies and construct meaning. In fact, texts can be easy or difficult to comprehend depending on the factors inherent in them such as subject matter, vocabulary load, complexity of linguistic structure, discourse style and type of genre on the one hand and the background of the reader on the

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other (Donoghue 2009:172). Therefore, reading instruction should take account of these factors so that obstacles associated with them can be smothered over appropriately.

Since learners have different preferences of texts, reading instruction should strive to cater for their needs and interests in this regard. In other words, students need exposure to a range of reading materials, topics and activities. It follows that a school library or resource center that provides teachers and students with a wide variety of reference books, readers, periodicals and electronic resources is one of the requirements in effective reading comprehension instruction. It is believed that access to diverse materials such as books, print references, newspapers, magazines and electronic materials is vitally important to address the needs and interests of emerging readers, i.e. students (Kaufmann 2003:118). In relation to the importance of various texts in contexts where teachers scaffold reading, Blachowicz and Ogle (2008:47) write:

For instructional guided reading...classrooms should have small-group and large-group sets of books, novels, or commercial anthologies or readers; sets of short stories; and multiple copies of magazines. These sets permit teachers to provide guided reading instruction using a variety of topical materials, and to introduce students to a variety of text structures for school and personal reading. A book or magazine in hand is much more motivating than a fuzzy photocopy, and it also deals appropriately with copyright issues in the school.

Harmer (2001:2001) also takes a similar stance regarding the need for the provision of rich resources. He argues that it is not enough to order students to engage in a lot of reading taking for granted that they can obtain the prescribed readings. He further contends that teachers need to provide their students with appropriate materials, tasks and facilities such as permanent or portable libraries. As Harmer believes, this helps learners to engage in both intensive and extensive readings which enable them to get the most out of their reading. Harmer's explanation thus emphasizes the need for exposing students to a wide selection of texts that help them to engage in persistent reading comprehension activities in accordance with their purpose, interest and preferred time. This in turn initiates them to practise persistent self-initiated reading which ultimately results in life-long independent reading habits.

In sum, since reading comprehension is the result of the interplay among different factors, the interaction between the reader and the text is indispensable: for interpretation and meaning construction to occur, there should be a text that engages the reader. At this point, it is important to stress that readers have distinct preferences of reading materials and topics. This obviously has an important implication for the teaching of reading comprehension. That is, schools and English teachers need to strive to provide their students with a selection of texts (variety in text type, text difficulty and reading tasks) so that the latter read in line with their needs and interests. It is also true that reader-text interaction operates within a particular context since learning in general and learning reading comprehension in particular are context-specific. A brief description of the context of reading comprehension is presented in 2.1.2.3 below.

2.1.2.3. The Reading Context

Reading context can be broadly defined as the social milieu in which a reader operates constrained by the attitude towards reading and the reading culture of the society to which he/she belongs. Traditionally, reading comprehension has been conceived as a cognitive activity undertaken individually. This view presupposes a solitary author endeavouring to create meaning to be unpacked by a solitary reader (Baynham 1995:4). However, reading comprehension is determined not only by the writer and the reader, but the context in which the text is created and interpreted also plays a role in the process. This is because demographic, social, political and other contextual variables exert a considerable impact on the process and outcome of learning (Nieto 2010). Affirming this claim, Lehtonen (2000:116) writes: “Contexts play an essential role in what has traditionally been described as ‘understanding’ of text”. Thus, reading comprehension is learned within a context that extends beyond the conventional classroom, i.e. students come to the reading act or reading comprehension instruction with varying sociocultural backgrounds.

The discussion in the preceding paragraph emphasizes that reading comprehension can be taken as a sociocultural activity not only because it can be developed through social interactions, but because it is also influenced by how a specific cultural group or discourse

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community interprets the world and communicates information (Klaas & Trudell 2011:25; Gregory 2008:27-70). Differences in sociocultural variables such as income, race, ethnicity, native language or neighborhood are believed to substantially influence students' purpose for reading, the way they view reading, their view of themselves as readers and their preference of texts. Snow (2002:17) clearly explains this fact in the following excerpt:

The effects of contextual factors, including economic resources, class membership, ethnicity, neighborhood, and school culture, can be seen in oral language practices, in students' self-concepts, in the types of literacy activities in which individuals engage, in instructional history, and, of course, in the likelihood of successful outcomes. The classroom-learning environment (such as organizational grouping, inclusion of technology, or availability of materials) is an important aspect of the context that can affect the development of comprehension abilities.

The principal argument forwarded in favour of the view that reading comprehension is constrained by contextual factors is that schooling, literacy instruction and reading are understood differently by different social groups (Alexander 2000:5). In other words, due to the existence of shared ideas, values, habits, customs, world views and cultural beliefs that distinguish one country, region or community from others, there are context-specific conceptualizations of reading and readers (Wallace 2003:8). As Wallace expounds, vernacular literacy practices (e.g. Quran reading), which go beyond the realms of the classroom, can have bearings on reading comprehension instruction due to the interrelationships between home and school. Wallace goes on to elaborate that reading comprehension is a social process in the sense: 1) authors and readers perform their roles as members of a particular community and, 2) reading occurs in a social context-both immediate (the classroom or the school setting) and wider (e.g. a particular community or country). This strengthens the view that reading comprehension is a shared process with an intricate relationship between text writers, text receivers (the teacher as a mediator and students as readers) and the text itself. Each of these elements is constrained by sociocultural variables as explicated in the following description extracted from Franz (2008:329):

It [reading] is a complex social activity that involves multiple levels of social meaning, including the reader's identity, the classroom context, the author's identity, and the role of the text in any given social group. The culturally situated nature of

reading recognizes that both readers and authors are members of specific social communities that shape their perceptions, attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs. Adolescents need teacher, peer, and whole-class relationships that support their development as sophisticated readers and thinkers.

It is held that effective adolescent reading comprehension instruction should provide them with opportunities to interact with others. The implication of this assertion for classroom instruction is that mature readers need to be engaged in meaningful discussions in which their enquiries and contributions are valued. However, the social dimension of reading is not confined to classroom discussions since it can involve writing and other methods of conveying information that can be performed out of the classroom setting. Thus, readers need to be “engaged in interaction that deepens their understanding of texts and helps them to recognize the social, political, and historical content and purposes within texts” (Franz 329:329). This evidently requires a more engaged critical and reflective reading approach which, along with reader persistence and perseverance, can lead to independent reading. Therefore, the view of reading as a process of meaning extraction constrained by the social context fits in the Constructivist Theory of learning which informs this study.

In the Ethiopian context where English is not employed abundantly for social, political, business and other intercourses, EFL reading is initiated and practised in the classroom primarily for academic purposes. Therefore, teachers who seek to create life-long independent EFL readers in this situation should consistently scaffold out-of-class engaged reading by fostering positive attitude, appropriate motivation and effective use of reading strategies. In this way, they can play a meaningful role in nurturing a generation of readers in the country where there is a growing concern about the decline in the reading culture of the nation. In fact, students should also work for the development of their own reading comprehension abilities by constantly engaging in self-initiated reading outside the classroom. Therefore, it can be argued that the growth of independent EFL reading among students in Ethiopian schools cannot be realized without the concerted efforts of English language teachers and students themselves.

The conception of reading comprehension as an activity determined by contextual variables has some pedagogical bearings for reading comprehension teachers to draw on. Firstly, teachers must find out and respond to students' reading goals upon which sociocultural variables have an influence. Secondly, it is important that teachers identify and build on students' background knowledge, reading experiences and expectations which are context-driven. Thirdly, it is crucial that teachers expose students to a wide range of texts, topics and activities to address their reading needs, interests and preferences. In a more student-centered classroom, teachers can allow students to bring their own selections of reading materials that meet contextual requirements. In addition, it is useful to engage students in cooperative construction of meaning in carefully organized social groupings (pairs or groups) so that they can slowly move away from the direct control of the teacher. It is also beneficial for students if they engage in persistent critical and reflective reading which can ultimately enable them to take charge of their reading. In these ways, teachers can teach reading comprehension based on a more holistic orientation that embraces cognitive, psychological, linguistic and social perspectives.

2.1.3. Views of Reading Process

Reading process is a course of interaction between a writer (source of message) and a reader (receiver of message) in which the latter extracts textual meaning created by the former. Views of reading process focus either on the text, the reader or both the text and the reader. Yet, the intention of the reader to read gives another dimension to our view of the reading process. On these bases, there are four views of reading: the bottom-up view (traditional view), the top-down view (cognitive view), the interactive view (metacognitive view) and the transactional view. The bottom-up view is text-based while the top-down view is reader-focused. On the other hand, whereas the interactive view integrates the bottom-up and the top-down views based on the assumption that efficient reading requires the interaction of the two approaches, the transactional model expands on this view. These approaches to reading are briefly detailed below.

2.1.3.1. Bottom-up View

Bottom-up reading refers to text-based reading in which the reader identifies written symbols and processes them to comprehend the information in a text. The main precept of the bottom-up view is that reading is primarily an act of decoding a set of written symbols and matching them with their sound equivalents (Riley 2006:68). That means, readers begin translating letters into speech sounds, put the sounds together to create individual words and combine words together to work out the message conveyed in the text. As Nunan (1989:64) stresses, the reader processes individual letters as he/she comes across them, matches these letters with the phonemes of the language and puts the phonemes together to form words. The creation of meaning is therefore the ultimate process in which the reader translates the language from one form of symbolic representation to another. Accordingly, teachers who advocate the bottom-up view usually teach sub-skills in isolation, i.e. they introduce alphabets and equivalent sounds, carry on to whole-word pronunciation and deal with ways of connecting meaningful chunks to comprehend a text.

The bottom-up (text-based) view of reading has an important place in reading comprehension. It is mainly used in early reading because pupils have “an early understanding of one-to-one correspondence as well as an excellent memory and sensitivity for words...” (Gregory 2008:161). It has been established through research that phonological processing skills bear causal relationships with the acquisition of reading skills (Das 2009:158). Thus, students who encounter difficulties in phonological processing will face challenges in comprehending sentences and larger texts (Riley 2006:68). Bottom-up reading is also applicable to mature reading since it is by understanding and linking the meanings of phonemes and words on a page or screen that readers can make sense of larger texts. Therefore, the bottom-up view of reading soundly explains the decoding part of reading comprehension.

However, the bottom-up approach fails to fully explain the reading process (Nunan 1989:65). For example, it does not pay a systematic attention to the role of the reader in the reading process. While decoding visual information is a necessary aspect of reading, it is too

mechanical to be sufficient to account for all that takes place during reading comprehension. On the one hand, comprehension is a selective process, and on the other, readers use resources in their cognitive repertoire to work out meanings from a written text. Supporting this assertion, Hall, Larson and Marsh (2009:102) write: "...reading is meaning seeking, selective and constructive. Inference and prediction are central. Readers use the least amount of available text information necessary in relation to their existing linguistic and conceptual schemata to get to meaning". Therefore, there should be a complementary approach that explains the role the reader's background knowledge and experience play in the reading process. This is the top-down view of reading which is turned to in 2.1.3.2 below.

2.1.3.2. Top-down View

Top-down reading is a type of reading in which the reader utilizes his/her background knowledge considerably to comprehend a given text. Therefore, the top-down view of reading emphasizes the role the reader's knowledge, experience and skills play in text comprehension. This model is centered on the belief that comprehension goes beyond symbol recognition and that background knowledge shapes the understanding of the reader in the reading process. Accounting for the top-down view of reading, Wholey (2000:xiii) writes the following tips:

Top-down processes are those that the reader applies to understand globally. Readers use their background of the reading topic and make predictions about what they expect to find out from reading. Readers confirm their predictions and begin to build a mental framework of the information in the reading selection. Awareness of rhetorical patterns, such as chronological ordering, cause and effect, and other discourse features, aids in the comprehension of information from reading.

Along with the view that reading comprehension requires more than recognizing the print symbols on a page emerged a theoretical underpinning called 'schema theory' which provides explanations of the way background knowledge shapes reading comprehension. This theory postulates that the reader's prior knowledge and experience play a key role in facilitating comprehension. Schema theory accounts for how readers combine incoming information from the text with existing cognitive constructs of conditions, situations, events

or phenomena (Widdowson 1983:34, as cited in Wallace 2003:22; Harrison & Perry 2004:65; Brickman, Rhodes & Bushman 2007:732). The following excerpt taken from Nunan (1989:68) captures the essence of schema theory:

Like the frame theory [a theory which posits that human memory consists of sets of stereotypical situations or frames which guide comprehension by providing a framework for making sense of new experiences], schema theory suggests that the knowledge we carry around in our head is organized into interrelated patterns. These are constructed from our previous experience of the experiential world and guide us as we make sense of new experiences. They also enable us to make predictions about what we might expect to experience in a given context. Given the fact that discourse comprehension is a process of utilizing linguistic cues and background knowledge to construct meaning, these schemata are extremely important, particularly to second and foreign language learners.

Thus, the top-down view of reading, along with its theoretical underpinning i.e. schema theory, has important implications for the teaching of reading comprehension. The exponents of this view believe that, instead of teaching students to read by verbalizing each word, teachers should train them to read the whole text. This enables students to utilize context clues to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words, to give attention to the main message of the entire passage and to count on their background knowledge to decipher the meanings of unfamiliar words and understand new concepts in the whole text (Lehtonen 2000:121). Therefore, the top-down view allows for more student involvement in the reading process than the bottom-up approach does. However, this view cannot be considered a panacea for all the quests concerning reading comprehension. As a result, it had to face certain criticisms.

A severe criticism was leveled at the top-down view for its neglect of the need to focus on individual letters and words which constitute the visual information on the page. It is argued that even skilled readers attend to individual letters and words in the pursuit of making sense of written texts. It is with this understanding that Hall, Larson and Marsh (2009:203) note that research in the 1980s proved that skilled readers closely attend to letters and words in their reading. These authors go on to argue that it is the less skilled readers who depend more profoundly on contextual clues to support their reading. The strongest argument these authors forward is that fluent readers concentrate on individual words as they read, looking closely at

the letters in words when needs arise. Hall, Larson and Marsh also firmly hold that a good reader processes nearly “every letter in every word, very rapidly and very accurately”. Nevertheless, the top-down view of reading misses this fact, and explains the nature of reading comprehension only partially. Therefore, a broader view that integrates both the bottom-up and the top-down views and forms a wider perspective of the reading process is needed. This is the interactive view of reading process.

2.1.3.3. Interactive View

The interactive view is an approach which considers reading as a process in which text-based (bottom-up) and reader-based (top-down) approaches operate in an interactive manner in the reading process. That is, this view merges the bottom-up and the top-down views and considers the reading process as an interaction between the reader and the text (Donoghue 2009:170). This view advances: “Fluent reading is an interactive process in which information is used from several knowledge sources simultaneously (letter recognition, letter-sound relationships, vocabulary, knowledge of syntax and meaning” (Hall, Larson & Marsh 2009:203). Advocates of the interactive view of reading contend that the various sub-skills of reading can be used together in a compensatory fashion. Put simply, the use of bottom-up (text-based) reading and top-down (reader-based) reading together will result in better comprehension. For instance, higher level processes can compensate for the limitations of lower level processes, i.e. readers with poor word recognition skills may rely more on contextual factors which provide them with additional sources of information. Thus, the interactive view has been generally favoured by many literacy educators as a valid approach to teaching the key skills of reading (Hall, Larson & Marsh 2009:204).

In summary, the interactive view embraces the bottom-up view which considers the text as a premium of meaning and the top-down view which gives more emphasis to the reader’s background knowledge. The application of bottom-up reading and top-down reading complementarily has been proved to result in better comprehension. However, the interactive view can be criticized for certain limitations. Firstly, while it integrates the language focused view of reading advanced by the bottom-up model and the cognitive view of reading

advocated by the top-down model, it fails to provide systematic explanation for the roles the reading context, the reader's motivation, his/her personal goals and his/her self-efficacy beliefs play in reading comprehension. Secondly, because of undue focus on the individual reader, this approach does not seem to offer adequate explanation regarding cooperative reading. This model, though broader than each of the models preceding it, cannot provide a comprehensive-enough account about the nature of reading comprehension. Thus, there still is another view, the transactional view, which extends the interactive view into a broader perspective.

2.1.3.4. The Transactional View of Reading

As Donoghue (2009:170) points out, the transactional model is an elaborate version of the interactive view which takes into consideration the reader's intentions (purposes) for reading and gives details on how these intentions exert influence on comprehension. This model posits that reading comprehension is influenced by individual, social, environmental and cultural variables. The implication is that the reader's goal (to obtain general information, to prepare for particular examinations or to get enjoyment) must be considered in theoretical explanations, textbook writing and classroom instruction.

Therefore, the transactional model embraces the text, the reader, the reader's intention and the sociocultural context of reading. It is thus more comprehensive than the interactive model which in itself subsumes the precepts of the bottom-up and the top-down views. Besides, the transactional view incorporates the view of reading comprehension as resulting from the interplay between readers, texts and contexts. However, this view, though seemingly uncontested, appears to fail to provide a clear explanation on the roles of learner predispositions such as attitude and motivation in reading comprehension. In addition, it does not appear to give a clear account of the place of the reader's executive skills (planning one's reading, selecting texts of one's preference, evaluating one's own reading progress and taking corrective actions when something goes wrong in reading comprehension). Therefore, the transactional view should be positioned within a broader theoretical framework, the

Constructivist Theory, which includes a wider spectrum of perspectives about reading comprehension.

Reading comprehension is a process in which readers construct meaning from a text within a particular context. As explicated in the transactional view, reading comprehension is an activity that is determined by the factors in the reader, the characteristics of the text and the sociocultural context in which it occurs. The reader comes to the text with schematic knowledge, previous experience and specific reading goals. The reader's affective predispositions such as attitude, preferences and self-efficacy beliefs are also important in the development of reading comprehension skills. All these reader variables can be functional if there is something to read, i.e. a text. Therefore, access to a variety of appropriate texts (reading materials) is a critical requirement in reading comprehension instruction. While the reader and the text are necessary elements of the reading process, they are not sufficient. The sociocultural context in which reading in general and reading instruction in particular take place has an important bearing on comprehension. Therefore, the teaching of reading comprehension should take account of reader constructs, textual factors and contextual variables.

Obviously, the instruction students receive is an important factor in their endeavors to develop their readings skills. That is, cognitive, linguistic and psychological factors that impact on reading comprehension can be addressed through proper training and teacher scaffolding. Put differently, appropriate instruction promotes students' reading comprehension ability while ineffective instruction cannot produce desirable results. Thus, teachers need to help students learn how to become effective readers by developing a variety of strategies which help them comprehend a range of texts. To this effect, they can undertake various activities in the classroom which have repercussions for what students do outside the classroom concerning reading. Encouraging students to use their background knowledge, conducting reading strategy training, selecting a variety of texts to suit varying learner backgrounds and interests, designing appropriate tasks or adapting existing ones, engaging learners in out-of-class extensive reading, identifying and working on students' affective

predispositions (e.g. attitude and motivation) and encouraging them to make decisions (plan, monitor and evaluate their own reading) are among the key activities teachers can carry out to produce effective readers.

Finally, since reading proficiency is a crucial competence in today's world, reading comprehension instruction should enable students to become life-long self-initiated readers by mastering the various reading skills (Broaddus 2002:337; Naeghel, Keer, Vansteenkiste & Rosseel 2012:1018). Therefore, it is vital that EFL reading instruction aim to foster independent reading through teacher scaffolding, student involvement and access to a selection of resources. This highlights the worth of independent reading in academic and real-life situations. Therefore, section 2.2, along with its sub-sections, is devoted to discussing the different aspects of independent reading.

2.2. A Review of Literature on Independent Reading

Independent reading (also called 'voluntary reading', 'leisure reading', 'spare time reading' and 'recreational reading') can be defined as a reading students undertake according to their own purposes, preferences of materials and arrangements of place and time schedule. This happens without the teacher's undue involvement in assigning reading tasks, requiring reports and checking on comprehension (Franz 2008:332). Independent reading requires independent decision, personal choice, and it is undertaken for information or for pleasure (Cullinan2000:1). Independent readers select texts that suit their purpose and interest and engage in persistent self-initiated reading. The ultimate goal of reading instruction should thus be to produce life-long independent readers who can apply skills and strategies acquired in classroom practices to a variety of real-life reading situations (Kasten & Wilfong 2005:657). Although students can develop independent reading habits at home under the guidance and support of parents and/or other family members (International Reading Association 2012:378), in this study, the term 'independent reading' is used to refer to self-initiated reading that is nurtured in the English classroom and grows into a more engaged, personal reading through teacher scaffolding and active learner involvement.

Therefore, the aim of independent reading instruction is attained if students engage in leisure reading activities outside of the classroom in accordance with their own reading goals, selection of reading materials, time schedules and decisions of where to read. That is why fostering out-of-class reading becomes important for primary and secondary school students where teacher scaffolding is indispensable. Accordingly, students should not be hooked to the English textbook and in-class reading only. They rather need to read real-world (authentic texts), i.e. texts they will encounter in their day-to-day lives (Hollingworth & Drake 2012:74-75). Such texts include non-fictions (e.g. biographies, autobiographies, newspapers, magazines and manuals), fictions, electronic texts and hypermedia resources. Hollingworth and Drake underline that teachers, as part of their endeavours to connect classroom reading to real-life reading, should involve students in recreational reading in the classroom and in their school libraries or resource centers. This in turn requires teachers to go beyond the prescribed English textbook and make time for students to search, select and read materials independently.

Although individual sustained silent reading is important in developing independent reading skills, it should be noted that independent reading is not a solitary activity since it also needs a cooperative approach which promotes positive interdependence, individual accountability, group and interpersonal skills and face-to-face interaction (Jolliffe 2007:39). This view emanates from the fact that language learning in general and the learning of reading skills in particular is a cooperative undertaking (Sharan & Shachar 1988:9). Interpersonal cooperation is “a style for direct interaction between at least two parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work toward a common goal” (Friend & Cook 1996:6). It enables students to work in pairs and small groups and construct meanings from written discourses which are constantly negotiated and contested (Gee 1996:136-137). Whole class cooperative workshops which enhance reciprocal dialogue, critical thinking and the explicit teaching of active comprehension (Cullinan 2000:2; Meyer 2010:501) are also beneficial in implementing cooperative reading in which students take charge of their reading while the teacher plays the role of a facilitator. Working in cooperative pairs, groups or whole class arrangements, students set reading goals, engage in cooperative meaning negotiation, give

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and receive feedback, monitor their reading and evaluate their reading progress (Schrader, Stuber & Widwick, 2012:15). Doing these helps students to move away from the direct control of the teacher and eventually become independent readers.

The notion of independent reading draws on the view that students should take responsibility for their own language learning. There has been a strong belief that students must be transformed from passive recipients of knowledge and inputs to life-long autonomous learners (Edwards & Usher 2000:55). This proposal is also linked with the principles underpinning Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which gives precedence to students' active involvement in the process of learning and limits the role of the teacher to that of a facilitator. Leung (2010:8) explains that in CLT contexts, students are required to attend to the various components of communicative competence (grammatical competence, discourse competence, functional competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence), engage in the pragmatic, authentic and functional use of language for meaningful purposes and construct meaning through genuine interaction with others. That is, to read independently and interact with the author meaningfully via the text, students need to apply knowledge, skills and strategies in their repertoire.

In Ethiopia, students are not in a sociolinguistic context where they can pick the English language naturally. They do not have adequate opportunities to use the language for interactions outside the classroom milieu. This generally limits their competence in the various aspects of the language. Particularly, while high school and university students are required to learn through reading texts written in English, the EFL setting in which they are operating can negatively affect their reading comprehension abilities. Deficiencies in reading ability could also reduce their attitude towards EFL reading, their motivation to read and their use of effective reading strategies. Therefore, it is necessary to thwart skill-related, attitudinal, motivational and strategic barriers that impinge on students' self-initiated involvement in EFL reading. On top of this, ensuring that reading instruction is geared towards creating independent readers is vital. To this effect, whereas teachers should work hard to enable students to develop as independent readers, students on their part must

develop their reading abilities, possess the desired level of predisposition, develop the skill of strategic thinking and persevere in independent reading practice. It follows that the extent to which English language teachers scaffold independent reading and students practise it in Ethiopian schools should be researched.

As elucidated in the preceding paragraph, independent reading ability does not occur on its own right. English language teachers should aim to produce students who have the abilities and the desire to engage in life-long self-initiated reading. Firstly, it is necessary that teachers train students on reading strategy use so that the latter can make sound strategic decisions when they read. Secondly, they need to expose students to a variety of real-life readings to enable them to read with genuine purposes, self-select texts which suit their reading purposes and engage in out-of-class leisure reading. This helps teachers to connect classroom reading with out-of-class reading and students to see a genuine link between classroom instruction and the readings they will do in life. In the process of scaffolding, teachers act as models (Harmer 2001:65), facilitators (Savignon 2002:4), resource providers (Kumaravadivelu 2006:120) and assessors (O'Masta & Wolf 1991:660-661). Teacher scaffolding, along with appropriate student predisposition (attitude and motivation), effective strategy use, persistent practice and adequate access to a variety of reading resources enables learners to become life-long independent readers. In fact, these factors are contingent upon students' reading comprehension ability levels which are influenced by their reading strategy use. Therefore, discussions on these factors assume that students have mastered the reading comprehension abilities required for their levels.

2.2.1. Issues in Independent Reading

As discussed in the preceding paragraph, students' attitude towards reading, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in self-initiated reading and access to a selection of reading resources, along with teacher scaffolding, are key factors in developing independent reading. Learner attitude, motivation, strategic thinking, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources are discussed below.

2.2.1.1. Learner Attitude

Attitude refers to ‘valued beliefs’, ‘evaluations’, ‘what one believes is acceptable’, or ‘responses oriented towards approaching or avoiding’ (Wenden 1991:52). Attitude involves the evaluative component, i.e. the like or dislike, agreement or disagreement and approval or disapproval of the attitude issue. One’s attitude plays an important role in learning English language, and it thus occupies a sizable space in the ELT literature. Accordingly, attitude can relate to students’ perceptions about their roles in the learning process or about their abilities as language learners. Students’ perception about learning English plays a considerable part in facilitating or debilitating the learning of this language and the development of independent learning skills. In other words, if students possess a positive attitude towards learning English, they are likely to become willing to utilize all opportunities that help them to learn this language independently and persevere in the learning.

From the forgoing discussion emanates the definition and relevance of reading attitude. Alexander and Filler (1976:1) define reading attitude as “a system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation”. McKenna and Kear (1990:626) on their part hold that students’ attitude towards reading is a crucial factor which influences their reading performance. Similarly, Smith (1988:177) pronounces that one’s perception of reading is an important determinant of whether this person reads or not. According to McKenna, Kear and Ellsworth (1995:934), understanding the role of attitude in reading is vital for two principal reasons. Firstly, it can impact on the reading ability a student eventually acquires since it influences factors such as engagement and perseverance. Secondly, due to poor attitude, proficient readers may decide not to read if they see other options to involve in. The second phenomenon can urge students to seek other ways of obtaining information (Annamalai & Muniandy 2013:39). This deprives them of access to enormous exploration of information that can be made via reading. Generally, reading attitude typically refers to the reader’s likes or dislikes for reading. Students with positive attitude towards reading are motivated to read (Baker & Wigfield 1999:452) and can exploit all opportunities that help them to become independent readers.

Apparently, since readers have individual preferences in virtually all circumstances, they differ in their attitudes towards reading various types of texts. For instance, some readers may have a positive attitude towards reading scientific fictions while others can have a love for romantic fictions (McKenna, Kear & Ellsworth 1995:934). Nevertheless, it is also assumable that individuals possess an inclusive attitude towards reading. From this standpoint, reading attitude is conceptualized to be hierarchical in its nature (Rajecki 1990, as cited in McKenna, Kear & Ellsworth 1995:934). As a result, an individual may have a positive attitude towards reading in general and reading romantic fictions simultaneously. Put simply, although a positive global attitude may not necessarily entail favourable attitude towards all types of reading, it appears that the range of a person's reading interests is intimately linked with his/her global attitude. This has been proven by studies (e.g. McKenna 1986) which documented that a decline in global attitude ultimately results in the deterioration in other types of reading interests.

Generally, since attitude is one of the affective variables that influence learning, it impacts on the development of independent reading habits among a particular group of students. The positive or negative feeling a student has towards reading can develop into a belief system which shapes his/her reading behaviour. In other words, a student's reading attitude determines his/her decisions of whether to approach or avoid reading. Therefore, if students have a positive attitude towards reading in a new language, it is likely that they become willing to utilize all opportunities that help them to read in this language according to their reading purpose and choice of texts. Conversely, if they feel negatively about reading in a new language, they can be reluctant to engage in reading texts written in this language. Thus, attitude is an important determinant of independent reading since it affects factors such as motivation and engagement in self-initiated reading.

As a point of transition, it is useful to account for the relationship between reading attitude and reading motivation. Positive attitude can foster motivation to read, and there appears to be a degree of direct relation between the two factors. With this assumption, some scholars tend to discuss reading attitude as subsuming reading motivation. However, it can be

misleading to treat reading attitude as a causative factor for reading motivation since merely feeling that reading in a new language is worthwhile may not necessarily entail a strong motivation to read (Yamashita 2004:1). Instead, reading attitude and reading motivation should better be explained separately, and whether the former entails the latter needs to be established relative to the particular instructional context. With this in perspective, reading motivation is dealt with on its own right along with its dimensions in 2.2.1.2.

Attitude has a stronger influence on the development of independent reading among foreign language learners. This seems especially true in the Ethiopian English language learning context where students have access to the language mainly in the classroom. Because of limited exposure, these students find learning English difficult, and reading in this language even more so. In addition, ethnic languages are flourishing in Ethiopia more than ever. Different ethnic groups cherish their languages so much that they wish to see them being used as media of instruction at all levels of schooling. The difficulty of learning English poses and the emerging ethnocentric feelings that are prevailing among different ethnic groups may influence students' attitude towards learning English in general and reading in this language in particular. If the influence results in negative attitude, it can be hard to expect students to be motivated to read and become successful independent EFL readers. Therefore, the attitude students in Ethiopian schools hold towards learning English in general and reading texts written in this language in particular should be researched viz-a-viz their practise of independent reading.

2.2.1.2. Learner Motivation

Motivation is often defined as “the enthusiasm, interest, or commitment for doing something” (Combs 2012:225), “a construct of what impels learners to spend the time and effort needed for learning and solving problems” (Gardner 2012:171). It is conceived as a set of complex variables, specifically which combines the effort exerted to learn a new language, the desire to achieve the goal of learning the language and the positive attitudes held towards learning the language (Gardner & Lambert 1970, as cited in Ibrahim 2009:120). Unlike first language acquisition in which acquirers pick up their native language so obviously that they

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do not necessarily need any reinforcement, motivation is imperative in second or foreign language learning. It is believed that high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions (Sternberg 2002:18). That is, successful learning of a new language cannot be envisaged where motivation is lacking. According to Dornyei (2005:65), "It [Motivation] provides the primary impetus to initiate L₂ learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed all the other factors involved in SLA [Second Language Acquisition] presuppose motivation of some sort". By a similar token, Cunningsworth (1984:59) puts the role of motivation in language learning as follows:

Motivation is arguably the most important single factor in success or failure at language learning. A well-motivated student badly taught will probably do better than a poorly-motivated student well taught. Motivation determines the student's level of attention during class, and the assiduity with which he does his homework and revises what has been taught during the day. It certainly has a deep influence on the effectiveness of learning.

Brown (2007:170) also explains that different schools of thought account for motivation based on their theoretical orientations. Likewise, the Behaviourist Theory underlines that motivation is the result of the learner's expectation for external incentives or positive reinforcement. In this view, motivation is beyond the control of the learner since it is manipulated by external forces that provide or prohibit motivators. Secondly, the Cognitive Theory posits that motivation is determined by human needs such as the need for exploration or manipulation. According to this theory, motivation comes from within the individual learner and is determined by the effort he/she exerts to achieve the learning goal. Finally, the Constructivist Theory views motivation as a variable that is dependent on social contexts. That is, although motivation is internal to the learner, it is constantly shaped by the social context in which learning operates. In other words, motivation is no longer considered as a single variable, but it is viewed as a factor constrained by the social and cultural milieu in which learning occurs (Järvelä 2001:4). According to Järvelä, this understanding resulted in a shift of research focus from motivation viz-a-viz learning separately to a very integrated approach underpinned by the contextual perspective.

The terms ‘instrumental orientation’ and ‘integrative orientation’ are frequently used in the ELT literature to label the type of motivational orientation language learners possess. According to Brown (2007:170), instrumental orientation refers to the learning of a language for its benefits to attain instrumental goals such as “furthering career, reading technical materials, translations, etc”. Contrarily, in integrative orientation, learners study a new language in order to identify and interact with speakers native to the language. Students with integrative motivation study a new language not because of external requirements or pressures but due to the interest that arises from within (Hammann 2005:16). It was generally believed for a long time that successful language learning occurs when learners are integratively motivated as the more students admire the culture of the speakers of the target language, enjoy learning this language and take pleasure in reading its literature, the more they will practise using the language through enhanced willingness, commitment and responsibility for their learning. However, as Brown (2007:171) claims, research suggests that integratively motivated language learners are more successful in certain contexts only, but others in other contexts benefit from instrumental motivation. Therefore, it seems vital that teachers understand and work upon the type of motivational orientation their students predominantly possess.

Another way of looking at motivation is by analyzing it into the dimensions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Intrinsically motivated students engage in an activity or task because they take interest in or obtain satisfaction from it, not because it leads to some external rewards (Ryan & Deci 2000:70). In contrast, extrinsic motivation results from the learner’s anticipation of rewards such as money, prizes, increased pay, job enhancement, meeting organizational or academic requirements and positive feedback from others (Naeghel, Keer, Vansteenkiste & Rosseel 2012:1007). Extrinsically motivated students demand positive reinforcement from teachers and/or parents to engage in their lessons. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations can be useful in formal learning. Nevertheless, while the former is “powerful and is likely to lead to deep learning because an intrinsically motivated learner will take every opportunity to satisfy the motivation-driven needs to expand and deepen knowledge” (Ehrman 1996:139), the latter can be short-lived since it can decline

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when the motivators are absent or when the task is completed. That is why the growing body of research favours intrinsic motivation especially in learning contexts where long term effects are envisaged (Noels, et al. 2000; Wu 2003, as cited in Brown 2007:173).

Likewise, motivation has a deep influence on the development of independent reading since the interest to read can be as important as the ability to comprehend. According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:406), motivation is the force that energizes someone to do an activity. Thus, "... even the most able or skillful students may not engage in reading if they lack motivation" (Watkins & Goffey 2004:110). In a similar line of argument, Gambrell, Palmer, Codling and Mazzoni (1996:518) write: "Highly motivated readers are self-directing and generate their own reading opportunities. They want to read and choose to read for a wide range of personal reasons such as curiosity, involvement, social interchange and emotional satisfaction". Thus, as Pitcher et al. (2007:379) point out, reading motivation is a multifaceted construct which impacts on readers' preference of reading materials, readiness to engage in reading and willingness to make efforts to persevere in reading.

The fact that reading motivation is a dimensional construct implies that it can be approached in a variety of ways. As Baker and Wigfield (1999:453) explicate, approaches to studying reading motivation are grounded on the engagement and achievement motivation perspectives. As these authors elaborate, the engagement perspective embraces cognitive, affective and social aspects of reading. This explanation draws on the work of Baker, Afferbach and Reiking (1996:xv) which states: "The engagement perspective views readers as motivated, strategic, knowledgeable and socially interactive". Accordingly, engaged readers are motivated to read independently for various purposes, use prior knowledge to acquire new understanding and actively participate in meaningful social interactions concerning reading. This strengthens arguments which stress that motivation is an important requirement in independent reading although the two can also bear reciprocal relationship.

Motivation theorists put forward that learners' self-efficacy beliefs, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and purpose for achievement play a crucial part in their decisions regarding what tasks or activities to engage in, when to accomplish them and how much effort to invest in

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them (Pintrich & Shunk 1996; Bandura 1997; Eccles, Wigfield, Eccles & Rodriguez 1998; Wigfield & Sciefele 1998, as cited in Baker & Wigfield 1999:453). Obviously, motivated readers have positive attitude towards reading, can coordinate their strategy and knowledge and engage more in self-initiated reading to fulfill their personal goals, desires or intentions (Lau 2009:715). These characteristics, if regularly prevalent, help students to become life-long readers. With this view, there has been a tendency to look into reading motivation in terms of its dimensions of reading goal and reading self-efficacy (Pressley 2002:289). These dimensions are explained below:

a) Reading Goal

Our goals (purposes) in life dictate our actions, and reading is not an exception. The focus and clarity of the goals we set for ourselves influence the extent of our success in attaining the goals. Thus, students' reading goals determine what they read, when and where they read, how frequently they read and how sustainable their self-initiated reading habits can be. Reading goal embraces the constructs of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, goal orientations, and values of reading (Watkins & Coffey 2004:110). Students with intrinsic purposes become curious and interested in a learning activity for its own sake, not for the extrinsic incentives it elicits (Dornyei 2005:76). For these students, the worth of reading takes precedence over the rewards that can be obtained out of it. This urges them to engage in more self-initiated reading due to the desire to read about a subject of interest and the enjoyment they acquire from reading self-selected texts. On the contrary, students with extrinsic purposes read for external reasons such as good results, rewards or positive feedback (Lau 2009:714-715). These students are characterized by the goal orientation of working mainly to perform well in the eyes of others. They tend to involve in competition, work to outperform others and struggle to win the recognition of other parties such as teachers (Baker & Wigfield 1999:454).

Baker and Wigfield, based on the works of Baker et al. (1996) and Guthrie, et al. (1996), also discuss social purpose for reading which draws on the notion of reading as a social activity. The argument raised in this connection is that social factors play an important role in

students' reading achievement. One feature of social purpose for reading is the need for cooperative construction of meaning from a text and for sharing the information obtained from reading with partners and family; the second aspect is compliance, i.e. reading to fulfill the expectations of others such as teachers, parents and so on (Wentzel 1996, as cited in Baker & Wigfield 1999:454). One important implication that can be drawn from the social purpose of reading is that teachers should engage students in cooperative goal setting, reciprocal support and mutual construction and negotiation of textual meaning. Enhancing cooperative goal-setting and mutual support among students is one of the ways through which teachers can scaffold independent reading.

In sum, students with intrinsic purposes engage in reading for the enjoyment they acquire out of it. They are likely to engage in self-initiated reading sustainably regardless of the culmination of a language study program. This means, they can become life-long independent readers for the desire to read comes from within. On the other hand, learners with extrinsic purposes read to obtain external benefits. Recognition, grades and competition stand out in their reading purpose. In this case, reading is mostly done in the classroom where a student's reading performance is assessed and compared with the performance of other students. While extrinsic purpose can lead to successful reading achievement, it can cease with the completion of the language learning program or the withdrawal of rewards. Thus, it can have limitations in enabling students to become life-long independent readers.

b) Reading Self-Efficacy

Reading self-efficacy refers to how confident students are in their ability to tackle the multitude of reading tasks they have to accomplish in academic work or real-life. In the Socio-cognitive view of learning, unlike in the Behaviourist perspective, which posits that learning is influenced by environmental forces such as rewards and punishments, students are considered as proactive and self-regulating rather than reactive individuals maneuvered by environmental variables (Pajares 2003:139). Specifically, they are viewed as possessing self-efficacy beliefs that help them to control their thoughts, feelings and actions. Self-efficacy, "the belief that one can succeed at particular tasks" (Lavelle 2009:415), governs our goal-

oriented activities in a variety of ways; it determines what we can practically do and how successfully we can do it. As such, the cognitive, motivational and selective processes inherent in our day-to-day activities are efficacy-activated ones (Bandura 1995:6-10). According to Bandura, people who possess high self-efficacy perception set challenging goals and demonstrate firm commitment to attain these goals. Accordingly, self-efficacious learners set demanding goals, are intrinsically motivated; determine the level of effort needed to accomplish tasks, utilize resources selectively, monitor their activities, and in effect, anticipate positive outcomes.

Self-efficacy puts a considerable degree of influence on academic work in which reading plays a fundamental role. The literature labels self-efficacy as one of the predictors of the degree of motivation students have to undertake a particular task, the effort they put into the task, their perseverance in the task and the extent of success they ultimately register. Thus, students with strong self-efficacy beliefs for dealing with demanding academic tasks exhibit higher intrinsic motivation, work harder and persevere longer in the face of challenges than students with low self-efficacy perceptions (Zimmerman 1995:204). Students who possess strong positive efficacy ascribe failure to things within their control rather than to external factors, can recover quickly from setbacks and are likely to succeed in achieving their learning goals. On the contrary, students with low self-efficacy consider that they cannot be successful in their studies, are less likely to make persistent efforts and may not persevere in the face of challenging tasks. They have low aspirations which may result in disappointing academic performances (McLean 2010:51).

Self-efficacy perception also plays a significant role in the development of independent reading skills (Combs 2012:224). Some scholars strongly believe that it is hardly possible to enable students to become successful in learning reading only by training them on the techniques of text comprehension. That is, to become effective independent readers, students should also develop positive self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, Lawrence (2006:143) maintains that students who possess low self-efficacy beliefs do not feel that they are capable of improving their reading skills, are not motivated to read, and as a result, do not engage in

reading unless they are urged to read. Lawrence goes on to suggest that such students need to receive self-efficacy enhancement training in the form of teacher scaffolding before they are exposed to daunting amounts of reading.

Therefore, students should be trained to enhance and monitor their reading self-efficacy perceptions (Zimmerman, Bonner & Kovach 1996:63). For example, low perceived self-efficacy can inform learners that they must make further efforts or modify reading strategies. In addition, they can exercise identifying the learning efforts which helped them to boost their feelings of self-confidence. Thus, monitoring their reading self-efficacy perceptions enables students to see how some strategies help them to improve their reading comprehension skills. This in turn allows them to take responsibility for the development of their reading ability levels. Thus, as Zimmerman, Bonner and Kovach emphasize, reading self-efficacy should be viewed as an important component of self-regulated reading which involves self-evaluation, reading goal setting, strategic planning, strategy implementation and strategy outcome monitoring. This shows that perceived reading self-efficacy has an important implication for students' use of reading strategies which help them to grow as independent readers.

In the Ethiopian EFL context, students' reading motivation (goal for reading and reading self-efficacy) should receive a considerable attention. In this context, there is a growing concern that EFL reading instruction is exam-focused. Its primary purpose is therefore to enable students to pass reading comprehension tests they encounter in end-of-semester exams and end-of-program achievement tests. This can jeopardize independent reading since students can cease reading upon completing an academic program. On the other hand, because of the challenge they encounter in learning English as a foreign language, students can develop low reading self-efficacy. Exam-driven reading instruction and poor reading self-efficacy can negatively affect the development of independent reading among these students. Thus, reading motivation among students in Ethiopian schools must be studied to establish its implication for the development of independent EFL reading.

2.2.1.3. Reading Strategy Use

Language learning strategies are techniques that students use deliberately to maximize their learning (Chamot 1987:71; Macaro 2001:17). As Oxford (1990:2) puts it, appropriate use of language learning strategies leads to increased proficiency and self-confidence. Accordingly, reading requires conscious planning or goal setting, application of specific text comprehension strategies, monitoring comprehension and taking corrective actions such as self-evaluation and working with or seeking support from others. Language learning strategies are mechanisms students use to gain linguistic and communicative proficiency in the target language. They are used to refer to particular conscious techniques learners apply to tackle specific language learning tasks in their endeavors to make their learning successful (Macaro 2001:17). Thus, reading strategies are operations which students employ to develop their reading comprehension ability and independent reading skill (Fang, Lamme, Pringle & Abell 2010:77). In support of this view, Oxford (1999) points out that students use reading strategies to make learning to read easier, faster, more enjoyable, more independent and more effective. Reading strategies fall under the broad categories of metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies which are discussed below along with their relevance to independent reading.

a) Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognition refers to awareness of the knowledge or lack of knowledge one has about cognition (Zabucky & Cumming 2005:723). Knowledge about cognition (thought processes) involves “applying thoughts about the cognitive operations of oneself and others, while regulation of cognition includes planning, monitoring learning or problem-solving activities” (O’Malley & Chamot 1990:99). According to O’Malley and Chamot, applying knowledge about thought process or regulating cognition entails the application of metacognitive strategy that incorporates directed attention and self-evaluation. These scholars go on to explain that while directed attention refers to focusing one’s attention towards a learning task, self-evaluation signifies a learner’s appraisal of his/her strengths and weaknesses in a learning endeavour and its results. In reading, metacognitive strategies relate to

metacomprehension, i.e. “knowledge about and monitoring of comprehension” (Zabucky & Cumming 2005:723). These strategies help students to set reading goals, monitor their reading comprehension, use strategies selectively and evaluate their reading progress. Bouchard (2005:34-45) provides important details on the various components of metacognitive strategy as applied to the reading skill. These components are Goal Setting, Think-Aloud, QUA (Question-Answer Relationships) and GIST (Generating Interaction between Schemata and Text).

Goal setting is an important procedural skill in reading comprehension activities. Reading with specific purpose in mind allows students to understand the goals they want to achieve and read selectively based on their reading intentions. Secondly, think-aloud techniques help students to direct their own thinking and understanding while they read. They enable them to make conscious choice of reading strategies, i.e. to use compensatory strategies when other strategies have proven less effective. Think-alouds embrace activities like reflecting on the problem, applying prior knowledge, choosing a better strategy, monitoring comprehension and evaluating one’s reading performance. Thirdly, QAR techniques help students to be aware that there are two sources of information (the text and their background knowledge) that enable them to better comprehend texts. That is, such strategies enable readers to deliberately combine their prior knowledge and the information from the text to achieve better comprehension. Finally, GIST techniques help students to learn how to synthesize essential pieces of information into summaries to indicate the central idea of a given text, fit the parts of a text together to form the whole, discriminate important pieces of information from less important chunks and group similar bites of information together.

Metacognitive strategies, which enable students to learn how to learn language (Dickinson 1987:34), help them to become independent readers via awareness of how to learn reading (Oxford 2008:52). If students practise setting reading goals for themselves, monitoring their reading comprehension (e.g. reviewing certain parts and keeping record of their reading progress), applying strategies selectively and evaluating their reading progress, they are likely to take responsibility for their reading development through self-direction, self-

regulation and self-reliance. Therefore, it is necessary that English teachers train their students to use metacognitive strategies by directly informing them about these strategies and designing lessons that require one to read with a clear purpose in mind, monitor comprehension, reflect on strategy application and evaluate his/her reading progress. Encouraging students to participate in decisions regarding text selection and assessment methods can also be useful in this regard since such involvement increases students' self-confidence in reading and boosts their motivation. Confidence in one's reading comprehension ability, i.e. reading self-efficacy is one of the determinants of independent reading.

Learners of English as a foreign language in Ethiopian schools can find reading comprehension a challenging task. One way through which they can tackle this challenge is by applying thinking strategies. It is constantly observed that these students, as struggling readers, unduly depend on English language teachers for their reading skills development. However, this does not help them much to become life-long independent readers. Therefore, they should be empowered to be able to monitor their own reading. This is possible when they know how to use their schematic knowledge in text comprehension, set their reading goals, monitor their reading comprehension, apply reading strategies selectively, choose texts that suit their reading purpose and appraise their reading progress. These higher order skills are aspects of metacognitive strategy which help language learners to take responsibility for the development of their own reading skills. Therefore, teachers of English in Ethiopia are required to train their students on the use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension so that the latter can develop independent reading habits.

b) Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are thinking strategies or specific conscious techniques students employ in dealing with learning activities (Wenden 1991:19). These strategies are linked with particular learning tasks and act directly on perceived information thereby helping the reader to manage information for better understanding. In relation to reading comprehension, cognitive strategies are defined as the specific "steps or actions that readers can take to

enhance comprehension” (Lysynchuk et al. 1989:460). According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990:127), cognitive strategies used by foreign language learners include *rehearsal* (rehearsing the language input with attention to meaning in an oral or written task), *translation* (using the first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the new language), *note-taking* (writing down key words and concepts in verbal, graphic or numerical form during a listening or reading activity), *substitution* (using a replacement target language word or phrase when the intended word or phrase is not easily available) and *contextualizing* (focusing on contextual clues or situational contexts to assist comprehension).

Most of the above cognitive skills apply to the act of reading comprehension in various ways. For example, while rehearsal can be used to retell or explain the summary of a story one has read, note-taking is useful to sum up the main points of a written text. On the other hand, whereas contextualizing enables readers to guess meanings of unfamiliar words or expressions from contextual clues, translation and substitution may not be used frequently to comprehend a written text. Translation is less likely to lead to effective comprehension since first language discourse and foreign language discourse may lack correspondence. Similarly, the compensatory strategy of substitution, which is useful in speaking, may not be predominantly utilized to facilitate reading comprehension. This shows that language learning strategies must be critically evaluated and used appropriately in strategy-based language skills instruction.

Since O’Malley and Chamot’s list of cognitive strategies is a generic one that applies to all language skills, some cognitive skills that aid reading comprehension such as inferring, predicting, using imagery and elaboration (associating new information with previously learned information) are not included in this list. Therefore, a more comprehensive list of cognitive strategies is necessary to inform strategy-based reading instruction and research. In line with this, Bouchard (2005:52-79) offers a comprehensive inventory of cognitive strategies as applied to reading comprehension. These are summarized below:

- Analyzing general information into specific details;
- Examining relationships among elements, concepts, assertions and arguments;
- Synthesizing information to formulate main ideas;

- Connecting specific information to the main idea;
- Making inferences or formulating reasons based on given information;
- Asking questions of a text and reading the text to get the questions answered;
- Making predictions of possible outcomes;
- Taking notes selectively/summarizing to record briefly the main points of a written text;
- Writing margin notes that will be used later as reminders;
- Coding, highlighting or underlining useful parts of a text for future focus;
- Creating imagery/visualizing a scene, an event or a phenomenon based on textual descriptions;
- Using graphic organizers (strategies that allow readers to represent graphically the meanings and relationships of the ideas that underlie the words in the text);
- Working out meanings of unfamiliar words using different clues (e.g. semantic relationships, word formation and contextual hints).

As can be seen from the above list, although Bouchard's inventory of cognitive strategies is reading-focused, some of the items included in it are very specific and the list needs slight condensing. This is because, while the list can be more useful for strategy-based reading instruction, it appears a little bit broad for research purposes, especially for research undertakings which focus on reading comprehension strategy use as one of the several factors which determine independent reading. Thus, for research purpose, it seems necessary to further consider other classifications.

Thus, it can be useful to examine what Lanning (2009:2-3) labels as powerful cognitive reading comprehension strategies: summarizing, creating meaningful connections and making inferences. However, squeezing the many such strategies into three may rule out other vital ones which recur in the ELT literature (e.g. Salkind 2008:84; Fang, Lamme, Pringle & Abell 2010:81-97; Antonicci & O'Callaghan 2012:176). These include anticipating possible outcomes, working out meanings of new words from context, distinguishing important ideas from less important ideas, asking questions of a text and relating the information in the text with information previously read in other texts. Therefore, the cognitive reading strategies focused on in this study are:

- Anticipating possible outcomes and reading to confirm anticipations;
- Guessing meanings of unfamiliar words and expressions from contextual clues;
- Summarizing or taking notes of key ideas of a text;

- Drawing inferences while and after reading (making deductions based on available information);
- Asking questions of a text and reading it to get questions answered;
- Discriminating important information from less important information;
- Synthesizing information across texts; and
- Using graphic organizers (e.g. tables, diagrams and graphs) as aides for comprehension or as methods to represent ideas presented in a text; and
- Critiquing and evaluating the contents of the text and the writer's arguments.

In summary, since the above nine cognitive strategies can subsume other minor ones, strategy-based reading instruction should aim more to enable students to become effective users of these reading strategies. The literature on language learning strategies points out that persistent strategy-based training enhances learners' strategic thinking ability and improves their academic performance. Therefore, reading comprehension instruction has to strive to produce students who have a repertoire of strategies which they use selectively in reading various texts. This is critically needed in the Ethiopian EFL instructional context where students have to apply diverse reading strategies to counter the linguistic, discourse and psychological barriers they encounter in text comprehension. In fact, training which treats reading comprehension strategies in isolation cannot be effective enough. Instead, reading comprehension strategies should be introduced and practised in combination (Salkind 2008:841), i.e. cognitive strategies must be treated along with metacognitive and socio-affective strategies.

C) Socio-Affective Strategies

Socio-affective strategies are techniques of maximizing learning through interaction (e.g. working in pairs or groups with fellow students or asking teachers or other individuals for support). Since language learning is a social phenomenon, the application of social (socio-affective) strategies plays a significant role in its implementation. Socio-affective strategies pertain to a range of tasks such as working cooperatively with peers to solve a problem, to generate information, to check notes or to get feedback on a learning task. It also relates to requesting for clarification, eliciting additional explanation from a teacher or a colleague, paraphrasing information and talking to oneself, i.e. using mental control to make learning

successful or lessen anxiety-provoked by a particular task (O'Malley & Chamot 1990:121, 127). This keeps students engaged in their academic tasks and helps them to exercise responsibility for their own learning progress.

As Bouchard (2005:95) expounds, socio-affective strategies are strategies which provide students with opportunities to learn cooperatively and take charge of their reading comprehension under reasonable teacher intervention. In cooperative reading, students share ideas, ask and answer questions, clarify difficult ideas, predict possible outcomes and manage their reading comprehension jointly. Put differently, socio-affective strategies encourage reciprocal teaching, i.e. students practise assuming the role of the teacher and work cooperatively, with each member shouldering responsibility for his/her own learning and for the learning of other members. According to Bouchard, reciprocal teaching enables learners of English as a new language to exercise monitoring their own comprehension, generating and dealing with critical questions, solving problems cooperatively and taking mutual accountability. That is, students set goals, clarify any difficulties they come across while reading, identify and deal with difficult language items (e.g. difficult vocabulary), share high-yield learning strategies, exchange feedback, evaluate their reading and work for a common success. Such joint engagements are believed to boost students' reading self-efficacy (Meyer 2010:501) and help them to develop independent reading abilities.

As explained above, the application of socio-affective strategies in reading is based on the principles of cooperative learning which draws on the Social Constructivist Theory of learning. According to Jolliffe (2007:39), cooperative learning fosters "positive interdependence, individual and group accountability, group and interpersonal skills and face-face interaction". Putting cooperative reading within the broader framework of cooperative learning, Salkind (2008:841) writes: "Cooperative learning is a strategy in which readers work together to learn from reading. Students may work together on an entire problem or individually on components, sharing the results to complete the understanding". This strategy fits quite well in reading comprehension activities which require students to work together to tackle difficult vocabulary items, complex syntactic structures, challenging

concepts and intriguing arguments (Shrader, Stuber & Wedwick 2012:16). In this case, each member is a resource for the group, and teacher dominance decreases gradually. This practice eventually enables students to take charge of their own reading and develop as independent readers.

Generally, socio-affective strategies involve students in cooperative development through positive interdependence, mutual accountability and constructive competition. Positive interdependence helps them to count on group resources and reduce the level of dependence on the teacher. Mutual accountability enhances their tendency to take responsibility for their reading. On the other hand, constructive competition encourages each member to contribute a better share to the success of the group in achieving jointly set reading goals. Initially, students may require ample teacher support to carry out cooperative reading activities, but they can ultimately move away from the direct control of the teacher and read independently. Thus, teachers should train their students to use socio-affective reading strategies by exposing them to cooperative reading activities both in the classroom and in out-of-class reading projects. Accordingly, in Ethiopia, where exposure to English language is minimal, English language teachers should capitalize on enabling their students to become successful users of socio-affective strategies so that they can use every opportunity that helps them to develop as independent readers.

2.2.1.4. Persistent Reading Practice

Persistent reading practice is used here to refer to students' regular involvement in self-initiated reading regardless of the presence of reading assignments or tests. It has been established that reading has cognitive, affective and behavioural components. As a cognitive activity, it requires thinking and conscious application of strategies. Its affectivity involves dimensions such as attitude and motivation. On the other hand, the behavioural aspect of reading necessitates stanch practical action and habit formation. While strategic thinking, positive attitude and appropriate motivational orientation are vital in independent reading, students cannot become life-long self-initiated readers unless they practise persistent reading which can ultimately establish itself into a permanent habit. This is because people with

adequate reading ability, positive attitude towards reading and high motivation in reading may not necessarily become independent readers if they lack opportunities and resources to engage in consistent reading. Thus, classroom reading instruction should be connected with extended reading of real-world texts such as biographies, autobiographies, short stories, novels, magazines, newspapers and electronic resources (Hollingworth & Drake 2012:74-75). As Hollingsworth and Drake suggest, teachers can do this by providing opportunities and making time for students to exercise reading for pleasure in which they discover and utilize various texts independently.

Persistent independent reading means engaged reading which requires immense involvement of a person in the reading task (Kelley & Clause-Grace 2009:313). According to these authors, engaged readers actively immerse in texts, avoid disruptions and work interactively with others to make comprehension successful. These readers opt to read because they are interested in the text and enjoy reading, not because they intend to meet instructional requirements. Therefore, engaged reading is obviously a vital goal that educators and teachers need to set for students. Whether teachers help students to practise engaged independent reading in or outside the classroom depends, among other things, on students' grade level. Students at lower grades may benefit from Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) in the classroom under close assistance from the teacher (Garan & DeVogd 2008:342). Conversely, students at secondary schools and above can get the most out of leisure reading outside the classroom since they are mature enough to self-select reading materials, decide where to read and schedule their reading. However, it does not mean that students at these levels should be left to practise reading under complete autonomy. Especially, secondary school English language teachers should scaffold out-of-class independent reading until their students take full responsibility for the development of their own reading. In other words, English language teachers' coaching efforts can be considered as an important determinant of independent reading practice among secondary school students in contexts like Ethiopia.

What mechanisms can teachers use to enhance persistent reading to help students to become independent readers? They can engage their students in persistent independent reading in

different ways (Kelley & Clausen-Grace 2009:218; Kulich 2009:27; Naeghel, et al. 2012; Sanden 2012:222). Firstly, they can give sustained silent reading activities in the classroom and arrange discussions sessions afterwards. This helps students to talk about and reflect on what they came across in their reading, explain the strategies they used to reach a particular understanding and exchange feedback with their partners and with the teacher. Secondly, teachers can devote time in the classroom for students to share with their colleagues what they have read outside class. Thirdly, teachers can confer with students to allow the latter to reflect on their leisure reading experiences. The fourth mechanism is assigning out-of-class reading tasks. For example, English teachers can initiate students to read fictions in their out-of-class time and write descriptions of characters which they will share to their classmates in teacher-mediated classroom sessions. One way of doing this is providing students with reading lists so that they choose the books of their interests from the list and read them outside the class. Another way is leaving students free to make the selection themselves (after sufficient scaffolding) but insisting that they fulfill their reading accountability.

Obviously, time is an important factor in engaged reading (Kulich 2008:337). Teachers need time to encourage sustained silent reading or cooperative reading in the classroom. For instance, in a context where teachers should work with a prescribed textbook which they have to cover within a specified time, say a semester, it can be difficult to make students read self-selected texts in the classroom. In this circumstance, teachers can foster and mediate out-of-class leisure reading. In fact, this requires student commitment and availability of reading resources. Students with positive attitude towards reading in a new language and appropriate motivation to read can benefit from this task provided that they set their reading time and have access to a selection of texts (e.g. fictions and nonfictions).

In conclusion, persistent reading practice should be considered a key issue if independent reading of English texts is to become central to reading instruction in Ethiopian schools. English is the medium of instruction in high schools and universities in Ethiopia. Therefore, students at these levels are expected to learn most subjects mainly through regular reading of materials written in this language. Therefore, they need to develop a love for reading and

read widely outside the classroom according to their selection of texts and time schedules. However, since persistent out-of-class reading needs teacher scaffolding, the practice should be initiated in the classroom. Specifically, English language teachers need to make time for independent reading and engage students in out-of-class reading via the mechanisms mentioned above. In fact, before assigning independent reading activities on regular basis, given the difficulty Ethiopian students face in learning English, teachers must make sure that their students have developed adequate ability in comprehending leveled texts.

2.2.1.5. Access to Reading Resources

Reading resources include materials like newspapers, magazines, short stories, novels and biographies which are commercially available or accessed in libraries and on the internet. Another important factor in independent reading is access to a selection of reading resources. Students may have positive attitude towards learning a new language and reading in that language. They may possess a repertoire of effective reading strategies and appropriate motivation to read. They might also have ample time to engage in reading. However, all these opportunities are far less from enabling them to read independently unless they have access to a wide range of texts. This is true because independent reading is a learner-centered activity which requires a variety of course materials and leisure reading texts. For example, Cunningsworth (1995:16) emphasizes the role of course materials in supporting student-centered language learning:

Learner-centered language teaching aims to bring learners to a point where they reach a degree of autonomy and are able to use the language themselves in real situations outside the classroom. Coursebooks can contribute to achieving this aim by incorporating authentic materials, creating realistic situations and communicative skills and strategies. By promoting progressively higher levels of autonomy and self-reliance among learners, teaching materials can play an important role in taking them to threshold of independent language learning.

While Cunningsworth's focus on course materials as important instruments to foster student centeredness in language learning is a worthwhile one, it does not fully account for the resources required in independent reading. This is because teachers and students may choose to use prescribed coursebooks primarily in the classroom while independent reading requires

out-of-class reading characterized by a choice of texts based on students' background, purpose and interest (Gilmore 2011:41). Therefore, to engage in continued independent reading, "Students must experience large amounts of print representing a variety of genres and print types and a sense of student agency" (Reis et al. 2008:299).

In general, independent reading practice among any group of learners cannot be stipulated without taking their access to a variety of reading resources into account. Thus, teachers who train students to become independent readers should try to make sure that the latter have access to a selection of reading resources and encourage them to self-select texts that fit in their reading purpose and interest (Gilmore 2011:49). In fact, doing so requires teachers to know a wide range of texts so that they can make appropriate recommendations and informed decisions. This implies that teachers' responsibilities in independent reading include providing students with reading lists, recommending worthy texts, and discussing with students on how to access resources.

In the Ethiopian context where students have limited contact with materials such as English novels, short stories and magazines, teachers of English have the responsibility of filling this gap. Instead of working with the prescribed textbook inflexibly, they should expose their students to a wide selection of appropriate texts so that the latter can read according to their needs, purposes and interests. To provide reading lists to their students, teachers must know the relevant library resources, online resources and commendable commercial texts. Additionally, as teachers are resources providers, it can be useful if they lend lovable readings to their students. This shows that English language teachers in Ethiopia have multiple responsibilities especially with regard to fostering independent reading among their students.

As discussed earlier, producing independent readers, who can apply skills and strategies acquired in classroom practice to a variety of reading circumstances, should be a legitimate goal of reading instruction. Independent readers read according to their own purposes and preferences of materials and arrangements of conditions without the teacher's coercive interference. Therefore, independent reading involves personal goal-setting, independent

selection of materials and self-evaluation of one's reading progress. Particularly, in EFL contexts, independent reading should be cultivated in the classroom through teacher scaffolding, active learner involvement and adequate provision of reading resources. Teachers can scaffold independent reading by conducting strategy-based reading instruction and connecting classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading.

Obviously, independent reading cannot be achieved unless students engage in reading activities outside of the classroom in accordance with their own reading goals, selection of texts and time schedules. Thus, students should practise reading biographies, autobiographies, newspapers, magazines, manuals, novels, short stories, electronic texts and hypermedia resources at their own discretions. To this effect, as part of their endeavours to connect classroom reading without-of-class reading, teachers should involve students in engaged reading in the classroom and in the school libraries or resource centers. This, of course, requires teachers to go beyond the prescribed English textbook and make time for students to search, select and read texts independently. However, all these can be possible only if a variety of reading resources are available. In other words, access to a selection of texts is an indispensable determinant of the development of independent reading among students.

It is also worth noting that independent reading is not a solitary undertaking. It rather needs a cooperative approach, in dealing with accessed texts, which promotes positive interdependence, mutual accountability and goal-driven interaction. Cooperative reading, as a domain of cooperative learning, promotes interaction between and among students who willingly engage in shared decision making to achieve the common goal (BÖLÜKBAŞ, KESKİN & POLAT 2011:330). It enables students to work in cooperative groups and construct meanings from written discourses which are duly negotiated and eventually shaped. Working in cooperative pairs, groups or whole class arrangements, students set reading goals, engage in cooperative meaning negotiation, give and receive feedback, share resources, monitor their reading and evaluate their reading progress. Doing these helps them

to move away from the direct control of the teacher, take charge of their own reading development and ultimately become independent readers.

2.2.1.6. Studies on Independent Reading

In this sub-section, sample studies that addressed independent reading are reviewed. The review begins with an international study (Harmon 2000) and goes on chronologically to the most recent ones. It also reviews few available studies conducted on autonomous EFL learning in Ethiopia.

Harmon (2000) conducted a study to capture Grade 7 students' (in USA) interactions with self-selected unfamiliar words in personally chosen contexts. Allowing independent reading time, the researcher recorded the unfamiliar words encountered by individual students while students read a story persistently until they came across unknown words and discussed how they were able to construct meanings of self-selected terms. The purpose was to find out techniques students used to work out meanings of self-selected, not teacher-provided, unfamiliar words.

The findings of this study showed that students were similar in using syntactic information and contextual clues to workout word meaning, making connections (discourse relationships) to figure out the meanings of unfamiliar words and using multiple strategies during each encounter with a difficult word. Nonetheless, the strategies they employed to negotiate information and interpret ideas to infer word meanings were different and unique. These findings indicate that understanding strategies used by students to work out word meanings, raising their awareness of the value of learning new words and enhancing their vocabulary learning self-efficacy can benefit them in the context of independent reading programmes which emphasize vocabulary acquisition.

The concepts of 'engaged reading', 'self-selection', 'learner self-efficacy' and 'strategy use' are identified in the above study. Firstly, students were made to engage in reading texts/stories with the aim of identifying unfamiliar words and guessing their meanings: meaning-guessing is integral to reading comprehension. Then, they were asked to explain the

strategies with which they worked out the meanings of these self-selected unfamiliar terms. The think-aloud method (explaining strategy application) helps students to reflect on the strategies they employ in dealing with new vocabulary and to evaluate the effectiveness of their strategic choice. On the other hand, self-selection of unfamiliar words in the text/story enables them to exercise decision-making and raises their vocabulary learning self-efficacy. Practice of engaged reading, decision-making (an element of metacognitive strategy), using specific techniques to work out word meanings (an instance of cognitive strategy use) and self-efficacy (an aspect of reading motivation) are important components of independent reading. The applications of these elements in various instructional contexts should thus be researched.

In a comparative study carried out on pupils selected from a primary school in the vicinity of Pennsylvania State University, Garner and Bochman (2004) attempted to examine whether Grade 1 students who received instruction on story structure could transfer listening strategies to facilitate reading comprehension. The researchers drew 66 first grade students (N=35 for intervention group; N=31 for control group) who did not initially show differences in their reading comprehension abilities. During the treatment, the intervention group received explicit instruction (explanations and guided practice of listening to stories) on textual structure for 16 weeks, while the control group listened to the same stories without reference to text structure. Then, in a reading comprehension post-test, the intervention group significantly outperformed the control group. This shows that students benefitted from explicit instruction on narrative text structure. It also helped them to transfer listening comprehension strategies to support reading comprehension, implying that explicit strategy training can help students develop independent reading skills.

Garner and Bochman's study also emphasized the importance of strategy-based instruction in language teaching. As the findings demonstrated, students were able to transfer the listening strategies, which they acquired from explicit instruction, to reading comprehension activities. This shows the vitality of strategy training in language learning in general and in independent reading in particular. It is also important to note that the participants of Garner and

Bochman's study were learners operating in English as a First Language (L_1) context who had ample exposure to the language. Yet, they needed strategy training to support their listening and reading comprehension efforts. Based on these, one can argue that students in EFL contexts need more training on reading strategies so that they practise independent reading with demonstrable comprehension ability. Therefore, studies which aim to determine the extent to which reading instructions are helping students to apply appropriate strategies in text comprehension should be conducted, especially in EFL settings like Ethiopia.

A study undertaken by Topping, Samuels and Paul (2008) focused on computer-based independent reading to explore the extent to which different balances of fiction/non-fiction reading and challenge could help explain differences in reading achievement between genders. The researchers analyzed computerized reading records of 45,670 pupils who had independently read over 3000,000 books. Data for one school year was collected from 139 schools in 24 states of USA. The majority of the data was for Grade 1 to Grade 6 although there was some data for grades up to 12. This study was carried out in a context where independent reading was being practised. The aim was thus to determine differences in reading achievement among the target students as a function of fiction/non-fiction reading and challenge.

The post hoc aggregate analysis of archival data of STAR Reading Test and Accelerated Reading/AR Test results of the sample students indicated the following findings: 1) moderate challenge was positively associated with reading comprehension achievement, 2) non-fiction reading was generally more challenging than fiction reading, 3) non-fiction reading was negatively associated with successful comprehension and achievement in reading comprehension, 4) boys appeared to read less than girls, and proportionally more non-fiction (but less carefully in higher grades), 5) boys had lower reading achievement, and 6) differences were observed between classrooms in promoting successful reading comprehension.

Overall, Topping, Samuels and Paul's study pertained to independent reading in the context of computer-based reading and computerized learning management system. It also had the

quality of bringing into picture the relevance of teaching method, reading materials (fiction vs. non-fiction) and the interest of students regarding independent reading. In other words, it implied the need for a successful interaction of teachers, students and reading materials in developing independent reading skills among a particular group of students. In this case, this study had a wider scope than the study conducted by Garner and Bochman. However, whether the differences between classrooms in promoting successful independent reading was the result of teachers' awareness, beliefs, commitment or a combination of these needs researching.

Pearman (2008) conducted a study to determine whether second grade students (drawn from an elementary school in Sothern USA) with varying reading proficiency would score higher on oral story retelling with texts presented via an interactive CD-Rom storybook format than traditional print text format. A total of 54 samples were chosen out of a class of 94 students. Information about the reading proficiency level of each student was then obtained from the classroom teachers who had classified their pupils into high, medium and low reading proficiency levels.

Afterwards, each student was given the same storybook both on print and electronic (CD-ROM) formats. The electronic copy had supports like pronunciation aids, graphics, sound effects, object labels and definitions. Nevertheless, the print version had to be read in the traditional way. Each student was required to read both the electronic and the print versions of the same storybook, to retell the story orally after each reading based on cues given by the researcher (the same cues for both readings) and to audio-record the retellings. The practice continued for 20 days and the researchers took field notes about students' behaviours during the reading of both text formats. The provision of reading materials both in print and CR-Rom formats relates to access to resources which is an important component in nurturing independent reading.

The audio records of individual retellings were finally given to trained independent raters. A dependent samples t-test at .05 level of confidence showed that the mean retelling scores were significantly higher for oral retelling of the electronic text format than the traditional

print format for the low reading proficiency group. This shows that for beginning readers, CD-ROM storybooks are useful since they create supportive and engaging reading situations which are important in producing independent readers. As a point of caution, Pearman remarked that it can be dangerous to claim that the findings can apply to more mature reading which involves analysis, synthesis, evaluation and reflection. However, these results have important implications for higher level reading pertaining to students' preference of texts. In order to engage students in independent reading, teachers have to provide them with a wide selection of appropriate reading materials so that they are motivated to read according to their purposes and interests. Therefore, the extent to which learners have access to a choice of texts, especially in resource-scarce contexts, should be studied along with its repercussion for independent reading.

Likewise, in a case study, Knoester (2009) explored the association between interest, reading engagement, peer relationships and identity development among urban students. The participants of the study were 10 students (selected from fifteen sixth and seventh grades in Jefferson School, Eastern United States), their parents and their current teachers. The researcher assigned the informants into ten groups each consisting of one student, one parent and one teacher, and he held interviews with individual participants.

In the interview, Knoester raised questions relating to reading interests and habits, other current interests inside or outside of school, the choice of reading materials and reading habits of students and parents, abiding interests other than reading, availability of reading materials and where they were generally found, time and place for reading, readings other than books (e.g. church readings, recipes and videogames), perceptions about social patterns and friendships among peers, self-perceptions as readers, feelings about reading and motivations in reading. The interview also focused on students' reading habits during the school week, over the week-end plus during summer months and their perception of how reading affects their future goals.

The analysis and interpretation of themes in the data indicated that independent reading is basically a social practice; students choose to read or not to read based not only on ability nor

solely on parental support, but also on complex issues of identity and interest in the nurturing of particular peer and adult relationships. Based on this finding, Knoester concluded that adolescents benefit if their teachers view reading as a public activity and use teaching strategies that promote reading as a social undertaking contributing to positive identity formation.

Knoester's study explored students' perception of reading (perception can grow into attitude or value system), perceived reading self-efficacy, reading motivation, preference of texts, involvement in engaged reading and choice of whom to work with in cooperative reading activities. Learners' perception of themselves as readers, reading motivation, preference of reading materials and practice of persistent engaged reading are important components of independent reading. Knoester's study also captured students' perception of (attitude towards) reading and peer relationships in cooperative groups as necessary variables in independent reading. While students' reading attitude can affect their decision of whether to read or not to read, their preference of whom to work with in social groupings determines the degree of persistence they can achieve in cooperative reading. This is of particular importance in EFL contexts, like Ethiopia, where students perceive learning English as a formidable challenge as a result of which they must exercise cooperative reading in and outside the classroom.

O'Connor, Swanson and Geraghty (2010) on their part studied an aspect of independent reading to determine, experimentally, the impact of improvement in reading rate on word recognition, decoding, vocabulary and comprehension. The subjects of the experiment were 123 poor readers (second and fourth graders recruited from five elementary schools in Southwestern United States) who were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: practice reading text at independent reading level (92%-100% word reading accuracy), practice reading text at difficult reading level (80%-90% accuracy) or untreated control.

A pre-test was administered to both the treatment and the control groups and yielded no significant differences in reading rate, word recognition, decoding, vocabulary and reading comprehension ability. Mid and post-tests were also given during and after the treatment

respectively. During the intervention, the students in the treatment conditions read aloud to adult listeners who supported them with difficult words. Contrarily, the controls did not receive such a treatment, i.e. they read materials in the usual way. Before midway and after 20 weeks of treatment, the researchers assessed students' performance improvement in reading rate, word recognition, decoding, vocabulary and comprehension across conditions to determine the impact of improved rate on comprehension. The analysis of the post-test results indicated significant differences favouring the treatment groups in reading rate, word recognition and comprehension.

The improvement in the reading rate, word recognition and comprehension ability among the students in the treatment group was the result of the intervention, i.e. assistance and follow-up of the adult listeners. This suggests that teacher support and follow-up are crucial to help beginning readers to develop independent reading habits. However, it is worthy of note that teachers commit themselves to providing effective support if only they are aware of the value of independent reading and believe that they must work to promote it. In this study, English teachers' efforts to help students to become potential life-long independent readers through strategy-based instruction and linkage of classroom reading with out-of-class engaged reading was determined from data collected through classroom observation.

Law's (2011) quasi-experimental research that included two experimental conditions (jigsaw approach and drama approach) and one control group (traditional teacher-led whole-class approach) examined the effects of cooperative learning on Honk Kong fifth grade students' achievement goals, autonomous motivation and reading proficiency. The participants were 279 Grade 5 students chosen from nine primary schools where the medium of instruction was Chinese while English was taught as a subject. Three classes were chosen from each school and randomly distributed to the jigsaw, drama and control groups (the former two consisted of heterogeneous learning groups which were treated differently by one trained teacher).

The students in the jigsaw condition read a story and explored it in home groups, further discussed it in jigsaw groups, rejoined their home groups to report what they obtained from the jigsaws and finally presented the refined resolutions to an expert group. When each group

presented to the expert group, the teachers gave some comments, challenged the presenters, facilitated peer feedback and maximized cooperative learning. Simultaneously, six heterogeneous drama groups were formed, and students read the same story and played the roles of the main character to the whole class. The teachers asked questions, gave information on how to act drama and also challenged the presenters, i.e. teacher intervention was maximum while cooperative learning was kept to a minimum. Nevertheless, the teachers taught the control group to understand the same story following the whole-class approach with students mainly working individually.

Then, a post-test of reading comprehension and three questionnaires which focused on goal orientation, autonomous motivation along with perception of instructional practice were administered. The results suggested that students in the jigsaw group outperformed those in the drama and control groups in the reading comprehension test and had better goal orientation coupled with autonomous motivation. The researcher thus concluded that independent reading could be enhanced through cooperative learning with optimum scaffolding by teachers. In other words, it can be argued that in contexts where teachers scaffold independent reading, students should be given chances to exercise autonomy via cooperative reading.

While the above research assessed the effect of cooperative reading on students' achievement goals, autonomous motivation and reading proficiency as aspects of independent reading, teacher intervention was taken as a moderator. Students in the control group worked individually in a teacher-led whole class arrangement. On the other hand, the drama and jigsaw reading groups worked cooperatively under maximum and optimum teacher intervention respectively. It was eventually found out that the students involved in cooperative reading under optimum teacher intervention were better in reading goal orientation, autonomous motivation and reading proficiency. This suggests that teacher scaffolding should be kept to an optimum in training students to become independent readers. Therefore, studies which aim to determine whether EFL students are encouraged to practise cooperative reading through strategy-based instruction and teacher facilitation are legitimately needed. This study

is thus an attempt in that direction since it deals with strategy-focused reading instruction as one determinant of independent reading.

Unlike most reading researches on independent reading, a study conducted by Harlar et al. (2011) suggested that heredity has an impact on reading achievement and independent reading skills. The subjects were 84 monozygotic (MZ) and 107 same-sex dizygotic (DZ) twin pairs in Ohio State, USA, who participated in assessments twice during the study. At both assessments, children's reading performance was evaluated using the Word Identification and Passage Comprehension subsets from the Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests-Revised (WRMTR). Independent reading was also assessed during the test sessions by the twins themselves and their caregivers. The caregivers filled out a questionnaire rating the frequency with which each twin read books at home for enjoyment. The twins on their part completed a questionnaire which contained three dimensions of motivation, i.e. reading self-efficacy, goals for reading and social purpose for reading.

The researchers analyzed the data using structural equation modeling to look into the relative contributions of genetic and environmental factors to relations between reading achievement and independent reading. The findings indicated that reading achievement at age 10 significantly predicted independent reading at age 11. This led the researchers to conclude that individual differences in reading achievement and independent reading at both ages were primarily due to genetic differences. However, since the argument among educational psychologists and researchers over the nature-nurture issue remains unresolved, this finding should not be considered as conclusive. In other words, while the role of biological factors in independent reading can be an area for further research, the current study does not address this issue for research on independent reading in Ethiopian schools appears to be at its inception.

To sum up, most of the above studies investigated various aspects of independent reading mainly among elementary school pupils. While these studies point to the need for further research on independent reading, there is a gap in that the emphasis given to independent reading among secondary school students is inadequate whereas this type of reading is vital

at this level, too. More importantly, all the studies described above, except the one undertaken in Hong Kong, were conducted in the non-EFL context of the USA. Therefore, research that focuses on independent reading seems to be scarce in EFL contexts including Ethiopia. Another research gap is that none of the above studies compared the practice of independent reading across public and non-public schools. Likewise, constructs such as ‘attitude’, ‘reading motivation’, ‘reading strategy use’, ‘practice of persistent engaged reading’ and ‘access to a variety of texts’ (to allow for selection) stand out in relation to independent reading. Therefore, studies which aim to examine independent reading focusing on these and other determinants are crucially important.

In the Ethiopian context, some studies, e.g. Teodros (2005), Nuru-razik (2006), Mesfin (2008) and Haile (2011) surveyed autonomous learning of English in its entirety (listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary). However, studies which wholly devote to investigating independent reading among Grade 11 students in any school context in Ethiopia are unavailable. Therefore, there seems to be a critical need for studies that particularly focus on independent reading among Grade 11 students in the Ethiopian EFL context. Specifically, studies which aim to investigate differences between public and non-public schools concerning Grade 11 students’ predispositions towards and involvement in independent reading are of paramount importance. It is therefore this gap which this study tried to fill. The few available studies, i.e. Teodros (2005), Nuru-razik (2006), Mesfin (2008) and Haile (2011) were carried out at different educational institutions and on various levels of learning; they generally concentrated on autonomy in learning English but had slightly different aims as briefly described below.

In his research, Teodros (2005) tried to investigate the role English language instructors at Unity University College, Addis Ababa, played to promote autonomous learning among first year students majoring in business-related courses. He gathered data from five teachers by using semi-structured interview, from the actual teaching-learning process via classroom observation and from 50 students through questionnaire and focus group discussion. Having analyzed and interpreted the data collected in these ways, this researcher came up with a

conclusion that generally revealed instructors' deficiencies in promoting student responsibility in learning English. He particularly underlined that these instructors' practice of enhancing learner autonomy was unsatisfactory because they failed to exercise their roles of training students to take charge of their own learning of the English language.

Nuru-razik (2006) surveyed the practice of autonomous language learning among third year English major students at Bahir Dar University. He used a sample of 60 students, out of a population of 180, as study participants; he collected data via questionnaire and semi-structured interview. In the end, this researcher found out that students' use of autonomous learning strategies was insufficient due to lack of the habit of keeping reflective learning journals, absence of opportunities for them to reflect on and discuss with their teachers or peers the language learning process, learners' undue dependence on the tasks designed by the teacher and their inadequate involvement in out-of-class learning of English. Based on this, Nuru-razik stressed that in the absence of these practices, learner autonomy is hard to conceive.

Unlike Teodros and Nurazik, who focused on university students, Mesfin (2008) attempted to examine the practice of autonomous learning of English among Grade 11 students at Mekele Atse Yohannes Preparatory School. Out of a total of 1,800 students, Mesfin took 202 as samples for his survey. He made 180 students fill out a questionnaire, interviewed 10 students and held a focus group discussion with 12 students. He also conducted an interview with five of the 10 English language teachers in the target school. On the basis of the data collected via these methods, this researcher concluded that students were ineffective in taking charge of their learning of the English language due to lack of confidence, limited use of learning strategies, exam-based study and inadequate library resources.

On the other hand, Haile (2011) investigated the extent to which Grade 9 students at Jimma Jiren Secondary School practised autonomy in learning English based on data collected from students through questionnaire plus focus group discussion and from teachers via semi-structured face-to-face interview. Based on the inferences drawn from the data analyzed using quantitative and qualitative methods, he concluded that the students in focus exercised

autonomous EFL learning quite inadequately. According to Haile's findings, this problem was due to contributing factors relating to students themselves, their teachers and the resource provision of the school.

As detailed above, Teodros, Nuru-razik, Mesfin and Haile focused on learner autonomy in learning English in its entirety (its application to the learning of vocabulary, grammar, speaking, listening, reading and writing). While such a research focus is worthwhile, it does not explicitly inform independent reading in Ethiopian schools. Thus, investigating practices and trends of independent reading, which opens avenues for individual and national development in the 21st Century, is critically important since this is a fine-grained part of the domain of high level reading literacy. On the contrary, the predisposition towards and practice of independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in the Ethiopian context remains uninvestigated. Therefore, this research lacuna needs filling, and this study aimed to fill it.

2.3. Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework of a study is the part where the researcher describes the main concepts which form the basis of the study. Regarding this, Glatthorn (1998:87) writes: "It [conceptual framework] identifies the concepts included in a complex phenomenon and shows their relationships. The relationships are often presented visually in a flowchart, web diagram, or other type of schematic". As captured in the title, this study focused on independent EFL reading. Accordingly, the concepts which underlie the study are variables concerning students (reading comprehension ability levels, attitude, reading motivation, reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading), teacher scaffolding (strategy-based instruction and linking in-class reading with out-of-class reading), the English textbook (coverage components of reading strategy and leaping point to out-of-class reading) and other resources (access to a variety of texts). Promoting independent reading in a particular group of students involves, among other stakeholders, students themselves and their teachers. To develop as independent readers, students need to possess appropriate cognitive, affective and behavioural predispositions. Teachers on their part play a critical role in fostering

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independent reading by conducting strategy-based instruction and linking classroom reading with out-of-class self-initiated reading. In fact, relevant resources are also necessary so that the efforts made by teachers and students can achieve the desired goal. The quality of the English textbook and the learners' access to a selection of texts should also be taken into consideration in this regard.

As explained in the preceding paragraph, students' cognitive, affective and behavioural characteristics are among the prerequisites for independent reading. Cognitive factors refer to students' reading comprehension ability levels linked with their strategic thinking. Unless they possess reading comprehension abilities required for their levels, they cannot be expected to engage in successful independent reading. Also, the development of independent reading skills requires the use of appropriate metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Students' attitude and motivation are also important determinants of independent reading. If students have positive attitude towards learning a new language and reading materials written in that language, they are likely to use all opportunities that help them to learn the language and develop independent reading abilities. Similarly, appropriate motivation (clear reading goal and high reading self-efficacy) facilitates the development of independent reading. However, while reading comprehension ability, positive attitude, motivational orientation and strategic thinking are crucial in independent reading, students cannot be regular independent readers unless they engage in persistent self-initiated reading. Therefore, persistent reading practice is one of the student-related determinants of independent reading. Generally, a study that aims to investigate independent reading among a certain group of learners should better focus on the students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning a new language and reading texts written in that language, reading motivation, reading strategy use and persistence in self-initiated reading.

On the other hand, the development of independent reading skills among students requires adequate teacher scaffolding. Teachers should train students to use metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies so that the latter can develop self-regulatory skills and take charge of their own reading. This can be done by creating awareness among students about

reading strategies and designing reading lessons that require the application of different strategies. Apart from strategy-based instruction, teachers can promote independent reading by linking classroom reading with out-of-class reading. This engages students in persistent reading that eventually helps them to develop independent reading habits. That is, teacher scaffolding of independent reading through strategy-based instruction and linkage of classroom reading with out-of-class reading is an important practice in the teaching of reading. This presupposes that the extent to which teachers of English train students to use reading strategies and engage them in out-of-class independent reading needs to be determined through research in relation to the context in which the learning takes place.

Teacher scaffolding and student involvement are thus fundamental in developing independent reading. However, these are impossible if a variety of texts are not available. Two categories of texts can be considered here: the English textbook and extra reading resources accessed in school libraries and/or elsewhere outside the classroom. Thus, how independent reading is covered in the English textbook and the extent of students' access to a range of texts can be among the issues that should receive focus in independent reading research.

Based on the above explanations, the following conceptual framework model has been suggested:

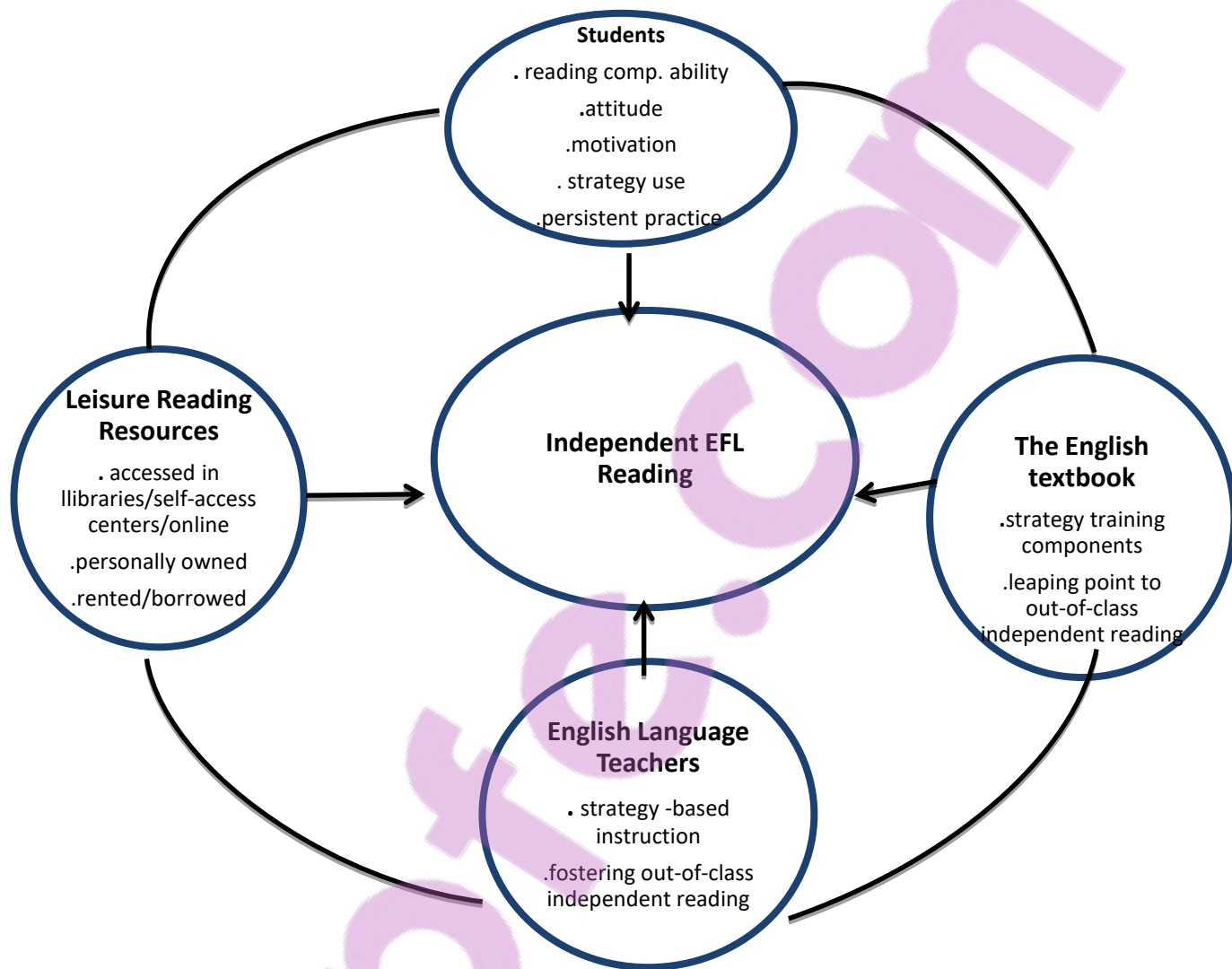


Figure 2.3: *Conceptual Model of Independent EFL Reading*

Therefore, student-related variables (reading comprehension ability levels, attitude, reading motivation and persistence in self-initiated reading), teachers scaffolding (strategy-based instruction and the creation of linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class reading), the characteristics of the English textbook and students' access to a variety of reading resources can fit in the Constructionist view of learning and form the conceptual framework of the study mapping its analytical structure.

2.4. Conclusion

This chapter presented the literature review related to a study of independent EFL reading in Ethiopian schools. It also discussed the conceptual framework of the study. The review focused on the theoretical framework of the study, theories of language (the acquisition-learning hypothesis and the theory of EFL), the nature of reading, views of reading and independent reading along with attitude towards learning a new language and reading its literature, reading motivation (reading goal and reading self-efficacy), reading strategy use (metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and socio-affective strategy), persistence in self-initiated reading and access to a selection of reading texts. Following this, the chapter described studies conducted previously on independent reading. Finally, it provided details on the conceptual framework of the study.

The review emphasized that since reading extends beyond the classroom, students should develop independent reading skills. Independent reading is the reading students do according to their own decisions of what to read, where to read, when to read and how often to read. Therefore, the development of independent reading requires appropriate student predispositions (reading comprehension ability, positive attitude, appropriate motivation, strategic thinking and persistent practice) along with adequate access to a selection of texts. The English textbook/coursebook is also an important element in the process of reading instruction. In EFL contexts, teacher scaffolding is also an indispensable factor in efforts to produce life-long independent readers. Therefore, as depicted in the above conceptual model (see Figure 2.3), student-related variables (reading comprehension ability levels, attitude, reading motivation, reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading), teacher scaffolding (strategy-based instruction and linking in-class reading with out-of-class reading), the English textbook (strategy-based training components and leaping point to outside class reading) and other resources (access to a range of reading texts) are the components of the conceptual framework of this study. The next chapter describes the methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

Chapter 2 presented the literature review and the conceptual framework of the study following the introduction set out in the first chapter. This chapter focuses on the research methodology adopted in the study. The chapter first describes the study setting (section 3.1) and then gives details on the research design (section 3.2). Following this, it discusses the study population along with the samples and the sampling techniques (section 3.3). Next, explanations are provided concerning the data gathering instruments which include reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire, observation schedule, content analysis checklist and independent reading follow-up checklist (section 3.4). This is followed by discussions on validity and reliability issues (section 3.5). Then, the chapter looks at the procedure of data collection (section 3.6), describes the methods of data analysis (section 3.7), deals with ethical considerations (section 3.8) and ends with a brief conclusion (section 3.9).

As indicated in the first chapter, this study aimed to address the issue of independent EFL reading in Ethiopian schools. Its main purpose was to investigate independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in this context. It also tried to compare independent reading among Grade 11 students in public schools with independent reading among Grade 11 students in non-public schools in order to identify best practices. In connection with its main aim, the study attempted to answer the main research question: “What are the predispositions and practices of independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in Ethiopian schools?” Therefore, the following sub-sections focus on topics and procedures that are deemed important to address this research question.

3.1. Study Setting

This study was conducted on selected public and non-public preparatory schools in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia. In the new educational structure of Ethiopia, preparatory schools include Grades 11 and 12: they are meant to prepare students for higher education. Addis Ababa is currently divided into 10 administrative units called sub-cities: Addis Ketema, Akaki Kaliti, Arada, Bole, Gulele, Kirkos, Kolfe Keranyo, Lideta, Nefas Silk-Lafto and Yeka. It is a seat for organizations such as the African Union (AU), the headquarters of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), the Federation of African Societies of Chemistry (FASC), the Horn of Africa Press Institute (HAPI) and so on (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2012). Because of its historical, diplomatic and political significance for the continent, Addis Ababa is also referred to as "the political capital of Africa". The presence of such continental and international organizations in Addis Ababa can be considered as one reason for the opening and growth of international private schools and foreign community schools in this city.

Overall, Addis Ababa is the commercial, diplomatic, political, religious and educational hub of Ethiopia. The first public and private schools appeared in this city. Both school systems expanded progressively especially after the coming to power of the current government. Private schools have grown in number at all levels under different forms of ownership. Some private schools are owned by local holders through local investment. These schools, like public schools, use textbooks prescribed by the Ministry of Education (MoE) and mainly subscribe to the directives and guidelines of the Ministry. In addition, they are not much different from public schools in terms of resource allocation and incentives provision for teachers. In the other category are schools established by religious organizations, private schools run by foreign investors or Diaspora Ethiopians and foreign community schools. Community schools in the main serve diplomatic communities, foreign nationals and Ethiopians who acquired foreign citizenship. Schools which operate under the ownership of religious organizations, in most cases, use English textbooks prescribed by MoE and some supplement them with their own materials. On the other hand, international private schools

and foreign community schools majorly use their own coursebooks. They are also better resourced and have better remunerations for teachers.

International private schools and foreign community schools have several things in common. Firstly, as indicated in the preceding paragraph, both mainly use their own coursebooks. Secondly, both are better resourced, have better recompense for teachers and admit students from well-to-do families. Thirdly, most of the schools in both systems have students whom they prepare for international examinations such as the International Baccalaureate (IB) and TOEFL. Therefore, in this study, these schools are categorized together and referred to as 'non-public schools'. On this basis, public schools and non-public schools were the focus of the study as the two systems differ in resources, choice of textbooks/coursebooks, incentives for teachers and students' goal for learning English. On the other hand, while the development of public schools and schools owned by local businesses in Addis Ababa has been accompanied by similar developments in other town centers of the country, international and foreign community schools have concentrated in Addis Ababa. This makes the city the best setting for a study that aims to compare public and non-public schools regarding independent reading among Grade 11 students.

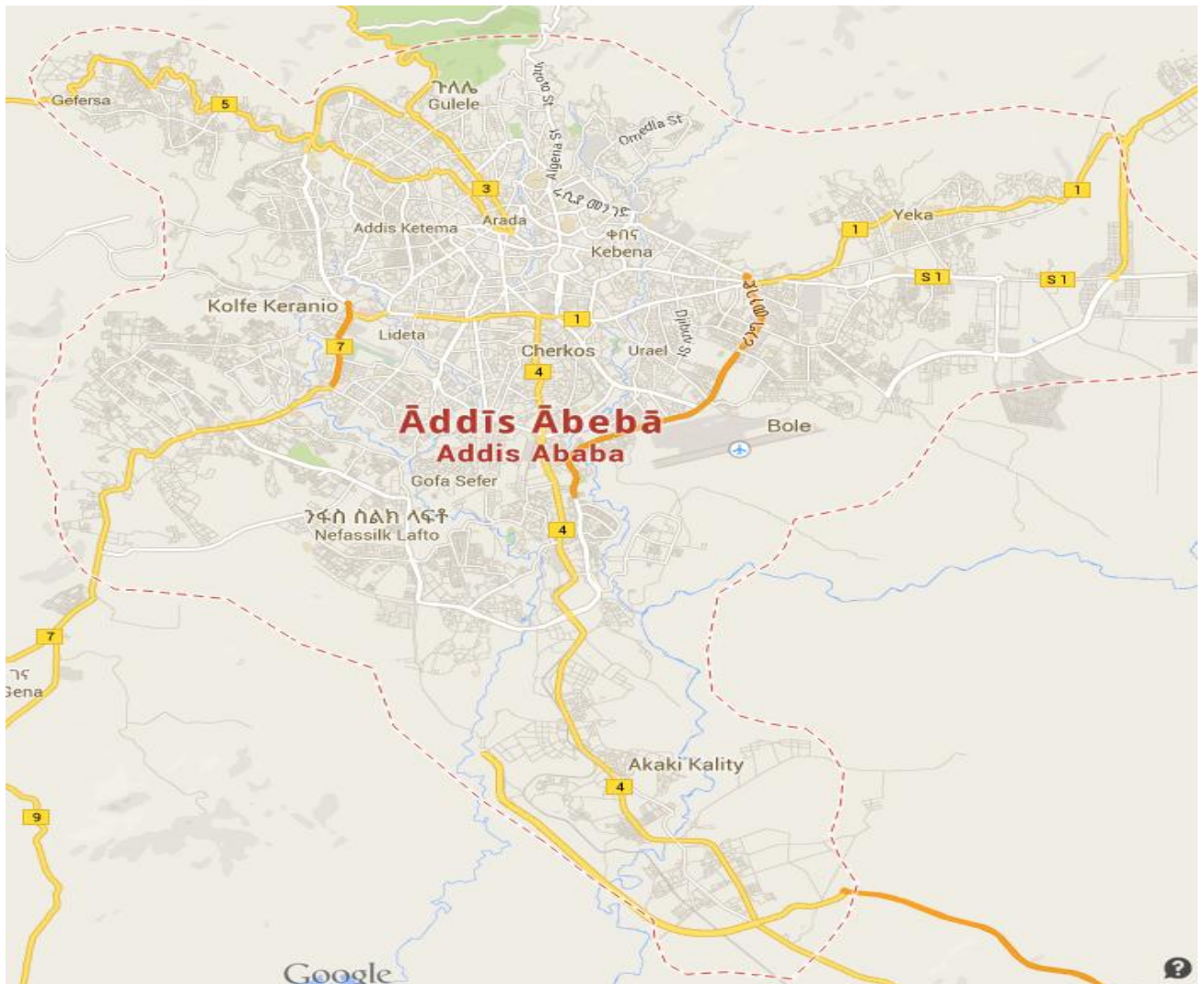


Figure 3.1: Map of Addis Ababa (<http://www.google.com.et/maps/place/AddisAbaba>)

3.2. Research Design

This study employed a survey design through the application of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Based on the problem to be addressed, research traditionally falls into the binary distinctions of ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ (Nunan 1992:3). According to Nunan, since quantitative research is based on measurement of quantity, it is deductive, obtrusive, objective, generalizable and outcome-oriented. On the contrary, qualitative research is concerned with understanding quality or kind. It is inductive, subjective,

unobtrusive and ungenerizable. Nevertheless, recent trends show that the tendency to treat research in terms of the quantitative- qualitative divide is inadequate. As a result, a third category called mixed methods design has been added to the classification. The distinguishing features of quantitative, qualitative and mixed designs, along with their applications in this study, are briefly explained in the following paragraphs.

Quantitative research is a numbers game. As O’Leary (2004:99) puts it, quantitative research uses quantitative data represented with numbers and analyzed statistically. The following definition well captures the essence of this notion: “The term ‘quantitative method’ refers to the adoption of the natural science experiments as the model of scientific research, its key features being quantitative measurement of the phenomenon studied and systematic control of the theoretical variables influencing those phenomena” (Hamersley 1993a as quoted in Henn, Weinstein & Foared 2006:117). Accordingly, quantitative research aims to collect data through standardized instruments on a variety of variables, search cause-effect relationships between these variables and test a given theory by confirming or rejecting preset hypotheses.

The literature advances that the data collection techniques often employed in quantitative social research are the sample survey and the experiment. Tests can also be useful tools of data gathering in this paradigm. Obviously, the sample survey is the most frequently used method for obtaining data from a range of respondents on a variety of issues. Surveys are usually based on probabilistic sampling methods, i.e. by taking representative samples selected randomly from a given population and using a standardized research instrument in the form of a structured questionnaire. Surveys allow for descriptive and explanatory generalizations to be made about the population in focus (Singh 2006:88). That is why Bryman (1988:2) writes: “The survey’s capacity for generating quantifiable data on large numbers of people who are known to be representative of a wider population in order to test theories or hypotheses has been viewed by many practitioners as a means of capturing many of the ingredients of a science”.

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is based on investigating problems without the application of statistical techniques. It rather is contingent upon the researcher’s ability to

observe patterns critically, make sense of the subjective world, synthesize information and extract underlying meaning(s) out of data represented in the form of utterances, texts, symbols, artifacts, pictures, photographs and documents (Kalof, Dan & Deitz 2008:79). As Kalof, Dan and Deitz elaborate, qualitative research aims to establish detailed understanding of individual or social realities (motives, perceptions, beliefs and experiences), phenomena, events and situations. That is, qualitative research is more exploratory than explanatory in its approach. Therefore, it has an assumption that is different from the one advanced by quantitative research.

The researcher's purpose, analytical skills, interpretative ability and critical reflection are vital in the qualitative research tradition. From this perspective, qualitative research can be viewed as a personal way of inquiry (Flick, Kardoff & Steinke 2004:15; Creswell 2007:37). In other words, the individual researcher's power of observation, sensitivity to instances (e.g. utterances, feelings and motives), sense of context and skill of interpretation are essential in qualitative inquiries. Qualitative data collection methods include in-depth interview, observation, focused group discussion (Williams 2003:3) and document analysis (Ezzy 2002:82; Henn, Weinstein & Foared 2006:97). In qualitative research, data are analyzed through the interpretative approach (verbal description, thick explanation and critical reflection) to get to the underlying meanings of the data.

However, the quantitative-qualitative distinction does not seem adequate to respond to the versatility of scientific inquiry and the complexity of human subjects in human and social science research. This has given rise to another paradigm called 'mixed methods design'. Mixed methods design is used to blend qualitative and quantitative methods in data collection and analysis in order to offset the weaknesses of one with the strengths of the other (Rosaline 2008:151; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2010:50). Ridenour and Newman (2008:xi) view research as a quantitative-qualitative interactive continuum. This view capitalizes that the notions of quantitative and qualitative are neither mutually exclusive nor interchangeable but can be used complementarily: neither the quantitative nor the qualitative method alone can be a panacea for researching all problems. Thus, blending both methods can give a fuller picture

of the issue under investigation by counterbalancing the weaknesses of one with the strength of the other (Greece, Kreider & Mayer 2005:274). Thus, as the proponents of this design emphasize, in mixed methods research, researchers combine qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis and inference techniques to achieve breadth and depth of understanding.

At this point, it is necessary to establish how the above discussions inform this study, which aims to examine independent EFL reading in Ethiopian schools with particular focus on Grade 11 students in selected public and non-public schools in Addis Ababa. The study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to answer the research questions set forth in the first chapter. The quantitative method depended on data gathered through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist. The quantitative findings can be generalizable to the population of Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools. On the other hand, the qualitative method was based on data collected via classroom observation schedule and content analysis checklist. The findings from the qualitative component were subjective and not intended to be generalizable but fed into the quantitative findings. In other words, the qualitative component of the study served the purpose of complementing the quantitative design. The following research sub-questions were addressed through the quantitative component of the study:

1. What are the reading comprehension ability levels of Grade 11 students in public vs. non-public schools in Ethiopia?
2. What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?
3. What reading strategies do Grade 11 students predominantly use which help them to develop independent reading skills?
4. How persistently do Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools practise independent EFL reading?
5. To what extent do Grade 11 students have access to a variety of independent EFL reading resources?

6. Are there statistically significant differences between Grade 11 students in public schools and those in non-public schools in their predisposition alongside their practice regarding independent EFL reading?

These six questions are amenable to the quantitative component of the study because, as stated above, quantitative studies are based on numerical data collected through tests, structured questionnaires and experiments. The first sub-question required data gathered through reading comprehension test while the second, the third, the fourth and the fifth needed data collected via structured questionnaire concerning students' attitude along with motivation that influence their practice of independent reading, use of reading strategies that help them to become independent readers, persistence in independent reading and access to a selection of reading resources. Quantitative data collected via independent reading follow-up were also used to address the fourth research sub-question. On the other hand, whereas the sixth sub-question was mainly answered using data collected via the reading comprehension test and the questionnaire, the findings were also supported with data generated through independent reading follow-up checklist, classroom observation schedule and content analysis checklist. Thus, the above six research sub-questions are close-ended that elicited numerical data which were analyzed statistically.

On the other hand, the following two research sub-questions were addressed via the qualitative component of the study:

7. What are the independent reading components Grade 11 English teachers in selected schools include in their instructions?
8. How do Grade 11 English textbooks cover independent reading?

Likewise, since qualitative studies are based on data elicited via open-ended questions, the above research sub-questions served the purpose of generating qualitative data that were analyzed interpretively. That is, while the seventh sub-question required classroom observation to examine how teachers would scaffold independent reading, the eighth one was

answered by conducting content analysis to determine how independent reading was covered in Grade 11 English textbooks/coursebooks.

Based on quantitative and qualitative data, comparison was made to examine differences between Grade 11 students in public schools and those in non-public schools in their predisposition towards and practice of independent reading. Therefore, this study adopted a descriptive-comparative survey design that combined quantitative and qualitative methods to reach a fuller understanding of the research issue. Descriptive method, which is suitable to describe a situation, a problem, a phenomenon or behaviour as it exists (Kumar 1996:9), was chosen since it was considered useful to describe the practice of independent reading among the students in focus without manipulating it in any way. The use of quantitative and qualitative methods fits in the study since the research questions necessitated the use of both quantitative and qualitative data. While the quantitative research questions were close-ended as they quantified data, the qualitative research questions were open-ended since they elicited subjective data. As indicated above, quantitative methods were deemed necessary to measure students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude along with motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to a selection of reading resources and differences between students in public vs. non-public schools as regards independent reading. On the contrary, qualitative methods were employed to obtain data used to provide in-depth explanation of instructional and textbook/coursebook variables that influence the practice of independent reading.

3.3. Population and Samples

As indicated in 3.1 above, this study was conducted in the city of Addis Ababa. The city was chosen for two basic reasons. Firstly, Addis Ababa had ample schools of all types, which made it possible to compare public and non-public schools as regards independent reading among Grade 11 students. The city had a good number of public preparatory schools which operated under government directives and funding. There also were non-public preparatory schools which mainly used their own coursebooks, were better resourced, offered better remuneration for teachers and prepared students for international examinations. This enabled

the researcher to collect comparative data and identify best practices on independent reading among the target students. Besides, since Addis Ababa is the commercial, diplomatic, political, religious and educational milieu of Ethiopia, trends that prevail in this city, in one way or another, influence the different parts of the country. For instance, if the implementation of an educational innovation becomes successful in Addis Ababa, other regions can share the experience and implement the innovation effectively. In this case, sampling at the macro level was done purposively. Accordingly, the findings of a study on independent reading in schools in Addis Ababa can be abstracted to other schools in the country. This was another rationale for the study to have focused on Grade 11 students in Addis Ababa City Administration.

The study took as its main population Grade 11 students who registered at this grade level in 2015/2016 academic year. During the study, there were 27 (19 public and eight non-public) preparatory schools in the City of Addis Ababa. The non-public schools include international private schools and foreign community schools. In this study, covering all the 19 public and the eight non-public schools was not considered efficient since there can be “diminishing returns associated with adding elements to a sample” (Dattalo 2008:7). Instead, sample schools were selected in the following ways.

The public preparatory schools were distributed across the 10 sub-cities of Addis Ababa. Since these schools can be considered comparable in terms of resource provision, teacher remuneration and student background, selecting sample schools from any of the sub-cities could have been fairly reasonable. However, taking account of the distribution of sample schools across a relatively large number of sub-cities was considered more reasonable. Accordingly, five sub-cities (50%) of the total were chosen by a lottery draw. Then, one preparatory school was included in the study from each selected sub-city. Where there were two or more preparatory schools in a sub-city, one of them was selected using the lottery method. In this way, five public preparatory schools were chosen for the study.

The selection of the sample schools was accompanied by sample size determination in line with the population of Grade 11 students in the 19 public preparatory schools ($N = 14445$).

For this purpose, the sample size determination technique proposed by Krejcie and Morgan was employed. These scholars devised a table that can be used to know the sample size for a particular defined population without a need for any calculation (Cohen, Manion & Marrison 2000:95). This table (see below) is based on the assumption that “as the population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases” (Krejcie & Morgan 1970:607). It was constructed using the formula: $s = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$ in which s = required sample size, X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841), N = the population size, P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size) and d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

Table 3.1: Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384
Note.— <i>N</i> is population size. <i>S</i> is sample size.					

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608)

According to the table values, the sample size for a population of 10000 is 370 while it is 375 for a population of 15000. The population of Grade 11 students in the 19 preparatory schools

($N = 14445$) is closer to 15000 than to 10000. Therefore, a sample of 375 was taken to represent this population. This procedure thus yielded a large-enough sample size which was distributed to the selected schools for the administration of the reading comprehension test and the questionnaire.

However, the non-public schools were not distributed across sub-cities with the same pattern as the public schools: some sub-cities did not have such schools at all. Therefore, the selection of sample non-public schools was done in accordance with the population of Grade 11 students in these schools irrespective of their locations in sub-cities.

Five international private schools and three foreign community schools constituted the category of non-public schools. The population of Grade 11 students in these schools during data collection was 343. In the Krejcie-Morgan table, it is stated that 181 samples are required for a population of 340 to which 343 is very close. Thus, the sample size for non-public schools was determined to be 181. This was deemed to be a large-enough sample to represent the stated population. Since the population sizes in such schools were small, maximizing the number of target schools was necessary in order to obtain the required sample. To this end, three international private schools and two foreign community schools ($N = 5$) were selected by lot to which the total sample was distributed.

Initially, systematic random sampling was proposed for selecting each sample element from each school. However, it was abandoned during the actual sample selection because of a compelling reason. The population sizes in the non-public schools were too small to lend themselves to systematic selection of samples. This necessitated the use of availability sampling technique to select samples from the schools chosen in this category. To be consistent in sample selection, this method was also employed in public schools. According to Dattalo (2008:6), "Availability sampling is a technique in which elements are selected because of their accessibility to the researcher". Thus, the students who were available in their classrooms during data collection were chosen randomly or taken totally (taking account of the required sample size) to work on the reading comprehension test and fill out the questionnaire in the few days after selection.

The above methods of sample size determination and sample selection were hence used for reading comprehension test and questionnaire administrations. The selections of schools for classroom observation and independent reading follow-up were undertaken differently. For the classroom observation, one public school and one non-public school were chosen purposively on the ground of easy access to classrooms. Easy access to classrooms was taken as a criterion for selection since entry to the non-public schools was mostly difficult because of security concerns. Therefore, one non-public school (out of the five chosen for the quantitative study) which facilitated easier access to the teaching-learning venue was chosen. Likewise, although access to classrooms was relatively easy in public schools, for the sake of relative consistency in selection, one school which granted access to the chosen classroom at first request was selected using the same technique. On the other hand, two of the five selected public schools barely had English fictions, newspapers and magazines in their libraries. These schools were excluded from the independent reading follow-up. Therefore, the library reading follow-up was conducted in three of the already-sampled five public schools where such resources were available. Similarly, the follow-up took place in three non-public schools where librarians' willingness to assist the process was obtained on the basis of negotiated agreement.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

Five data collection instruments were used in this study. While quantitative data were gathered through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist, qualitative data were collected using observation schedule and content analysis checklist. The following subsections give details on the choice and application of these data collection instruments.

3.4.1. Reading Comprehension Test

Independent reading among a certain group of students cannot be conceived without considering their ability to comprehend texts which are appropriate for their levels. Thus, the first step in studying independent reading in English among Grade 11 students should be that

of determining their reading comprehension abilities. Reading comprehension ability is measured with comprehension tests. Tests of reading comprehension can be categorized in various ways based on the purpose they are meant to serve (Berne & Degener 2012:90). Some reading tests are used to place students to a certain level. Some are used to measure reading achievement after the completion of an academic program - a semester, a year or several years. Other tests are used to assess general reading proficiency. Reading proficiency tests are utilized to appraise whether someone has reached the reading proficiency expected at a certain level. Standardized tests such as International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) are often applied internationally to measure candidates' proficiency in reading and other English language skills.

In this study, reading proficiency test was used to determine the reading comprehension abilities of the target students. For this purpose, a standard reading test selected from TOEFL online practice tests was administered. TOEFL is a test of English as a foreign language which measures candidates' reading comprehension skill along with their abilities in listening, speaking and writing. TOEFL was considered appropriate for this study since it has different levels to choose from and adapt to varying contexts. Although TOEFL tests are standardized tests meant for learners of English as a foreign language, their difficulty level should better be evaluated viz-a-viz the abilities and learning experiences of the candidates in focus. This is because EFL learners can have varying reading experiences and abilities depending, among other things, on resource provisions, instructional goals and education policies of their respective contexts.

Thus, before the actual administration, the test was subjected to the comments of Grade 11 English teachers to ensure its face and content validities. Confusing and poorly constructed items were thus revised based on the comments of the teachers. In addition, the test was piloted with 50 Grade 11 students (in schools other than the ones selected for the main study) to check its difficulty level and discrimination power. Based on the results of the pilot study, Item 5, Item 12 and Item 19 (see Appendix I) were improved so that acceptable difficulty

level and discrimination power were achieved. To maintain consistency of administration, the test was administered to the study participants uniformly by assistant data collectors under the close supervision of the researcher. To this end, one teacher was recruited as data collector from each school and received orientation on the procedure of the test administration. Most of the items on the test were objective type (true/false, matching, multiple-choice and gap-filling). In this case, rater bias was not a risk: these items were marked by one teacher. However, since students' reasoning skill had to be measured as one sub-skill of reading, one item was included in the test for this purpose. Therefore, to reduce rater bias, this part was marked by two teachers and the results were averaged.

As indicated in the preceding paragraph, the reading comprehension test contained true/false, matching, multiple-choice, gap-filling and open-ended formats. Firstly, the true/false items were intended to test the students' abilities to discriminate information as correct or incorrect based on the reading passage. In this test type, only two options are provided, and the chance of getting the correct answer is 50%. Therefore, beginning with the true/false format helped to move from simple items to complex ones as suggested by experts in the field of testing. The choice of the matching format was to enable the test-takers to identify the correct match (meaning) for an item (vocabulary) from seven given alternatives based on the information contained in the passage. In other words, the matching format was used to test the students' word-attack skill (the skill of guessing meanings of new words from their contexts of use). Since matching items are short, they are relatively easier than multiple-choice items. Therefore, in this test, the matching format was also used as a transition from true/false to multiple-choice formats. Thirdly, the multiple-choice format was employed in the test to measure different sub-skills of reading: identifying specific details, summarizing main points, working out relationships between details and identifying the main idea of the passage to work out its title. Fourthly, the gap-filling format was used to measure the test-takers referencing abilities, i.e. their abilities to relate references (pronouns) to their antecedents (other words or groups of words the pronouns refer to in the passage). Finally, the open-ended item was used to enable the testees to express their understandings, feelings and reflections thereby showing their reasoning abilities.

3.4.2. Questionnaire

Questionnaires can be employed in quantitative surveys to collect data on topics such as attitudes, values, beliefs, motivations, experiences and behaviours through methods such as Likert scaling (Miller & Brewer 2003:13; Williams 2003:106). In this study, a Likert scale type questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from students regarding their predisposition towards and practice of independent reading. The questionnaire has items relating to the following determinants of independent reading: attitude towards learning English and reading materials written in this language, type of reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to a variety of reading resources.

The first set of items in the questionnaire deal with attitude. As discussed in the literature review, attitude determines the extent to which students develop independent reading habits. Therefore, students' reading attitude should be measured using appropriate instruments. With this understanding, McKenna and Kear (1990) developed a sound questionnaire which would help to collect quantitative data on primary school students' reading attitude. This questionnaire has a comprehensive coverage and consists of a set of items selected on the basis of desirable psychometric properties. Efficient for group administration, this instrument is reliable and valid, suited for students in Grades 1-6. The initial draft of the questionnaire had 39 items, was surveyed with 30 primary school teachers to pool their opinions, included some inputs from qualitative measures of attitude previously in use and was piloted with 499 Grades 1-6 students in a Midwestern US district.

Since independent reading was the subject of this study, the recreational reading component of the McKenna-Kear questionnaire was thought particularly relevant. This component has 10 items which ask what students feel: 1) when they read a book on a rainy Saturday, 2) when they read a book in school during free time, 3) about reading for fun at home, 4) about getting a book for a present, 5) about spending free time reading, 6) about beginning a new book, 7) about reading during summer vacation, 8) about reading instead of playing, 9) about going to a book store and 10) about reading different kinds of books.

In this study, since attitude was covered along with other variables (reading comprehension ability, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to a selection of reading texts, English teachers' scaffolding of independent reading and coverage of independent reading in English textbooks/coursebooks), reducing the number of the items dealing with attitude was necessary. In addition, the fact that the study was conducted in an EFL context necessitated the inclusion of items that measure attitude towards learning English. Moreover, it appeared useful to raise the number of options in the McKenna-Kear scale from 4 to 5 to make it consistent with other components of the questionnaire used in the study. On these bases, some adaptations were made on this instrument to make it fit for the purpose of the study.

Firstly, one new item was included in the recreational reading component of the McKenna-Kear scale to measure students' attitude towards learning English as a school subject. Secondly, another new item was included to check if the participants of the study would prefer another foreign language (e.g. Chinese, French or Arabic), instead of English, for instructional language in Ethiopian secondary schools. Thirdly, the items meant to measure the issues in 1, 2, 3, 5, 7 and 8 (see Appendix VI) were combined to ask what the study participants feel about reading English fictions, magazines or newspapers in their free times. The other items were rephrased and modified in such a way that they fitted the purpose of the study. Thus, an attitude scale consisting of 6 items with five options: *Never true of me (1)*, *Sometimes true of me (2)*, *Cannot decide (3)*, *Usually true of me (4)* and *Always true of me (5)* was used in the study. The participants were thus required to respond to each item on this scale by putting a tick mark under the appropriate option.

On the other hand, as explained in the literature review, motivation also plays an important role in independent reading since it "frequently makes the difference between learning that is temporary and superficial and learning that is permanent and internalized" (Edmunds & Bauserman 2006:414–424). Therefore, it is necessary to determine students' reading motivation viz-a-viz their practice of independent reading. With this in view, this study examined reading motivation of the target students. To this effect, the second component of

the questionnaire consists of items adapted to measure Grade 11 students' reading motivation. Thus, a modified version of the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) was used for this purpose. The MRQ is a questionnaire designed and validated to measure different dimensions of reading motivation. Firstly, in their study on primary school students in the US, Wigfield and Guthrie conducted factor analysis on the MRQ consisting of 82 items and proved that 51 of them were empirically valid. This version of the MRQ subsumed eleven dimensions identified based on self-efficacy theory, the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, expectancy-value theory, goal-orientation theory and the concept of socially-motivated goals (Komiyama 2013:150).

Later, Baker and Wigfield (1999) did further confirmatory factor analysis on the different aspects of reading motivation and provided additional evidence for the multidimensionality of the MRQ. Wang and Guthrie (2004), on their part, revised the eleven-dimension reading motivation model into an eight dimensional framework incorporating constructs concerning intrinsic motivation (curiosity, involvement and readiness to face challenges) and extrinsic motivation (competition, compliance, recognition for reading, intention to obtain good grades and social purpose for reading). In Wang and Guthrie's study, the consistency and validity of the eight dimensional model were proven with a sample of Grade 4 pupils in the US and in Taiwan. The MRQ underwent empirical testing and proved useful for wider application. As a result, as the following examples illustrate, it has been used as a useful measure of reading motivation by different researchers.

Komiyama (2013) indicates that, in 2001, Tercanlioglu adopted Wigfield and Guthrie's (1997) eleven dimensional framework to study Turkish high school EFL students' reading motivation. Guthrie, Wigfield and Vonseckers (2002) further validated the curiosity, involvement and willingness to face reading challenge dimensions of the MRQ in their study aimed to examine the effects of integrated instruction on motivation and reading strategy use among fifth and eighth grade students in three schools bordering a large, mid-Atlantic state metropolis, USA. Similarly, Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks and Perencevich (2004) employed this

version of the MRQ to determine domain specificity of reading motivation with particular focus on the self-efficacy and intrinsic motivations of Grade 3 students in a primary school in USA. In 2004, Lau reconstructed, validated and adapted the MRQ into the Chinese version of Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (CMRQ). Following this, Lau (2009) used the CMRQ to measure grade differences in reading motivation among Hong Kong students (Grades 4-11) in a Chinese educational context. In 2006, Dhanagala used Wang and Guthrie's (2004) eight dimensional questionnaire to examine college EFL students' reading motivation in Japan and Sri Lanka. Komiyama (2013) further adapted the eleven dimensions questionnaire into a five dimensional (one intrinsically-oriented and four extrinsically-oriented factors) Motivation for Reading English Questionnaire (MREQ) and applied it to investigate the factors underpinning second language reading motivation of adult English for Academic Purpose (EAP) learners in California State University.

Thus, it seems reasonable to adapt the MRQ to measure reading motivation in the Ethiopian EFL context. It was with this rationale that decision was taken to adapt this questionnaire for use in this study. In the above studies, motivation was measured quantitatively and the present study conforms accordingly. It is also useful to notice that researchers like Dhanagala (2006) and Komiyama (2013) prefer to exclude the self-efficacy component of Wigfield and Guthrie's (1997) MRQ. However, this component is included in this study on the ground that young EFL learners in Ethiopia, irrespective of the motivational orientation they possess for reading, may not involve in independent reading if they have self-efficacy problems. Therefore, a slightly modified version of Wigfield and Guthrie's (1997) MRQ was used in this study to measure students' reading motivation. This version is similar with the CMRQ applied by Lau (2009), and has the following characteristics.

The MRQ used in this study consists of items aimed to measure students' reading self-efficacy (8 items: perceived reading ability = 4; challenge-facing/risk-taking = 4), intrinsic motivation as a dimension of reading goal (12 items: curiosity = 5; involvement = 4; importance = 3), extrinsic motivation as a second dimension of reading goal (14 items: grades = 4; recognition = 5; competition = 5) and social motivation as a third dimension of

reading goal (7 items). The original MRQ contains four more items dealing with reading work avoidance, but these items are not included in the MRQ used in this study since the information they generate can be abstracted from the data collected with the items meant to measure willingness to face reading challenges in the self-efficacy dimension of the same questionnaire. Therefore, 41 items were included in the adapted version of the MRQ. The items in the self-efficacy dimension are meant to assess the participants' perceived reading ability and their willingness to face risks. The items in the intrinsic motivation scale are designed to measure the participants' intrinsic reading motivation from the perspectives of curiosity, involvement and perceived value of reading. On the other hand, the items in the extrinsic motivation are devised to measure the students' extrinsic reasons for reading in relation to the sub-scales of recognition, competition and grades. Finally, the items constituting the social motivation component of the questionnaire are intended to assess the participants' social purposes for reading.

The MRQ used in this study, like the category in the reading attitude questionnaire used in the same, has five response options: *Never true of me (1)*, *Sometimes true of me (2)*, *Cannot decide (3)*, *Usually true of me (4)* and *Always true of me (5)* adopted from Oxford (1990). Therefore, the participants were required to respond to each item in the questionnaire on this five-point Likert scale by putting a tick mark under the appropriate option. The data collected through the MRQ part of the questionnaire, along with the data gathered via the reading attitude component, were used to answer the research sub-question: "What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?"

The other dimensions of the questionnaire are reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. The reading strategy use dimension has the components of Metacognitive strategy (5 items), cognitive strategy (7 items) and socio-affective strategy (5 items). These items were designed based on the views of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Bouchard (2005) and Lanning (2009). They have five options: *Never true of me (1)*, *Sometimes true of me (2)*, *Cannot decide (3)*, *Usually true of me (4)* and *Always true of me (5)*. On the other hand, the dimension of persistence in independent reading consists of

6 items intended to find out the frequency with which students engage in independent reading. These items, like the items on reading strategy use, have the options: *Never true of me (1)*, *Sometimes true of me (2)*, *Cannot decide (3)*, *Usually true of me (4)* and *Always true of me (5)*. Finally, 7 items, designed based on insights advanced by Reis et al. (2008) and Gilmore (2011) focus on accessibility of reading resources. Each of these items contains five options: *Strongly disagree (1)*, *Disagree (2)*, *Cannot decide (3)*, *Agree (4)* and *Strongly agree (5)*. The data generated through the items on reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading, along with other data collected via independent reading follow-up, were used to answer research sub-questions 3 and 4 respectively, while the data collected via the items on access to reading resources were used to answer research sub-question 5 (see section 3.2 above).

Two challenges were faced during questionnaire administration. The first was the length of the questionnaire which contains 77 items. However, since this challenge was observed during the pilot study, appropriate measures were taken. Firstly, effort was made to make each item short and precise. This helped to reduce comprehension problems and boredom among students when they filled out the questionnaire. The second challenge was that few students in public schools found the language in few of the items of the questionnaire difficult. Since this was expected, support was provided by the researcher and assistant teachers from the respective schools. In these ways, the challenges so faced were mitigated and the required data were collected successfully.

3.4.3. Observation Schedule

Researchers in the social and human sciences are interested in peoples' behaviour. In this case, they attempt to "understand how people act, the motivations for and influences on behaviours and the nature of social interactions" (Kalof, Dan & Deitz 2008:114). According to these authors, one way of studying human behaviour is by observing people directly as they carry out particular activities. An observation is thus a purposeful and selective way of watching and/or recording an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place naturally (Walliman 2001:198; Crado & Brewer 2002:197; Thomas 2003:60). As Nunan (1992:93)

elaborates, classroom observation can be used to study the conditions, processes and constraints in target language instruction. With a similar conviction, Kaufman and Kaufman (2005:119) point out that observation is a versatile approach to data collection that is growing in importance in educational research since it can elicit data which may not be acquired through other methods. To emphasize this fact, Denscombe (2007:206) writes: “It does not rely on what people say they do, or what they say they think. It is more direct than that. Instead, it draws on the direct evidence of the eye to witness events first hand. It is based on the premise that, for certain purposes, it is best to observe what actually happens”.

Therefore, studies that focus on formal teaching-learning processes can benefit significantly from data on actual classroom encounters which reveal what people involved in the process do as opposed to what they say or believe they do. Such data are usually collected through direct classroom observation. Accordingly, classroom observation was amenable to the qualitative component of this study since it helped to collect qualitative data (lesson contents, exercise types, interactions and reflections) from the actual teaching-learning encounters. Thus, nonparticipant, direct classroom observation was employed in order to collect qualitative data used to ascertain how teachers of English would scaffold independent reading.

Accordingly, classroom observations were made in this study to collect data on qualitative instructional factors that could facilitate or limit the development of independent reading skills among the target students. The observations were carried out using an observation schedule that focused on the objectives, beginnings, progressions and endings of the observed lessons to see patterns that emerge from the process of instruction. The observation checklist focused on these stages of lessons in order to elicit data useful to capture how independent reading was addressed in the observed classrooms. The observations were conducted by the researcher in classrooms taught by two different teachers (one in each school selected for observation) until information saturations were reached. This helped meet two important requirements of observation noted by Corbetta (2003:236), i.e. a) observations must be carried out by the researcher, not delegated to someone else and b) the period spent

for observation should be relatively long. The observed lessons were audio-recorded, transcribed and summarized thematically before analysis. The data obtained through observations were then used to answer the seventh research question that focused on the inputs and activities Grade 11 English teachers included in their instructions to help students to become independent readers (see section 3.2).

3.4.4. Content Analysis Checklist

Textbooks/coursebooks play a crucial role in providing appropriate inputs and bringing about desirable behavioral changes in students - the development of independent reading skills among Grade 11 students is not an exception. Regarding this, Cunningsworth (1995:16) writes: “By promoting progressively higher levels of autonomy and self-reliance among learners, teaching materials can play an important role in taking them to threshold of independent language learning”. With this rationale, content analysis was used as a means of qualitative data collection in this study. Content analysis is one form of document analysis which is a process of collecting, reviewing, interpreting, interrogating and critiquing of various forms of text as a primary source of research data (O’Leary 2004:117). In the study, contents of selected reading lessons were analyzed on the ground that content analysis is often used by researchers in the field of education (Scott & Marrison 2005:38) of which language education is a subset.

The content analysis was aimed to elicit data on the coverage of independent reading components in comprehension lessons in the Grade 11 English textbook (2011) that was being used in public schools. In addition, to compare the reading lessons in this textbook with the ones in the coursebook which was in use in a selected non-public school, some reading lessons in the latter were analyzed with a similar focus. Content analysis is usually carried out using a checklist prepared or adopted for this purpose. Thus, the content analysis in this study was accomplished using a checklist that focused on various aspects of independent reading. Particularly, the parts of the checklist were designed in such a way that they would enable to obtain data on how strategy based reading instruction and linkage of in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading were addressed in the textbooks. Strategy

based reading instruction and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class self-directed reading were the focus of the checklist because they are important strategies to nurture independent reading. Checklist was believed to be appropriate for this purpose because it helps to determine the presence or absence of an attribute and the prevalence of an item, an event, a habit or an activity (Colton & Cover 2007:9). The data collected through content analysis was used to answer the eighth research sub-question pertaining to how independent reading is covered in Grade 11 English textbooks (see section 3.2).

To maximize coverage that ensured information saturation, reading comprehension lessons included in six out of twelve units of the textbook used in public schools were covered in the analysis. The selection was done in such a way that the reading lesson(s) in every other unit was/were included beginning with Unit 1, which was chosen by lottery method. Accordingly, the reading comprehension lessons in the first, third, fifth, seventh, ninth and eleven units underwent analysis.

The other text included in the analysis from the ones in use in non-public schools was part of a coursebook, *‘English Language and Literature for the IB Diploma’* (2012), used in one international private school which has a long experience of operation in Ethiopia and elsewhere in the world. The coursebook is central to the resources which aim to: a) encourage learners to explore concepts, ideas and topics that have local and international significance, b) help students to develop positive attitude to learning in preparation for higher education, and c) assist students in approaching complex questions, applying critical thinking skills and forming reasoned answers.

As stated in its introduction (Pages v-vii), the coursebook forms part of the International Baccalaureate (IB) Diploma Programme. It is also pointed out that teachers and students who follow other academic programmes may also use the coursebook for pre-university course on English language and literature. The course is composed of four parts: Part 1 (Language in cultural context), Part 2 (Language and communication), Part 3 (Literature: texts and contexts) and Part 4 (Literature: critical study). Of these, selected lessons in the first part underwent analysis which ended at information saturation.

3.4.5. Independent Reading Follow-up Checklist

Independent reading has cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions. The cognitive dimension refers to the reader's reading comprehension skills and strategic thinking ability. The affective dimension concerns the reader's attitudinal and motivational orientations in relation to reading in a new language. On the other hand, the behavioural dimension relates to the actual reading the individual reader involves in. Therefore, the extent to which students engage in independent reading needs investigating to determine their consistency in out-of-class self-initiated reading. By carefully recoding students' outside-class reading behaviours, it is possible to infer their persistence in independent reading. It was with this belief that independent reading follow-up was chosen as a technique of data collection in this study.

In this study, follow-up was made to collect data on students' practice of independent reading in libraries of their schools and the type of materials (academic vs. leisure reading resources) they read. To this effect, independent reading follow-up checklist was used. Here, too, checklist was considered an appropriate instrument to collect data about students' reading behaviours because it helps to determine the presence or absence of an attribute and the prevalence of an item, an event, a habit or an activity (Colton & Cover 2007:9). The checklist was filled by school librarians (in three public and three non-public schools) who recorded the students' independent reading practice for a period of one month. To avoid the effect of exams on students' reading behaviour, the follow-up was carried out before the first term final exams approached. Before they began collecting data using the checklist, the librarians received orientation on how to fill the required information in this instrument. The quantitative data collected using this technique was used to extend the quantitative findings intended to answer the research sub-question regarding the persistence with which Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools engaged in independent reading (see section 3.2).

3.5. Validity and Reliability

Every study strives to come up with sound conclusions based on accurate data collected through appropriate instruments. Thus, the soundness of the conclusions of a research study refers to its validity. In other words, validity relates to the question of whether a study has achieved what it has set out to achieve (Singh 2006:249). This implies that the extent to which a certain study captures the true meaning of the issue under investigation is a function of its validity. On the other side, the findings of a study should be trustworthy to be replicated with consistent results under similar conditions. The extent to which a study is replicated using similar procedures to produce consistent results at different times and circumstances refers to its reliability. Therefore, validity and reliability are important research concepts. Subsections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2 provide brief details concerning validity and reliability respectively, and account for how they were achieved in this study.

3.5.1. Validity

As indicated above, validity in research designates the “conceptual and empirical soundness or accuracy of a study” (Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger 2005:158). As these authors further explain, the purpose of ensuring validity in research is to maximize the accuracy and usefulness of the findings by reducing the effects of confounders on the study variable. This enables the researcher to draw sound inferences with a high degree of confidence. Research validity is often classified into four dimensions: internal validity, external validity, construct validity and statistical validity. These dimensions are briefly described in the paragraphs to follow.

Internal validity and external validity may exist complementarily since the presence of the former can imply that of the latter. Internal validity is the extent to which a study rules out alternative explanations of the results of the study. Thus, a research with strong internal validity demonstrates that the independent variable is directly responsible for the effect observed on the dependent variable. A researcher can maximize the internal validity of an experimental research and offset rival explanations or extraneous influences by controlling for variables other than the independent variable. Doing so permits him/her to ascribe “the

results of the study more confidently to the independent variable or variables” (Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger 2005:159). On the other hand, external validity refers to the generalizability of the results of a research study. It concerns the degree to which the findings of a study are generalizable to similar situations, conditions or populations (Crano & Brewer 2002:79). This is a question of whether the conclusions drawn about the strength of the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables can be concluded about circumstances beyond those which were focused on in a study. External validity of a study can be increased by maximizing the sample size to ensure representativeness.

The remaining two forms of validity are construct validity and statistical validity. According to Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005:188), construct validity refers to the nexus between the results of a study and the theoretical underpinnings guiding it. It is understood that construct validity is an issue of whether the theory that informed the study provides the best available explanations of the results. Clearly stated and precisely expressed operational definitions of variables, accurate data and symbiotic link between underlying theory with findings help maintain construct validity of a study. On the other hand, as the name indicates, statistical validity refers to quantitative evaluation of the soundness of the conclusions drawn from the results of a study (Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger 2005:192). It addresses the issue of whether the statistical inferences drawn from the results of a study are plausible. Therefore, using appropriate statistical tools in quantitative data analysis helps maximize the statistical validity of a study.

Generally, relevant and accurate data are indispensable for a valid research to be carried out (King, Keohane & Verba 1994:26). For a research study to be valid, it should be based on appropriate analysis of data collected from credible sources via sound instruments. The questions and/or items used in data collection instruments are hence the basis for the findings and conclusions of a sound research. From this perspective, validity is defined as the capability of a research instrument to measure what it is meant to measure (Kirk & Miler 1986:19). Therefore, as Kumar (1996:137–138) explains, data gathering instruments should be prepared so that each item/question is logically linked to one objective (face validity); the

items/questions should cover all aspects of the issue being studied (content validity); one instrument must be comparable with another instrument simultaneously used (concurrent validity), and the instrument(s) should predict the outcome (predictive validity).

Since this study did not intend to establish causality, the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable was not the focus. However, the validities of the survey instruments (reading comprehension test and questionnaire) had to be ascertained. Thus, to establish face and content validity of the test, utmost care was taken in adopting an appropriate measurement from TOEFL test battery. The test draft was also subjected to the comments of Grade 11 English language teachers in public and non-public schools. In addition, the commented version of the test was piloted to find out whether it could measure what it was intended to measure, and revisions were made accordingly. For example, as implied in subsection 3.4.1, the pilot study revealed that some items had poor difficulty level and discrimination power. These items were thus revised to make them fit for the purpose. Similarly, to maintain the face and content validities of the questionnaire respectively, maximum care was taken in its design to make sure that each item logically fitted in one research question and to ascertain that all aspects of the research issue were fairly represented. To achieve concurrent validity of the questionnaire, utmost effort was made to ensure that it contains items related to the research issue and the literature review. The questionnaire so prepared was then subjected to the comments of colleagues and the research supervisor since doing so was believed to help improve the quality of each item and to enhance the face and content validities of the instruments.

On the other hand, while representative sample sizes were used to increase the validity of the quantitative part of the study, triangulation was used to validate the qualitative component (Flick, Kardoff & Steinke 2004:17). Additionally, instrument design, data analysis and interpretation of the findings were done in line with the theoretical underpinning of the study to address the issue of construct validity. Data were also analyzed and interpreted using appropriate methods to establish the statistical validity of the quantitative component of the study and to increase the interpretative quality of the qualitative component. These steps

were thus believed to maximize the predictive validity of the research tools and the soundness of the findings.

3.5.2. Reliability

A research needs to be consistent, stable, accurate and credible. Consistency, stability, accuracy or credibility of a research study refers to its reliability. That is, the reliability of a study refers to its consistency on repeated trials (Kirk & Miller 1986:19). Regarding this, Golafshani (2003:598) quotes Joppe (2000) as saying "... The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as its reliability". Accordingly, if a given study can be replicated under a similar condition using the same methodology and yields outcomes comparable with the previous ones, it is considered reliable. There are two types of reliability: external reliability and internal reliability. While external reliability is the degree to which an independent investigator can repeat a study and come up with conclusions similar to the conclusions drawn in the previous study, internal reliability refers to the consistency of data collection and interpretation procedures. That is, internal reliability is a question of whether a research, replicated through the same methods and procedures, leads to the same findings observed during the first investigation (King, Keohane & Verba 1994:27).

In an attempt to establish the reliability of this study, apposite methods of data collection and analysis were used. Firstly, the instruments were adopted from the existing literature and/or designed based on scholars' views. Secondly, the methods of data analysis and interpretation, as much as possible, drew on the literature review and previous research works with strict adherence to the aim of the study. Thirdly, the items of the questionnaire were adopted and/or designed carefully so that they meant the same thing to all respondents, even at different times. The intents of the study were also explained clearly to the research participants before questionnaire administration so that all could acquire the same understanding and provide credible data. Additionally, classroom observations and textbook analyses were conducted by the researcher, following the same procedures in all the settings and for all the documents, so that all the pertinent activities and facts were recorded

uniformly. What is more, to check the reliability of the quantitative data, the internal consistency of the items was determined by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient from the results of the pilot study. Based on the results of the pilot study, two items in the reading attitude component of the questionnaire were removed since they had low internal consistency index (Cronbach's alpha coefficient). Confusing constructions (e.g. EFL) and negatively worded items were also revised based on the pilot study. In addition, the pilot-test indicated areas of improvement in the other data gathering instruments (observation schedule, content analysis checklist and independent reading follow-up checklist). Problem areas were therefore acted upon to improve the qualities and feasibilities of these instruments.

3.6. Procedure of Data Collection

The process of data collection via the five instruments described above was carried out as follows. Firstly, following the issuance of ethical clearance certificate by the College of Human Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee at UNISA (2015 CHS 02), a support letter from the Postgraduate and Research Coordinating Office of the College of Social Sciences and Humanities, Jimma University, was submitted to the administrations of six target schools. Another support letter was obtained from the Ministry of Education and submitted to five schools which demanded it. Secondly, the reading comprehension test and the questionnaire were pilot-tested, improved accordingly and made ready for administration. Then, the purpose of the study was explained to the concerned officials whose permission was obtained before data collection. Next, the purpose of the study was also explained to the study participants prior to the administration of the reading comprehension test and the questionnaire. The two instruments were administered in a situation where the participants were gathered in pre-selected rooms, so preferred to avoid duplication of responses, clarify questions and maximize return rate (Kumar 1996:113).

After test and questionnaire administrations, to obtain the teachers' consents and arrange suitable venues and schedules for classroom observations, discussions were held with the respective Grade 11 English language teachers. Then, observations were conducted in the

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selected classrooms until information saturation was achieved. Meanwhile, after receiving orientations on the procedure of entering data into the independent reading follow-up checklist, willing librarians collected data on students' self-initiated reading in libraries. Content analysis was also done along with the observations and continued until sometime afterwards.

3.7. Methods of Data Analysis

As discussed earlier, to address the research sub-questions and answer the main research question, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Quantitative data were collected through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist to answer specific research questions that focused on Grade 11 students' reading comprehension ability levels, reading attitude along with reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to a selection of reading resources and existence of differences across public and non-public schools regarding Grade 11 students' predisposition towards and practice of independent reading. On the other hand, qualitative data were gathered via observation schedule and content analysis checklist to answer the research sub-questions concerning English teachers' scaffolding of independent reading and coverage of independent reading in Grade 11 English textbooks respectively. This necessitated the use of both quantitative and qualitative techniques in data analysis. Here, to establish a clear perspective, it appears useful to discuss the distinction between quantitative and qualitative analyses which arises from the quantitative-qualitative divide in the research tradition.

Quantitative research focuses on variables that are quantified or measured. According to Byrne (2002:29), a quantifiable variable is a variable that varies in value with application of mathematical calculations. King, Keohane and Verba (1994:3) explain that quantitative research relies on numerical measurements of particular aspects of events, processes or phenomena. Thus, structured questionnaires, experiments and tests are used to obtain quantitative data. As a result, quantitative data require quantitative analysis. Conversely, qualitative research does not use numerical measurements; it rather depends on verbal or

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symbolic data collected through in-depth interviews, depth analyses of documents, focus group discussions, observations and recordings (Flick, Kardoff & Steinke 2004:4). Therefore, qualitative methods generate qualitative data that need qualitative analysis.

Thus, data analysis can be done quantitatively or qualitatively. Quantitative data analysis employs statistical tools such as percentage, mean, standard deviation, t-test, chi-square, etc. On the contrary, the analysis of qualitative data does not use statistics since such data are analyzed interpretatively through the methods of description, narration, rigorous analysis, interpretation and synthesis based on themes or patterns that emerge from the data. In other words, qualitative analysis uses techniques that are descriptive, narrative, analytical and interpretative in character. Researchers can use one technique or the other depending on the nature of the study and the type of data. It can also be necessary to employ both techniques of analysis when the study blends both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Since quantitative and qualitative data were gathered to achieve the aim of this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis were employed. Accordingly, quantitative techniques were used to analyze the data collected via reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist. In the analysis of the quantitative data gathered through the test and the questionnaire, the data were entered into EpiData and exported to Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 for analysis into means, medians, ranges, standard deviations and Mann-Whitney U test scores (mean and Mann-Whitney test scores used in the interpretation of the results). However, the quantitative data collected via independent reading follow-up were analyzed manually into frequency distributions and percentages. This was followed by the analysis of the qualitative data as discussed in the following paragraphs.

The qualitative data generated through classroom observations were analyzed based on the technique of interaction analysis. The classroom observations generated data on teacher-student, students-student and student-material and students-task interactions. Put differently, these set of data included interactions of students with their teachers (human-to-human), learning materials such as textbooks and handouts (human-to-non-human) and tasks (human-

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to-non-human). This fits within the features of interaction analysis which focuses on the interaction of human beings with other human beings and with non-human entities. Interaction analysis originated from qualitative techniques such as ethnography, ethnomethodology, conversation analysis (Schutt 2011:333-337) and other alternatives as described in the following excerpt:

Interaction analysis... is an interdisciplinary method for the empirical investigation of the interaction of human beings with each other and with objects in their environment. It investigates human activities, such as talks, nonverbal interaction, and the use of artifacts and technologies, identifying routine practices and problems and resources for their solution. Its roots lie in ethnography (especially participant observation), socio-linguistics, ethnomethodology, conversation analysis, kinesics, proxemics, and ethnology (Jordan & Henderson 1995:39).

On the other side, the qualitative data collected through the review of selected reading lessons in English textbooks were analyzed based on the features of content analysis. According to Vogt (2005:60), content analysis refers to “Any of several research techniques used to describe and systematically analyze the content of written, spoken, or pictorial communication such as books, newspapers, television programs, or interview transcripts”. Likewise, in this study, content analysis was employed to describe, analyze and interpret contents of textbooks (written content). The qualitative findings from the content analyses were then triangulated with the respective quantitative and qualitative findings. This is in line with the views of Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010:56) who point out that triangulation is one aspect of research that uses quantitative and qualitative techniques.

3.8. Ethical Considerations

“Ethical practice is a moral stance that involves conducting research to achieve not just high professional standards of technical procedures, but also respect and protection for the people actively consenting to be studied” (Payne & Payne 2004:67). It is maintained that nearly all studies that involve human participants are associated with a certain degree of risk. According to Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005:233), such risks can range from

“minor discomfort or embarrassment caused by somewhat intrusive or provocative questions to much more severe effects on participants’ physical or emotional well-being”. In addition, ethical issues can relate to the researcher’s integrity in using resources, collecting data and reporting findings. Therefore, a research undertaking must fulfill these requirements and meet ethical standards stipulated by respective institutions or sponsors.

In this study, care and responsibility was taken to meet ethical standards in dealing with human participants. Firstly, to provide proof for the legitimacy of the study, ethical clearance certificate was obtained from UNISA before the commencement of the study. Secondly, support letters were submitted to the administrations of the target schools, and the purpose, methods and procedures of the study were explained to them. After further discussions held with these officials, the research project was granted permission. Subsequently, the purpose, methods and procedures of the study were explained to the participants. In addition, for the sake of anonymity, the names of the schools and their locations (sub-cities) were not specifically mentioned anywhere in the study.

Students were clearly informed that the test was intended to collect data for the study, not to evaluate their abilities and assign marks for any stigmatization. They were also informed that the questionnaire survey and the independent reading follow-up would not have any purpose other than generating data for the study. Discussions were also held with participating teachers, and rapport was established with them so that they perceived the observation positively and felt at ease during its implementation. In the observation, the researcher’s role was less intrusive and every effort was made not to interfere in the proceedings of the lessons. After the observations and recordings, the materials were availed to and discussed with the teachers. Then, these materials were securely kept for the doctoral analytical purposes only. All the participants were assured that the data collected from them would be treated confidentially and that participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. Participants’ aged ≥ 18 years as well as teachers and librarians gave informed consent by signing forms prepared for this purpose. However, permission was secured from the parents or guardians of participants aged < 18 . Besides, all the sources referred to in the study were

properly cited and duly acknowledged. Data were collected properly from the right sources, and results were reported genuinely. In these ways, the study tried to satisfy UNISA's ethical requirements.

3.9. Conclusion

This chapter described the methodology used in the study conducted in selected public and non-public schools in Addis Ababa to investigate independent reading among Grade 11 students. To reach a fuller understanding of the research issue, both quantitative and qualitative data were used. Quantitative data were collected through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist. These data were analyzed into percentages, means, medians, standard deviations and Mann-Whitney U test scores. On the other hand, qualitative data were gathered via observation schedule and content analysis checklist. The data obtained through these instruments were then analyzed using qualitative techniques of description, narration and deep interpretation. To increase the usefulness and credibility of the data, the study adopted appropriate methods of ensuring validity and reliability. In data collection, clear steps were followed to maximize access to the right information. Care was also taken to satisfy ethical requirements which otherwise could have negatively affected the process and output of the study. The next chapters, Chapter 4 and Chapter 5, respectively present the quantitative and the qualitative findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

4.0. Introduction

This study investigated the predisposition alongside practice of independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in the Ethiopian context, focusing on selected schools in the City of Addis Ababa. Chapter 1, Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 focused on the introduction, the literature review along with the conceptual framework and the methodology of the study respectively. This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the quantitative findings. The quantitative component of the study specifically tried to answer the research sub-questions that can be classified into two categories. The ones in the first category relate to the target students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude along with reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to a selection of reading resources. The question in the second category asks whether there exist statistically significant differences between Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools as regards the issues pertaining to independent reading.

As indicated in the preceding paragraph, the research sub-questions concerning reading comprehension ability levels, reading attitude along with reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to independent reading resources and differences between students across public and non-public schools regarding issues in independent reading are amenable to the quantitative component of the study. Thus, the question that pertains to reading comprehension ability levels was addressed using quantitative data gathered through reading comprehension test while the ones on attitude along with reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources were addressed based on quantitative data collected via structured questionnaire. Data generated through independent reading follow-up was also used to support the answer to the research question about students' persistence in independent reading. On the other hand, the question on the existence of differences between the students

in the two school categories was answered using quantitative data gathered through the test, the questionnaire and the independent reading follow-up. Therefore, the data used to answer these research questions were analyzed using quantitative techniques.

The presentation and interpretations of the quantitative findings are thus structured according to the labels of reading comprehension ability, attitude towards learning English and reading English texts, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. Firstly, the findings concerning reading comprehension ability levels are dealt with (section 4.1). Secondly, the findings about reading attitude are taken up (section 4.2). Thirdly, the findings pertaining to reading motivation are presented and interpreted (section 4.3). Fourthly, the findings on reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading are looked at (section 4.4 and sections 4.5 respectively). Then, the chapter describes the findings regarding access to reading resources (section 4.6) and provides an overview of the quantitative findings (section 4.7) before it ends in a brief conclusion (section 4.8).

4.1. Reading Comprehension Ability

As stated in the conceptual framework of this study (see section 2.3), cognitive factors are among the prerequisites for independent reading. One of such factors is students' reading comprehension ability. Independent reading among a certain group of students cannot be thought of if they cannot comprehend texts deemed appropriate for their levels. Put simply, if students do not have the reading comprehension abilities which their levels demand, they should not be expected to successfully engage in independent reading. With this understanding, the reading comprehension ability levels of the participants of this study were assessed using a standard, pretested reading comprehension test to answer the respective research sub-question, namely:

What are the reading comprehension ability levels of Grade 11 students in public vs. non-public schools in Ethiopia?

A total of 556 Grade 11 students, 375(68.2%) from public schools and 181(31.8%) from non-public schools, took the test. Table 4.1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the comprehension test scores.

Table 4.1: Scores on Reading Comprehension Test by Type of School

School	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.	Range	Std. error
Public	375	41.43	40	16.02	79.17	.826
Non-public	181	69.64	70	14.35	90	1.097

As shown in the above table, the mean and median reading comprehension scores for public school students were 41.43 and 40 with a standard deviation and a range of 16.02 and 14.35 respectively. On the other hand, the mean and median scores on the same test for non-public school students were 69.64 and 70 with a standard deviation and a range of 14.35 and 90 in that order. This indicates that students in non-public schools did better on the test than those in public schools. The mean score for public school students (41.43) is lower than the least passing score (50%) in various tests including classroom examinations.

On the other hand, a Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the test scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. The skewness and the kurtosis for the former were .397($SE = .126$) and $-.455(SE = .251)$ respectively. The skewness and the kurtosis for the latter were $-1.036(SE = .184)$ $2.244(SE = .365)$ in the stated order. A log transformation was also made, but still the test scores were not normally distributed for students in both school categories. Following this, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted for the test scores were not normally distributed. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the reading score for non-public school students was significantly greater ($Mdn = 70$) than the one for public school students ($Mdn = 40$), $U = 61,183$, $Z = 15.271$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 376$, $P = .000$). In other words, a statistically significant

difference was observed between students in non-public schools and those in public schools, in favour of the former, in reading comprehension achievement.

These findings imply that Grade 11 students in non-public schools significantly outperformed Grade 11 students in public schools. Thus, non-public school students had better abilities to engage in independent reading than public school students for “students are motivated more to read when they have opportunities to be successful with challenging tasks” (Gambrell 2011:176). However, reading comprehension ability alone may not entail involvement in independent reading. This is because other variables such as attitude (Baker & Wigfield 1999:452), motivation (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling & Mazzoni 1996:518), reading strategy use (Fang, Lamme, Pringle & Abell 2010:77), persistence in independent reading (Naeghel, et al. 2012; Sanden 2012:222) and availability of self-access resources (Reis et al. 2008:299) exert considerable influences on students’ practice of independent reading. Instructional and textbook factors should also be taken into account in this regard.

4.2. Attitude towards Learning English and Reading English Texts

Students’ attitude towards learning a new language and reading materials written in this language plays a crucial role in their reading behaviour and performance (McKenna & Kear 1990:626). It is believed that attitude is a fundamental issue in students’ reading practice for two basic reasons. On the one hand, it can influence the development of students’ reading abilities by influencing their reading engagement and perseverance. On the other hand, because of poor attitude, able readers may decide to involve in activities other than reading [independently]. This can suggest that students’ attitude towards learning a new language and reading texts written in this language is one of the issues that can be addressed in studies of independent reading.

As a result, the attitudes of the participants of this study towards learning English and reading texts written in this language were measured using structured questionnaire. The items used to measure attitude formed the first part of the overall questionnaire employed in this study (see Appendix II). Six items were used to determine the participants’ attitude towards

learning English as a school subject, their views about using another foreign language [instead of English] as a medium of high school instruction, their feelings about reading English books as a pastime activity, their preference of reading English texts (fictions, newspapers or magazines) to playing games, the satisfaction they get when they read such texts and their general beliefs about reading English texts. The data collected with these items were used to partly answer the research sub-questions formulated as:

What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics for Attitude by Type of School

School	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.	Range	Std. error
Public	375	3.17	3.17	.81	3.83	.041
Non-public	181	3.50	3.50	.79	3.67	.060

As seen in Table 4.2, the mean and median attitude scores for public school students were 3.17 and 3.17 with a standard deviation and a range of .81 and 3.83 respectively. It is also shown that the mean and median attitude scores for non-public school students were 3.50 and 3.50 with a standard deviation and a range of .79 and 3.67 respectively. The mean attitude scores for both public school students (3.17) and non-public school students (3.50) were above the expected mean (3.0) labeled as 'cannot decide' in the Likert scale type questionnaire. This shows that the students in both school categories had positive attitudes towards learning English as a school subject and reading materials written in this language. However, it is worth noting that non-public school students had a better mean attitude score than public schools students ($3.50 > 3.17$).

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the reading attitude scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of .032($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of -

1.75($SE = .251$) were observed for public school students while a skewness of $-.205(SE = .184)$ and a kurtosis of $-.554(SE = .365)$ were found for non-public school students. Although a log transformation was made, the attitude scores were not still normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Thus, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted since the attitude scores were not normally distributed for students in both school categories. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the reading attitude scores were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.50$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 3.17$), $U = 39992.5$, $Z = 4.269$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). That means, a statistically significant difference in favour of non-public school students was observed between the two groups of students in attitude score.

The above findings demonstrate that both public and non-public school students had positive attitudes towards learning English and reading materials written in this language but with a statistically significant difference favouring those in non-public schools. From this, one can conclude that while Grade 11 students in public and non-public schools had positive attitudinal predispositions which can help them to engage in independent reading, those in non-public schools were found better in this regard. However, this inference should be seen in relation to their reading motivation since mere positive attitude may not presuppose independent reading practice.

4.3. Reading Motivation

Motivation has a considerable impact on the development of independent reading. As such, the interest to read can be as important as the ability to comprehend. Motivation energizes students to engage in reading according to their purpose and choice of texts. Thus, even the most proficient students may not engage in independent reading if they lack apposite motivation (Watkins & Goffey 2004:110). Appropriately motivated readers are self-directing and generate their own reading opportunities. They choose to read for a wide range of personal reasons such as curiosity, involvement, social interchange and emotional satisfaction. It was with this rationale that reading motivation was among the focus variables

of this study. It was measured in terms of its dimensions of reading goal and reading self-efficacy.

4.3.1. Reading Goal

Students' reading goal (purpose for reading) determines their reading behaviour and commitment. In this study, reading goal was analyzed into its sub-scales of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and social motivation (Watkins & Coffey 2004:110). Data on these constructs were gathered through part of the questionnaire consisting of 33 items (see Appendix II). Of these items, 12 were intended to measure intrinsic motivation which was sub-divided into curiosity (5 items), involvement (4 items) and importance of reading (3 items). The extrinsic motivation component of reading goal was addressed using 14 items focusing on grades (4 items), recognition (5 items) and competition (5 items). The third subdivision, social motivation for reading, was measured with 7 items. The results from this part of the questionnaire served to address the second part of the respective research sub-question. That is:

What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics for Reading Goal by Type of School

Sub-scale of Reading Goal		School	N	Mean	Mdn	Std.dev.	Range
Intrinsic Motivation	Curiosity	Public school	375	2.48	2.40	.91	4.0
		Non-public school	181	3.45	3.40	.77	4.0
	Involvement	Public school	375	2.57	2.50	.99	4.0
		Non-public school	181	3.08	3.00	1.03	4.0
	Importance	Public school	375	4.06	4.33	1.06	4.0
		Non-public school	181	4.05	4.00	.87	4.0
Extrinsic Motivation	Grade	Public school	375	3.12	3.25	.938	4.0
		Non-public school	181	3.46	3.5	.900	3.5
	Recognition	Public school	375	3.26	3.20	1.30	4.01
		Non-public school	181	3.92	4.0	.905	4.0
	Competition	Public school	375	3.41	3.60	.965	4.01
		Non-public school	181	3.43	3.60	.988	4.0
Social Motivation	Social purpose	Public school	375	3.44	3.42	.956	4.0
		Non-public school	181	3.02	3.0	.892	3.86

Table 4.3 summarizes the results on the sub-scales of intrinsic motivation (curiosity, involvement and importance of reading), extrinsic motivation (grades, recognition and competition) and social motivation (social purpose for reading). Regarding curiosity as a component of intrinsic motivation, the mean and median scores for public school students were 2.48 and 2.40 with a standard deviation and a range of .91 and 4.0 respectively. On the other hand, the mean and median scores of curiosity for non-public school students were 3.45 and 3.40 with a standard deviation and a range of .77 and 4.0 respectively. The mean score

for public school students (2.48) was a little below the expected mean (3.0) while the mean score for non-public school students (3.45) was above the same expected mean. This highlights that non-public school students scored better than public school students on the items measuring reading curiosity.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the curiosity scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of .439($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of -.459($SE = .251$) for public school students and a skewness of -.368($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of .068($SE = .365$) for non-public school students were observed. Although a log transformation was also conducted, the curiosity scores were still not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Thus, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was run since the curiosity scores were not normally distributed for students in both school categories. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the curiosity scores were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.45$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 2.40$), $U = 51,849.5$, $Z = 10.896$, $n_{private} = 181$, $n_{non-public} = 375$, $P = .000$). That is, there were statistically significant differences between the two groups of students on the sub-scale of curiosity: non-public school students were significantly more curious readers than their public school counterparts.

Concerning involvement, the second component of intrinsic motivation, the results in Table 4.3 indicate that the mean and median scores for public school students were 2.57 and 2.50 with a standard deviation and a range of .99 and 4.0 respectively. The table also shows that the mean and median scores of involvement for non-public school students were 3.08 and 3.00 with a standard deviation and a range of 1.03 and 4.0 respectively. Here, too, the mean score for public school students (2.57) was below the expected mean (3.0) while it was above the expected mean by .08 for non-public school students. This also implies that the latter were better than the former in their practice of involved reading.

For the measure of involvement, too, a Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores were not normally

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distributed for both public and non-public school students. Specifically, a skewness of .137(SE = .126) and a kurtosis of -.876(SE = .251) were observed for public school students while a skewness of -.108(SE = .184) and a kurtosis of -.733(SE = .365) were seen for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores of involvement were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Therefore, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the scores of involvement were significantly greater for non-public school students (Mdn = 3.00) than for public school students (Mdn = 2.50), $U = 41,725.5$, $Z = 5.147$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). That means, non-public school students were significantly better (statistically significant difference observed) than public school students in their practice of involved reading.

The results pertaining to importance of reading, the third aspect of intrinsic motivation, depict that the mean and median scores for public school students were 4.06 and 4.33 with a standard deviation and a range of 1.06 and 4.0 respectively. It is also shown that the mean and median scores of importance of reading for non-public school students were 4.05 and 4.00 with a standard deviation and a range of .87 and 4.0 respectively. The results illustrate that the mean score for public school students (4.06) and the mean score for non-public students were nearly equal, both being above the expected mean (3.0). From this, it can be concluded that the students in both school categories had positive and comparable views on the value of reading.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores on importance of reading were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of -1.011(SE = .126) and a kurtosis of .057 (SE = .251) were found for public school students whereas a skewness of -.851(SE = .184) and a kurtosis of .398(SE = .365) were observed for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores of importance of reading were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. As a result, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. The Mann-

Whitney test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between non-public school students ($Mdn = 4.00$) and public school students ($Mdn = 4.33$), $U = 30,524$, $Z = -1.349$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .177$) in respect to their views about the importance of reading. Thus, the mean scores and the results of the Mann-Whitney test corroborate in demonstrating that the students in both school categories had comparable positive views on the importance of reading.

The first component of extrinsic motivation, the second sub-scale of reading goal, measured in this study was grade, i.e. students' tendency of reading English texts in order to obtain good grades. The results in Table 4.3 indicate that the mean and median scores on the measure of grade for public school students were 3.12 and 3.25 with a standard deviation and a range of .938 and 4.0 respectively. The results in the same table also indicate that the mean and median scores on the measure of grade for non-public school students were 3.46 and 3.5 with a standard deviation and a range of .900 and 3.5 respectively. It is thus noticeable that the mean score for public schools students (3.25) and the mean score for non-public school students (3.46) were both above the expected mean (3.0), but the mean score for non-public schools exceeds the one for public school students by .34. This suggests that although students in both school categories registered positive scores on the measure of grade, those in non-public schools seemed more serious about obtaining good grades by reading relevant texts.

Again, a Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots indicated that the scores on the measure of grades were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of $-.225(SE = .126)$ and a kurtosis of $-.523(SE = .251)$ were observed for public school students while a skewness of $-.360(SE = .184)$ and a kurtosis of $-.476(SE = .365)$ were found for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Therefore, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. The Mann-Whitney test indicated that the scores on grades were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.50$) than

for public school students ($Mdn = 3.25$), $U = 39455.5$, $Z = 3.842$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). This thus implies that non-public school students were more serious than their public school counterparts (statistically significant differences observed) about reading texts in order to obtain good grades.

On the level of recognition, the second component of extrinsic motivation, the results in Table 4.3 show that the mean and median scores for public school students were 3.26 and 3.20 with a standard deviation and a range of 1.30 and 4.01 respectively. The same table also displays that the mean and median scores for non-public school students were 3.92 and 4.0 with a standard deviation and a range of .905 and 4.0 in the stated order. In other words, the mean scores of recognition for both public school students (3.26) and non-public school students (3.92) were above the expected mean (3.0). However, the mean score of recognition for non-public school students was higher than that of public school students. Based on these facts, it is possible to conclude that while both public school students and their non-public school counterparts read materials written in English for the purpose of gaining recognition from other people, the latter appeared to be more recognition-seeking than the former.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of recognition were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of $-.239(SE = .126)$ and a kurtosis of $-1.160(SE = .251)$ were observed for public school students while a skewness of $-.693(SE = .184)$ and a kurtosis of $-.211(SE = .365)$ were seen for non-public school students. Although a log transformation was also conducted, the scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Thus, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted since the scores of recognition were not normally distributed for students in both school categories. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the scores of recognition were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 4.0$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 3.20$), $U = 41915$, $Z = 5.257$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). This confirms the fact demonstrated by the mean scores that non-public school students were more recognition-seekers than public schools students in their reading

behaviour. In other words, a statistically significant difference was observed, favouring students in non-public schools, between the two groups of students in their scores on the extrinsic reading goal of recognition.

The third sub-scale of extrinsic motivation dealt with under the dimension of reading goal was competition. Table 4.3 displays that the mean and median scores of competition for public school students were 3.41 and 3.60 with a standard deviation and a range of .965 and 4.01 respectively. The same table depicts that the mean and median scores of recognition for non-public school students were 3.43 and 3.60 with a standard deviation and a range of .988 and 4.0 respectively. Here, the mean score of competition for public school students (3.41) and the mean score of the same construct for non-public school students (3.43), both above the expected mean (3.0), were close to each other. This suggests that students in both school categories were comparably competitive in their reading behaviours.

For the competition component, too, a Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots indicated that the scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of $-.406$ ($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.561$ ($SE = .251$) were found for public school students, but a skewness of $-.537$ ($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.178$ ($SE = .365$) were identified for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores of competition were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Therefore, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. This test revealed that the scores of competition did not differ significantly between non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.60$) and public school students ($Mdn = 3.60$), $U = 33,290$, $Z = .276$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .783$). This finding supports the fact which the mean scores suggested above, i.e. students in both school categories were comparable in possessing the reading goal of competition.

The third dimension of reading goal addressed in this study was social motivation (social purpose for reading). The results, as can be seen in Table 4.3, revealed that the mean and median scores of social purpose for public school students were 3.44 and 3.42 with a

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standard deviation and a range of .956 and 4.0 respectively. On the other hand, the table shows that the mean and median scores of social purpose for non-public school students were 3.02 and 3.00 with a standard deviation and a range of .892 and 3.86 respectively. It is noticeable here that the mean score for public school students (3.44) was above the expected mean (3.0) while that of non-public school students (3.02) was nearly equal to the expected mean. That is, public school students had a greater mean score of social purpose for reading than non-public school students.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of social purpose for reading were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of $-.288$ ($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.682$ ($SE = .251$) were identified for public school students while a skewness of $-.005$ ($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.566$ ($SE = .365$) were found for non-public school students. Although a log transformation was also conducted, the scores were still not normally distributed for students in both school categories. Consequently, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. This test unveiled that the scores of social motivation for reading were significantly greater for public school students ($Mdn = 3.42$) than the scores for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.00$), $U = 24451.5$, $Z = -4.821$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). In other words, the scores on social purpose for reading revealed a statistically significant difference between public and non-public schools students in favour of the former.

4.3.2. Reading Self-Efficacy

As discussed in the literature review, self-efficacy perception plays an important role in the development of independent reading skills since it determines students' reading motivation and perseverance. Students can hardly become successful independent readers only by acquiring various reading comprehension skills. To become effective independent readers, they must also develop positive self-efficacy beliefs and challenge-facing (risk-taking) capabilities (Combs 2012:224). This study addressed reading self-efficacy, the second dimension of reading motivation, in terms of perceived reading ability and challenge/risk-

taking capability. The data on this issue, like the data on reading goal, were used to address the second part of the research sub-question:

What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics for Reading Self-Efficacy by Type of Schools

Efficacy Components	School	N	Mean	Mdn	Std.dev.	Range
Perceived reading ability	Public school	375	3.27	3.25	.896	4.0
	Non-public school	181	3.36	3.35	.791	3.50
Challenge (risk-taking)	Public school	375	2.93	2.75	1.09	4.0
	Non-public school	181	3.39	3.50	.971	.971

With regard to perceived reading ability, as depicted in the above table, the mean and median scores for public school students were 3.27 and 3.25 with a standard deviation and a range of .896 and 4.0 respectively. On the other hand, the mean and median scores on the same component for non-public school students were 3.36 and 3.35 with a standard deviation and a range of .791 and 3.50 respectively. Both means (3.27 for public school students and 3.36 for non-public school students) are above the expected mean (3.0), but the mean score for the latter exceeds the one for the former by .08. This means that while students in both school categories had promising perceived reading abilities, non-public school students were slightly more confident than public school students in their reading competence.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots indicated that the scores of perceived reading ability were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of $-.364$ ($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.225$ ($SE = .251$) were identified for public school students whereas a skewness of $-.230$ ($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.479$ ($SE = .365$) were observed for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Following this, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted as the scores of perceived reading ability were not normally distributed for students in both school systems.

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The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the scores of perceived reading ability did not differ significantly for public school students ($Mdn=3.25$) and non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.35$), $U = 34,329$, $Z = .877$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .380$). That is, a statistically significant difference was not observed between public school students and their non-public school counterparts on scores of perceived reading ability.

As regards challenge (risk-taking), the second component of reading self-efficacy, the mean and median scores for public school students were 2.93 and 2.75 with a standard deviation and a range of 1.09 and 4.0 respectively. However, the mean and median scores of challenge (risk-taking) for non-public school students were 3.39 and 3.50 with a standard deviation and a range of .971 and 3.75 respectively. Here, it is evident that the mean score for public school students (2.93) and the mean score for non-public school students (3.29) were below and above the expected mean (3.0) respectively. The implication is that non-public school students were found to be more risk-takers than public school students.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of challenge (risk-taking) were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of .164($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of -.760($SE = .251$) were seen for public school students. On the other hand, a skewness of -.041($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of -.923($SE = .365$) were observed for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. Thus, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. The Mann-Whitney test unveiled that the scores of challenge (risk-taking) were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.50$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 2.75$), $U = 40,825$, $Z = 4.628$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .380$). This implies that there was a statistically significant difference between non-public school students and public school students in risk-taking behaviour: non-public school students were significantly more risk-takers in reading than their public school counterparts.

4.4. Reading Strategy Use

Reading strategy use is the application of reading techniques to achieve better comprehension. Students can tackle the challenges they face in reading by applying effective reading strategies. This is possible only when they know how to use their schematic knowledge in text comprehension, set their reading goals, monitor their reading comprehension, apply reading strategies selectively, choose texts that suit their reading purpose and appraise their reading progress. These higher order skills are components of metacognitive strategy which help students to take responsibility for the development of their own reading skills (Zabucky & Cumming 2005:723). There are also cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies that students can use selectively in their reading endeavours. Cognitive strategies are specific conscious operations which readers can apply in dealing with specific reading comprehension tasks (2005:52-79). On the other hand, socio-affective strategies are techniques students can apply to maximize learning through interaction with others such as classmates and teachers (Meyer 2010:501). In this study, reading strategy use among the participants was studied using 17 items of the questionnaire: 5 items on metacognitive strategy use, 7 items on cognitive strategy use and 5 items on socio-affective strategy use. The data elicited through these items served to address the following research sub-question:

What reading strategies do Grade 11 students predominantly use which help them to develop independent reading skills?

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics for Reading Strategy Use by Type of School

Types of Strategy Use	School	N	Mean	Mdn	Std.dev	Range
Metacognitive strategy use	Public school	375	3.11	3.20	1.095	4.0
	Non-public school	181	3.29	3.20	.898	4.0
Cognitive strategy use	Public school	375	3.22	3.29	.913	4.0
	Non-public school	181	3.47	3.43	.816	3.57
Socio-affective strategy use	Public school	375	2.71	2.6	1.00	4.0
	Non-public school	181	2.63	2.4	.913	4.0

Table 4.5 above shows that the mean and median scores of metacognitive strategy use for public school students were 3.11 and 3.20 with a standard deviation and a range of 1.095 and 4.0 respectively. On the other hand, the mean and median scores of the same strategy use sub-scale for non-public school students were 3.29 and 3.20 with a standard deviation and a range of .898 and 4.0 respectively. Whereas the mean score for public school students (3.11) was only slightly higher than the expected mean (3.0), the mean score for non-public school students (3.29) was not much above the one for public school students. This implies that metacognitive reading strategy use was not much promising among students in both school categories, but those in non-public schools were slightly better in this regard.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of metacognitive strategy use were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of $-.101$ ($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.760$ ($SE = .251$) were observed for public school students whereas a skewness of $-.317$ ($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.569$ ($SE = .365$) were found for non-public school students. Since a log transformation of the scores did not change the situation, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. This test unveiled that the

scores of metacognitive strategy use did not differ significantly between non-public school students (Mdn = 3.20) and public school students (Mdn = 3.20), $U = 36,111.5$, $Z = 1.904$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .057$). This result seems to suggest that there is no much practice in this respect that one school system can learn from the other.

Concerning the sub-scale of cognitive strategy use, the results in the table indicate that the mean and median scores for public school students were 3.22 and 3.29 with a standard deviation and a range of .913 and 4.0 respectively. The same table depicts that the mean and median scores of the same sub-scale for non-public school students were 3.47 and 3.43 with a standard deviation and a range of .816 and 3.57 respectively. Here, it is noticeable that both mean scores (3.22 for public schools and 3.47 for non-public schools) were above the expected mean (3.0). This suggests that students in both school categories were on the positive side regarding cognitive strategy use. However, students in non-public schools scored a much higher mean score (better cognitive strategy use) than those in public schools.

Here again, a Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of cognitive strategy use were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students: a skewness of $-.292$ ($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.618$ ($SE = .251$) for public school students but a skewness of $-.339$ ($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.170$ ($SE = .365$) for non-public school students. Since a log transformation of the scores did not bring about a different outcome, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. This test revealed that the scores of cognitive strategy use were significantly greater for non-public school students (Mdn = 3.43) than the scores for public school students (Mdn = 3.29), $U = 37,780.5$, $Z = 2.865$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .004$). That is, a statistically significant difference was observed, favouring students in non-public schools, between the two groups of students in respect to cognitive strategy use.

On the sub-scale of socio-affective strategy use, the results in the table show that the mean and median scores for public school students were 2.71 and 2.6 with a standard deviation and a range of 1.00 and 4.0 respectively. The table also illustrates that the mean and median

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scores of socio-affective strategy use for non-public school students were 2.63 and 2.4 with a standard deviation and a range of .913 and 4.00 respectively. Thus, the mean score for public school students (2.71) and the one for non-public school students (2.63) were both below the expected mean (3.0). From this, it can be inferred that public school students had a slightly higher mean score (better socio-affective reading strategy use) than their non-public school counterparts.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots revealed that the scores of socio-affective strategy use were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. A skewness of .147($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.878(SE = .251)$ were found for public school students while a skewness of .481($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.446(SE = .365)$ were observed for non-public school students. A log transformation was also conducted, but still the scores were not normally distributed for students in both school categories. Thus, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was run. The test revealed that the scores of socio-affective strategy use did not differ significantly between non-public school students ($Mdn = 2.4$) and public school students ($Mdn = 2.6$), $U = 31,216.5$, $Z = -.921$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .004$). In other words, although the mean scores showed that students in public schools were better in socio-affective strategy use than those in non-public schools, the difference between the two groups on this sub-scale of reading strategy use was not statistically significant.

4.5. Persistence in Independent Reading

Persistent reading practice (regular involvement in self-initiated reading) is an important requirement in independent reading (Hollingworth & Drake 2012:74-75). Students cannot become life-long independent readers unless they practise persistent reading which can ultimately establish itself into a permanent habit. Thus, classroom reading instruction should be connected with extended reading of texts such as fictions, magazines and newspapers so that students can develop the habit of reading such texts persistently. Concerning this issue, six items of the questionnaire were used in this study to generate data used to answer the following research sub-question:

How persistently do Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools practise independent EFL reading?

Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics for Persistence in Independent Reading by Type of school

Variable	School	N	Mean	Mdn	Std.dev.	Range
Persistence in independent reading	Public school	375	2.54	2.50	.808	4.0
	Non-public school	181	3.17	3.17	.900	4.0

As seen in Table 4.6 above, the mean and median scores of persistence in independent reading for public school students were 2.54 and 2.50 with a standard deviation and a range of .808 and 4.0 respectively. However, the mean and median scores on the same variable for non-public school students were 3.17 and 3.17 with a standard deviation and a range of .900 and 4.0 respectively. These results demonstrate that the mean score for public school students (2.54) was below the expected mean (3.0) while the mean score for non-public school students was above the same expected mean. This suggests that while students in public schools engaged in independent reading only sometimes, those in non-public schools engaged in such reading with a better frequency.

A Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of persistence in independent reading were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students. The skewness and the kurtosis of the scores for public school students were .344 ($SE = .126$) and .029 ($SE = .251$) respectively; they were 130($SE = .184$) and -.554($SE = .365$) for non-public school students in the stated order. A log transformation was also conducted. Nevertheless, the scores were still not normally distributed for students in both school categories. Thus, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the scores of persistence in independent reading were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.17$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 2.50$), $U = 45,836.5$, $Z = 7.516$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). This shows that there was a statistically

significant difference, in favour of non-public school students, between the two groups of students in scores of persistence in independent reading.

To supplement the data collected through questionnaire regarding students' persistence in reading independently, a library reading follow-up was conducted for a period of four weeks. The results of the independent reading follow-up are summarized in Table 4.7 below. The summary includes data on students' readings of academic materials such as natural science textbooks, natural science references, social science textbooks, social science references, English language textbooks and English language references. It also incorporates data generated on readings of non-academic materials like fictions, magazines, newspapers and other resources written in English. The field of natural science includes biology, chemistry, mathematics, physics and technical drawing. Included in the field of social science are business, civic and ethical education, economics, geography and history. On the other hand, the 'other resources' category embraces works on psychology, philosophy, religion, biographies, autobiographies and generalities (encyclopedias and dictionaries).

Table 4.7: Results of Independent Reading Follow-up

Text Types	Public Schools		Non-Public Schools	
	N	%	N	%
Natural science textbooks	449	14.40	101	13.00
Natural science references	1594	50.99	180	23.07
Social science textbooks	329	10.52	151	19.35
Social science references	555	17.75	98	12.56
English language textbooks	11	0.35	25	3.20
English language references	162	5.18	54	6.92
English fictions	5	0.15	73	9.35
English magazines	0	0.00	35	4.48
English newspapers	6	0.19	31	3.97
Other resources written in English	15	0.47	32	4.10
Total	3126	100.00	780	100.00

As shown in Table 4.7 above, 3126 were read in public schools during the follow-up period. Of these, readings of natural science textbooks, social science textbooks and English

language textbooks respectively accounted for 449(14.40%), 329(10.52%) and 11(0.35%) of the total. That is, readings of natural science textbooks took the highest share while those of English language textbooks had the least proportion. Of the readings of reference materials, 1594(50.99%), 555(17.75%) and 162(17.75%) were readings of references on the fields of natural science, social science and English language respectively. Here, too, readings of natural science reference materials had the highest proportion whereas readings of English language references had the least. On the other hand, readings of fictions, magazines, newspapers and other resources written in English were either low or none: readings of fictions, magazines, newspapers and other resources respectively formed 5(0.15%), 0(0%), 6(0.19%) and 15(0.47%) of the total.

The table also indicates that 780 texts were read in non-public schools over the four weeks. Of these, 101(13%), 151(19.35%) and 25(3.20%) constituted readings of natural science textbooks, social science textbooks and English language textbooks respectively. In this case, most of the materials read were social science textbooks while the least read ones were English language textbooks. On the other hand, 180(23.07%), 98(12.56%) and 54(6.92%) natural science, social science and English language references were read respectively. Of these, the majority were natural science references while English language references had the least percentage. Readings of fictions, magazines, newspapers and other resources respectively accounted for 73(9.5%), 35(4.48%), 31(3.97%) and 32(4.10%) of the total.

The results in the above table show low reading of English fictions, magazines and newspapers in both public and non-public schools. The reading of such texts in public schools was negligible, making only 0.34% (0.15% + 0% + 0.19%) of the total. However, it was 21.9% (9.35% + 4.48% + 3.97% + 4.10%) in non-public schools. That means, although students in both school categories had inadequate readings of fictions, magazines and newspapers, those in non-public schools were better in this regard than the ones in public schools (Range: 21.9% - 0.34% = 21.56). On the contrary, students in public schools excelled their counterparts in non-public schools in readings of academic texts (textbooks and references) with the range of the scores being 21.09% (99.19% - 78.1%). The results

regarding readings of other resources, i.e. texts other than those which are directly linked to school subjects, imply that public school students performed lower (0.47%) than non-public school students (4.10%). This, along with their poor practice of reading fictions, magazines and newspapers, can limit public school students' involvement in persistent out-of-class independent reading. Overall, these findings appear to suggest that students in non-public schools practised independent reading better than students in public schools. These findings appear to strongly support those presented in Table 4.6 on persistence in independent reading.

4.6. Access to Reading Resources

Successful independent reading cannot be conceived in the absence of access to a selection of reading resources (Reis et al. 2008:299). Students who have positive attitude towards learning a new language and reading texts written in that language, a repertoire of effective reading strategies and appropriate motivational orientation to read may not become independent readers unless they have access to a wide range of texts. This is so because independent reading is an activity which requires a variety of textual resources. Therefore, access to reading resources can be a focus area for a study on independent reading among a certain group of students. Therefore, this study investigated students' access to reading resources with 7 items of the questionnaire utilized to address the research sub-question:

To what extent do Grade 11 students have access to a variety of independent EFL reading resources?

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics for Access to Reading Resources by Type of School

Variable	School	N	Mean	Mdn	Std.dev.	Range
Access to Reading Resources	Public school	375	3.00	3.14	.791	4.0
	Non-public school	181	3.13	3.07	.691	4.0

As presented in Table 4.8, the mean and median scores of access to reading resources for public school students were 3.00 and 3.14 with a standard deviation and a range of .791 and 4.0 respectively. On the other hand, the mean and median scores of the same variable for non-public school students were 3.13 and 3.07 with a standard deviation and a range of .691 and 4.0 respectively. Therefore, the mean score for public school students was equal to the expected mean (3:0), 'cannot decide', while the mean score for non-public school students (3.13) was a little above the expected mean. This indicates that students in public schools either had average access to reading resources or did not have a clear idea about their access to such resources. On the other hand, non-public school students had a slightly better access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers.

Like for the scores on other variables analyzed thus far, a Shapiro Wilk's Test ($p = .000$) and a visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the scores of access to reading resources were not normally distributed for both public and non-public school students: a skewness of $-.254$ ($SE = .126$) and a kurtosis of $-.317$ ($SE = .251$) for public school students but a skewness of $-.248$ ($SE = .184$) and a kurtosis of $-.372$ ($SE = .365$) for non-public school students. Accordingly, a log transformation was conducted. Nevertheless, the scores were still not normally distributed for students in both school categories. Therefore, a non-parametric test statistics, the Mann-Whitney test, was conducted as was done before. The Mann-Whitney test revealed that the scores of access to reading resources did not differ significantly for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.07$) and public school students ($Mdn = 3.14$), $U = 34,694.5$, $Z = 1.467$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .142$). However, if public school students do not have a clear idea about their access to reading resources, one can raise questions about their involvement in persistent independent reading.

4.7. Overview of the Quantitative Findings

So for in this chapter, the quantitative findings of the study were analyzed and interpreted in relation to the respective research sub-questions. This section presents an overview of these findings with the view to bringing the main results into picture. The overview begins with the results of the reading comprehension test and proceeds to the results pertaining to other labels

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of the quantitative findings. Close connection is also made between the different aspects of the quantitative findings to identify the relationships among the results from the data obtained through different quantitative methods.

The findings concerning reading comprehension ability revealed that Grade 11 students in non-public schools significantly outperformed their counterparts in public schools in the reading comprehension test. The poor reading comprehension ability among public school students and the statistically significant difference in reading achievement, in favour of non-public school students, can be related to the quality of reading instruction and textbook features. Therefore, the results the findings pertaining to reading comprehension achievement should be seen in relation to the qualitative findings from data collected through observation and content analysis (see section 5.1 and section 5.2 respectively). On the other hand, since achievement has a strong impact on affective variables, the low reading ability levels among public school students can have implications for their attitude and motivation as regards independent reading.

With regard to attitude, it was found that students in both school categories had positive attitudes towards learning English as a school subject and reading materials written in this language. However, the findings also revealed a statistically significant difference, in favour of non-public school students, between the two groups in attitude scores. While various factors can come into play in attitude formation, reading comprehension ability (e.g. better achievement among non-public school students as ascertained through comprehension test, instructional variables and textbook features can cause attitudinal differences between public and non-public school students. Therefore, the findings regarding attitude should also be interpreted in relation to the qualitative findings from classroom observation and textbook analysis.

The study investigated reading motivation according to the dimensions of reading goal and reading self-efficacy. Reading goal was analyzed into its sub-scales of intrinsic motivation (curiosity, involvement and importance of reading), extrinsic motivation (grades, competition and recognition) and social motivation (social purpose for reading). As regards intrinsic

motivation, the findings indicated that public school students had a mean score lower than the expected mean (3.0) on the curiosity and involvement components of intrinsic motivation while non-public school students had a mean score above the expected mean (statistically significant differences in favour of non-public schools observed in this respect). However, both public and non-public school students had comparable positive views on the importance of reading. On the extrinsic motivation sub-scale, students in both school categories registered positive scores on the measures of grade, competition and recognition. Yet, while both groups of students had comparable inclinations towards competition, non-public school students had significantly better scores for the extrinsic goals of grade and recognition. Concerning social motivation, public school students had a greater mean score than non-public school students (a statistically significant difference in favour of public school students identified).

From the findings in the preceding paragraph, it appears that non-public school students had more intrinsic and extrinsic goals for reading than non-public school students. On the contrary, the latter possessed more social purpose for reading than the former. It can also be inferred that instructional factors and textbook features might have lurked into students' reading goals. As a result, considering the findings from classroom observation and content analysis becomes important in the interpretation of the results on the reading goal component of reading motivation.

The second dimension of reading motivation, reading self-efficacy, was sub-divided into the sub-scales of perceived reading ability and challenge-facing/risk-taking. The findings indicated that public and non-public school students had positive perceptions about their reading abilities. As a result, no statistically significant difference was observed between public school students and their non-public school counterparts on scores of perceived reading ability. However, public school students' mean score (2.93) on the measure of challenge-facing (risk-taking) was below the expected mean (3.0) whereas non-public school students' mean score (3.39) was above this expected mean. Statistically significant difference, in favour of non-public school students, was also observed in this regard. That is,

non-public school students had positive perceived reading ability and were significantly more challenge-facing (risk-taking). Contrarily, public school students had positive perceived reading ability but appeared challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing).

Reading strategy use was also addressed in this study. Thus, metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and socio-affective strategy uses among public and non-public school students were studied. The findings regarding metacognitive strategy use depicted that whereas the mean score for public school students (3.11) was only a little higher than the expected mean (3.0), the mean score for non-public school students (3.29) was not much higher than the one for public school students. This shows that both groups were average metacognitive strategy users although non-public school students were slightly better in this case. The results also illustrated that cognitive strategy use among both groups of students was better than metacognitive strategy use. However, students in non-public schools had a higher mean score than those in public schools (statistically significant difference observed) in cognitive strategy use. Regarding socio-affective reading strategy use, the mean score for public school students (2.71) and the one for non-public school students (2.63) were both below the expected mean (3.0) although the former had a slightly higher mean score than the latter. Here again, instructional factors and textbook features might have impacted on students' reading strategy use.

The other issues addressed in this study were students' persistence in independent reading and their access to reading resources. The findings regarding reading persistence unveiled that while students in public schools engaged in independent reading infrequently, those in non-public schools engaged in such reading with a better frequency (statistically significant difference observed in this respect). With respect to access to resources, the findings indicated that the mean score for public school students was equal to the expected mean (3.0) while the mean score for non-public school students (3.13) was slightly above the expected mean (no statistically significant differences observed). It can therefore be deduced that public school students' access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers was not

satisfactory enough. Although the result showed that non-public school students had a little better access to reading resources, their access to such resources was not as promising.

To conclude, the findings regarding reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading materials written in this language, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources have important implication for independent reading among the target students. Moreover, implications can be drawn from differences between public and non-public school students in their scores for the different determinants of independent reading addressed in the study. The relationships between quantitative and qualitative findings are also necessary in this respect. These implications are dealt with in Chapter 6 where the quantitative and qualitative results are discussed in detail.

4.8. Conclusion

This chapter presented the quantitative findings in different sections. Section 4.0 briefly introduced the chapter while section 4.1 presented the findings and interpretations concerning reading comprehension ability levels. The third section, section 4.2, dealt with the findings and interpretations on attitude followed by section 4.3 which looked at the results pertaining to reading motivation. Reading strategy use was the focus of section 4.4 whereas persistence in independent reading was taken up in section 4.5. The findings and interpretations on access to reading resources were dealt with in section 4.6 before an overview of the quantitative findings was provided in section 4.7. The next chapter, Chapter 5, focuses on the qualitative findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

5.0. Introduction

Chapter four focused on the qualitative findings of the study. This chapter presents the findings and interpretations of the results in the qualitative component of the study. As discussed in the third chapter, qualitative data were collected from actual classroom encounters. These data were used to address the research sub-question pertaining to the inclusion of independent reading (IR) components in reading instruction. Another set of qualitative data were also collected through content analysis to answer the research sub-question regarding the coverage of independent reading in Grade 11 English textbooks. That is why this chapter focuses on the qualitative findings. Firstly, the data concerning the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction are analyzed and interpreted (section 5.1). This is followed by the analysis and interpretation of the data regarding the coverage of independent reading in English textbooks (section 5.2). Then, an overview of the qualitative findings is provided (section 5.3) before the chapter is concluded (section 5.4).

As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, the research sub-questions pertinent to the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction and the coverage of the same in Grade 11 English textbooks accord to the qualitative component of this study. Thus, since qualitative studies are based on data elicited via open-ended questions, these research sub-questions served the purpose of generating such data. Likewise, the research sub-question on the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction was addressed using qualitative data collected via classroom observation aiming to examine how teachers would scaffold independent reading. On the other hand, the research sub-question regarding the coverage of independent reading in Grade 11 English textbooks was answered based on qualitative data generated through content analysis.

5.1. Inclusion of IR Components in Reading Instruction

To examine teachers' practice of scaffolding independent reading through reading strategy-based instruction and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading, non-participant classroom observations were conducted in selected public and non-public schools (one from each) using an observation schedule prepared for this purpose. Accordingly, one Grade 11 teacher of English (T₁) from a public school and another Grade 11 teacher of English (T₂) from a non-public school were observed while teaching reading in their respective classes. Although it was initially proposed that the observations in each school category would be carried out over a period of one month (four weeks), assuming one reading lesson in a week, they were completed in four consecutive lessons because of certain enabling conditions (see sub-section 3.5.3). This section deals with the analyses and interpretations of the data elicited through classroom observations.

In the observation process, each observed lesson was audio-recorded and played back afterwards in the presence of the respective teacher and the researcher. This provided opportunities for the latter to obtain confirmation from the former and seek clarifications where necessary. Notes of key features of each lesson were also taken to support the audio-recording. In the following sub-sections, the qualitative data collected via the observations of the reading lessons taught by the two English teachers are analyzed and interpreted based on the technique of interaction analysis (see section 3.8). For ease of presentation, the data collected from the observations of T₁'s lessons are analyzed and interpreted first and are followed by the analyses and interpretations of the data elicited through the observations of T₂'s lessons. However, the findings are synthesized, compared and contrasted later in section 5.3 to see patterns that emerge across the lessons taught by the two teachers with the intention to answer the research sub-question stated below:

What are the independent reading components Grade 11 English teachers in selected schools include in their instructions?

5.1.1. Inclusion of IR Components in T₁'s Lessons

As indicated above, four consecutive lessons taught by T₁ were observed over a period of four days. These lessons are represented here as Lesson 1, Lesson 2, Lesson 3 and Lesson 4 to mean the first lesson taught by T₁, the second lesson taught by T₁ and so on respectively. The analyses and interpretations of the data collected by observing these lessons are presented here. The focus was to find out how the observed teacher tried to scaffold independent reading in the different parts of the lessons (see parts of the observation schedule in Appendix IV). Firstly, each lesson is analyzed and interpreted independently, but later on, the analyses and interpretations of the different lessons are summarized to capture the major issues that have implications for independent reading. The analyses and interpretations of the four lessons follow beginning with the first one.

5.1.1.1. Reading Lesson 1

Reading Lesson 1, presented in section B7.7 in the textbook, is based on a text titled “Why weather forecasts are important” (Page 186). It was delivered on the 19th of February 2016 in the fourth group of Grade 11 where 37 students (out of more than 50) were attending. The lesson was supposed to run from 2:10 PM – 2:50 PM (one class time = 40 minutes), but it ended at 2:41 PM (nine minutes short of the schedule). The focus of this observation was to identify components of independent reading (strategy-based instruction and linkage between in-class reading and out-of class extensive reading) covered in the beginning, middle and end of the lesson (see Appendix IV). The lesson operated in the following manner:

In the beginning, T₁ wrote the date, the subject taught, i.e. “English” and the unit (“Unit 7.7 Why weather forecasts are important”) on the blackboard. He then wrote the lesson objective vaguely as “After you read the text, please do Activity 1 (a & b), Page 186, and Activity 2 (A, B, C), Page 187” (To be able to explain orally what he wrote as objectives, the teacher had to try hard to quieten the class). Although the teacher wrote this sentence under the heading “Objective”, it rather looked a paraphrase of the instructions given on Pages 186 and 187 in the textbook. The instructions are stated in the textbook as:

The text below has been cut up into paragraphs and some topic sentences removed. You must do the following: a) put paragraphs (A-E) in the correct order; b) Add the three topic sentences in the box below (Z-X) to the middle paragraphs (2-4). Now answer these questions about the text.

Following this, the teacher gave a brief lecture on the three stages of reading (pre-reading, while-reading, post-reading) and the SQ3R (*S = Survey the text; Q = Formulate questions about the text and read the text to get the questions answered; R = Read the text; R = Rehearse the text; R = Recite the text*). T₁ also gave some explanation on the three bad reading habits (*finger-pointing, sub-vocalizing and regression*). Subsequently, he asked the students if they could explain these points, but the latter were not able to answer any of the questions. This might indicate that the students were not given instruction on these issues or came across such lessons, but they did not internalize them. At this point, the teacher provided explicit instruction on the three phases of reading, the SQ3R reading technique and the three bad reading habits as follows:

The other point that I would like to add more about here is applying the SQ3R reading guides. What are the SQ3R reading guides? Can you mention the SQ3R reading guides? Ok, first survey at the text. And, formulate a question. Then, read at the text into deep. And then, recite the text and answer the question you formulated. Finally, revise at the text. These are the SQR... sorry, these are the SQ3R reading guides. Don't forget that to apply the three... these SQ3R reading guides while you are doing your reading activities. The other point is that the bad reading habits. Can you mention the bad reading habits? Who can tell me? Ok, the first one is finger pointing, finger pointing. Finger pointing is considered as a bad reading habit. For example, just like this [gesturing]. The other one is sub-vocalization, sub-vocalization [demonstrating sub-vocalization orally] And, the other one is regression. Regression is simply go and back, go and back and go and back [demonstrating the act]. Don't forget that finger pointing, sub-vocalization and regression are the major bad reading habits.

As shown in the above lesson verbatim, the teacher covered the SQ3R reading guides and the three bad reading habits in some detail. However, he did not emphatically inform the students which of the stages of reading and the reading techniques they would apply in the upcoming reading activity. He also did not guide them effectively to use these skills as they read along

the text and do the respective activities. In other words, close teacher support and adequate follow-up seemed lacking at this stage of the lesson.

After the introductory lecture, T₁ ordered the students to read the text, which contains five jumbled paragraphs, and do the first activity (a & b). In his instruction, he uttered:

Having said this much, it is better to change our direction towards your exercise on Pages 186 and 187. Please do the activity carefully and copy your answers on your exercise book. First, rearrange the given paragraphs in the correct order and match the appropriate topic sentence which is given on Page 187.

Actually, he gave the instruction without relating the text to students' background knowledge or prior experience. This activity required the students to put the paragraphs in the correct order and match the given topic sentences with appropriate paragraphs. Some of the students did the activity individually while others worked on it in small groups (the latter not because the teacher required it but possibly because there was scarcity of textbooks in class). While the students were struggling to comprehend the text and do the activity (the class went noisy), the teacher moved around and supervised them, trying to keep them on-task. He also asked students (repeatedly) whether they finished the exercise, but they did not report finishing until they were finally told to stop doing. Then, the teacher asked the students, without identifying them by names, to answer the questions. The students gave answers in chorus, and the teacher confirmed the answers or paraphrased them and praised those who answered questions. However, he did not tell the students what reading strategies they should apply in doing the exercise, nor did he ask them to reflect on the strategies they used (think-aloud) in accomplishing the reading task.

Upon the completion of the discussion on the first reading activity, the teacher passed to the second activity where he asked the students to answer comprehension questions. Here, very few students attempted to answer the questions. Consequently, the teacher had to explain the answers himself. Like in the first activity, he neither told the students the reading strategies that they could use to do this task, nor did he ask them to reflect on the reading strategies they applied in dealing with it. In this regard, the first and the second activities were

concluded in essentially the same way. At the end of the second activity, T₁ attempted to encourage the students to raise questions:

If you have any questions regarding this point, you can raise?

However, he did it so instantly that the students did not have thinking time. Immediately, he announced end of class without giving homework or creating opportunities to engage the students in out-of-class extensive reading. In addition, the reading comprehension activities included in the textbook did not encourage the students to evaluate the contents of the text, to assess their reading progress, to reflect on strategy use (think-aloud) and to set goals to improve their reading competence. The teacher also strictly followed the presentation in the textbook until he skipped the summary writing activity (Page 188) intended to integrate reading with writing.

In summary, T₁'s explicit training on the three stages of reading, the SQ3R reading guide and the three bad reading habits can help the students to approach in-class or outside-class reading systematically. However, the teacher failed to relate the text in this lesson to the students' background knowledge or prior experience, inform the students how to apply the aspects of reading in focus and provide effective guided practice which could have enabled them to apply these skills in their efforts to accomplish the reading activities. Besides, T₁'s attempt to elicit responses to questions in the introductory lecture could have helped the students to exercise social strategies. Nevertheless, this was not successful enough since the latter were not able to answer the questions. The fact that the students were not openly encouraged to practise cooperative reading also limited the possibility of exercising components of social strategy in text compression. In a related manner, the teacher's endeavour to encourage the class to ask questions at the end of the lesson did not seem effective for there was hardly any time left. Generally, using prior knowledge or experience in text comprehension, cooperative reading, think-aloud techniques, writing summary of key points of a text, evaluating the contents of a text, assessing one's reading progress and setting reading goals were not given explicit attention in Lesson 1.

5.1.1.2. Reading Lesson 2

Reading Lesson 2 was delivered on the 23rd of February 2016 from 10:24 AM - 11:41 AM in the fourth Group of Grade 11 where 40 students were in attendance. Based on a reading text titled “The tale of a tap”, this lesson was aimed to enable students to read the text and do subsequent comprehension exercises. The text is an extract from a story by Malimoto published in *Drum* Magazine. As presented in the textbook, the lesson begins with useful inputs regarding how to survey a text. The details begin with this general information: “When faced with a text to read, an important first step is to survey it BEFORE you actually start reading it. This will give you useful information about what kind of text it is and what it is about which in turn will help you to understand it better when you read it in detail” (Page 198). On the same page, the textbook provides useful insights regarding some ways of surveying a text such as looking at the title and pictures, skimming the first two paragraphs and asking oneself questions depending on the type of text.

Next, the textbook provides the following piece of advice: “These steps enable you to see the text as a whole before you start to read it in detail, and if it is a reading comprehension task, before you answer the questions; only when you have surveyed the text should you start to answer the questions” (Page 198). Following this, one task requires students to survey the text (The tale of a tap) in two minutes only, discuss with their partners what they have found out about the text [cooperative reading] and answer comprehension questions after they have read the text. Then, the text, preceded with pictures of a man and two women looking for water around a tap, is presented (Pages 199-200).

However, the teacher did not focus on the inputs about the technique of surveying, the application of the surveying technique in text comprehension, cooperative reading and the use of pictures in making sense of texts. He rather set out with the detailed reading comprehension activity. This could have deprived students of the possibility of grasping the main idea of the text and the writer’s purpose before engaging in detailed reading. The procedure in which the teacher presented the lesson is outlined below.

Firstly, having written the title of the reading text, he began the lesson by pre-teaching key vocabulary words (*plash, drain, drench, gushed, gurgle* and *assaulted*) taken from the text. Realizing that his attempt to make students guess the meanings of these words, without providing contexts, was not fruitful, he explained the definition of each word himself. After this, he wrote the following instructions on the blackboard:

Now read the text and answer the questions below-Activity 4 (Choose the best answer, 1-5 on Page 200) and Activity 6 (Explain the following in your own words, 1-10 on Page 201).

However, the teacher did not indicate the mode of on-task organization (individual, pair or group). Following the teacher's instruction, the students started reading the text. Most of them worked in small groups not because the teacher facilitated cooperative reading but possibly because of scarcity of textbooks in class. There were also few students who sat idle which gave the teacher additional responsibility of trying to keep them on-task. While the students were struggling to comprehend the text and do the tasks, the teacher moved around, paraphrased the instruction, assisted students who were facing difficulties and attempted to hold the class on-task. However, the class started buzzing and the teacher vainly tried to stop that by mentioning the bad reading habit of sub-vocalization.

After a while, the teacher spoke out amid loud noise and ordered the students to stop doing the activities. Having ensured that the class was quiet, he started discussing the answers to this exercise with the students. He elicited answers from individual students (without calling their names), sought peer corrections occasionally, corrected errors and provided oral feedback. However, he did not inform students about what reading strategies they could have used to answer specific questions, nor did he ask them to explain the strategies they used to get to the answers to specific questions. He even did not mention how the surveying techniques discussed in the textbook could be used in the exercise.

Afterwards, the teacher ordered the students to proceed to the meaning-guessing activity which required them to explain the meanings of new words based on the contexts where they were used in the text. Initially, he asked the students to give the contextual meanings of the

first couple of words, i.e. ‘a light heart’ (line 1) and ‘a foggy head’ (line 1). Nevertheless, very few students attempted to answer the teacher’s questions. Realizing that the students had difficulty with this exercise, the teacher explained the meanings of these two words and gave the remaining ones as homework. At the end, he allowed the students to ask questions. However, since the class time was already over, he instantly announced end of the lesson and rushed out of class. Therefore, the class did not get the opportunity to practise social strategies by asking their teacher for explanation.

As shown in the preceding paragraphs, in Lesson 2, T₁ covered two reading activities (surveying a text and answering comprehension questions and guessing meanings based on contextual clues), but he omitted an activity (Page 201) which involves critical reading, and another one (one the same page) that contains discussion questions, which could have involved the students in evaluative and reflective reading. The discussion questions are presented below as proof for the claim that they incorporate aspects of evaluative-reflective reading and should not have been skipped:

1. How well did the people in the story behave? Do you think the writer has exaggerated or in your experience do people in this situation usually behave in this way?
2. What would you do if you had been in the writer’s situation?
3. Do you find the story amusing? Give reasons for your answer?
4. What serious point is the writer making in this otherwise humorous story?

Generally, Reading Lesson 2 had the following major features. At the pre-reading stage, T₁ taught meanings of key words but without contextualizing them or making reference to where they are used in the passage. He also did not encourage the students to use their background knowledge or experience in comprehending the text. At the while-reading stage, several students did in small groups not because they were required but because of scarcity of textbooks during this lesson. Having finished reading, the students discussed with the teacher the answers to the first reading activity where there was a relatively good question-answer scenario. However, no reference was made to the application of reading strategies. In the second activity, unlike in the first one, the students’ understanding and participation appeared inadequate. As a result, the teacher ordered them to do most of the questions in this exercise

as homework, but he did not link the lesson with out-of-class independent reading. He did not even direct the students to the source text, *Drum Magazine*. In addition, T₁ did not focus on using schematic knowledge in text comprehension, surveying texts to have a general grasp of them, using pictures (images) to make sense of texts, reading cooperatively, evaluating the contents of a text or the strengths and weaknesses of the writer's arguments, reflecting on strategy use (think-aloud), assessing one's reading progress and setting reading goals.

5.1.1.3. Reading Lesson 3

On the 24th of February 2016, T₁ taught Reading Lesson 3, from 2:07 PM - 3:05 PM, to 52 students in the 13th group of Grade 11. This lesson was a study skills section in the textbook focusing on reading. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher wrote: "A 8.8 Study Skills: Focus on reading" on the blackboard, established discipline and reviewed the answers to the vocabulary exercise (meaning-guessing) that was given as homework during the previous lesson (Page 201). In doing this, he read out each vocabulary word along with the part of the text (line number) where the word is found in the text and asked the students, without addressing any one by name, to explain the contextual meaning of each word. Following this, the students shouted the answers in chorus. The teacher then confirmed or paraphrased the answers but did not ask the students to indicate how they got to their answers.

After reviewing the homework, the teacher directed the students' attention to the "What do you feel about reading" question presented in the textbook: "Read these sentences and decide if you agree (A) or disagree (D) with each one" (Page 205). The following statements were presented in the textbook:

1. I don't enjoy reading. I only read English because I have to.
2. Reading English is slow and boring. I always have to look words up in a dictionary.
3. I love reading in my free time.
4. Reading really helps me improve my English.
5. When I read, I underline the words I don't know.
6. English spelling is very difficult. It doesn't follow any rules.

The presentation in the textbook required the students to express their agreement or disagreement with each statement and compare their answers in small groups, providing evidences for their viewpoints. This would enable them to discuss their attitudes towards English reading (Statements 1 and 2), their likes or dislikes for spare time reading (Statement 3), their views about the role of reading in improving one's English (Statement 4) and their beliefs about the nature of English spelling (Statement 6). It could also help them to have some practice in cooperative reading. However, T₁ simply read each statement out and passed to some insights about the reading skill and uttered the following instruction from the textbook (Page 206) before he read out the tasks (a-g):

With your partner, study this list of reading tasks and decide which of the skills in the mind map would be most appropriate for each one. You can choose more than one skill for any of the tasks.

- a. Reading a menu in a restaurant to find out what is served
- b. Finding information on a specific topic in an encyclopedia or website
- c. Reading the information you want in an encyclopedia or website
- d. Looking to see what is in the newspaper
- e. Reading a newspaper article
- f. Reading and answering comprehension questions about it
- g. Reading a novel

Afterwards, the teacher drew the students' attention to a mind map in the textbook (Page 206) and ordered them to do the exercise which required them to work in pairs and match each reading skill in the mind map (see below) with the appropriate reading task from the list indicated above (a-g). This exercise was aimed to enable the students to be aware that different reading skills are used for different kinds of reading tasks and for different types of texts. In addition, if the students had been encouraged to work with their partners, as intended in the textbook, they would have been involved in dealing with the activity without much reliance on the teacher.

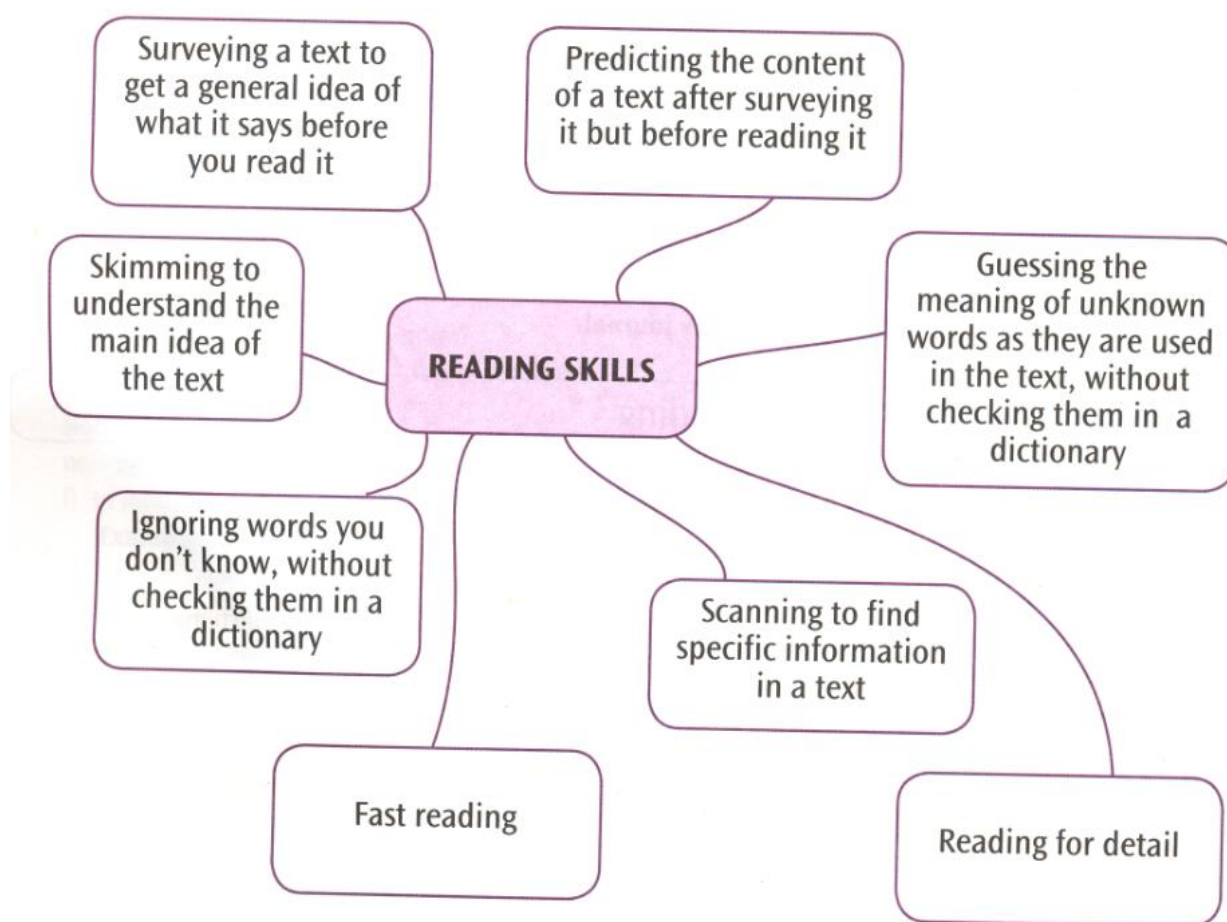


Figure 5.1: Mind Map of Reading Skills

Source: *English for Ethiopia Student Textbook for Grade 11 (MOE 2011)*

While the students were set on the exercise, the teacher moved around the class to supervise their work. The students on their part worked in groups that were not arranged systematically but necessitated by textbook scarcity. Most students struggled with the task, and some pretended doing while others felt sleepy (maybe due to the hot afternoon weather). The teacher continued walking around trying to keep students on-task. However, despite his effort, off-task behaviour and noise were high (low student involvement in the task). After sometime, he stopped the students from doing this exercise and reviewed the answers. At this point, he confirmed answers, sought peer corrections and corrected wrong answers.

After the completion of the above activities, the teacher directed the students to a reading speed exercise in the textbook (Page 207) without noting how the reading techniques in the mind map were applicable to speed-reading. He read this instruction from the textbook:

To find your reading speed, you are going to read this short extract from *The African Child*, the autobiography of Camara Laye which is about his childhood in Guinea Conakry, West Africa in the 1960s. It is about the time when he went to help his relatives with the rice harvest.

Although the textbook required the students to read a four-paragraphs text on this issue, see how long it would take them and do 10 true/false questions, the teacher set a time limit of 15 minutes himself for all of these tasks. Unfortunately, noise and inattention from the students seemed to have prevented the teacher from getting his message across. As a result, some students did not understand what to do and endeavoured to get information from their peers (contributing to noise and off-task behaviour). This appeared to have made the teacher realize that something went wrong at this point.

For a while, the teacher remained in the front of the classroom (perhaps working out how to stop the noise and maximize on-task behaviour). Dissatisfied, he repeated the instruction and told the students that he was going to mark the exercise out of 5. Consequently, most of the students hurried into doing the exercise on pieces of paper (loud noise and side-talks still persisted). After about 15 minutes, the teacher collected few papers and spoke out the answers to the exercise. Then, abruptly, he announced end of class without linking in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading and systematically encouraging cooperative reading, think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

In general, the following points can be said about Reading Lesson 1.3. Firstly, although one of the tasks in the textbook was intended to enable the students to reflect (in cooperative pairs) on their reading attitude, on free time reading practice, on the use of the reading technique of underlining parts of a text, on beliefs about the role of reading in improving one's English proficiency and on views concerning English spelling, the teacher overlooked these aspects of the task. Secondly, the teacher failed to relate the reading techniques in the mind map with the reading speed exercise. He might have taken for granted that the students would

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apply these techniques naturally since “they encountered them previously”. However, recalling and re-emphasizing these techniques would have had a better effect since the students might have lost track of them due to noise and inattention. Thirdly, in the speed-reading activity, by setting time, the teacher deprived the students of the opportunity to monitor their reading pace on their own. Besides, he did not encourage them to reflect on strategy use, overlooked the need to enable them to evaluate their reading progress, to work in systematically formed cooperative groups and to set their own reading goals. Finally, although the text presented for speed-reading was appropriate to engage the students in extensive reading, the teacher did not utilize this opportunity to link classroom reading with out-side class independent reading.

5.1.1.4. Reading Lesson 4

Reading Lesson 4, based on the theme of “**Disability is no obstacle to success**” (Page 222), was delivered on the 25th of February 2016 in the 13th group of Grade 11 where 53 students were attending. The lesson began at 10:35 AM, five minutes later than the right time. As presented in the textbook, this lesson had three short prose texts (**Kibuuka’s fast track to fame, Prudence’s song of success and Helen Keller: consequences of dark and silent world**), each describing a famous person with disability/disabilities. The texts were accompanied by four activities. The first activity required the students to skim each text and find out what disability/disabilities each person had and why they had achieved fame. In the second one, they matched a name to appropriate questions in a list which began with “Who...” (e.g. “Who was physically very fit?”). In the third activity, contextual meanings of words used in the texts were provided. Here, the students were asked to find words and expressions with these meanings from the texts. The fourth one contained discussion questions which called for critical and reflective reading. The lesson was implemented as follows.

Firstly, the teacher wrote the theme of the texts “**Disability is no obstacle for success**”. Then, without relating the texts to students’ schematic knowledge or prior experience, he ordered the class to do the skimming activity. He did this by reading out the instruction in the

textbook: “**Skim each text to find out** a) what disability each person had, b) why they have achieved fame”. Unfortunately, this phase of the lesson was constrained by loud noise, off-task behaviour and scarcity of textbooks. Confronted with this situation, the teacher rephrased the instruction to make clear what the students were expected to do:

I want you to read the texts about Kibuuka on Page 223, Prudence on Page 224 and Helen Keller on Page 124. Then, you will answer the questions in number 1 on page 222.

After this, he walked around the class to supervise the students’ activities and keep the classroom routine in motion. Some students started gathering around the few textbooks that were available during that particular lesson. There were also students who were sitting idle and discussing things other than the lesson (in a local language). Meanwhile, the teacher wrote on the blackboard the names of the famous persons (Tofiri Kibuula, Prudence Mabhena and Helen Keller) described in the texts.

About in the middle of the lesson, the teacher asked the questions regarding what disability/disabilities each person had and why each one achieved fame. A few students shouted the answers without putting up their hands while several were still sitting idle. The teacher confirmed the students’ answers and rephrased some of them. However, he neither reiterated the skimming strategy the students were supposed to use to get to the answers, nor did he ask them to explain the strategies they applied in their endeavour to answer these questions. In fact, the students might have used more strategies in this regard, but it would have been of more benefit to them if the teacher had explicitly emphasized skimming that stands out in this task.

The teacher then led the students to the second activity in the lesson, i.e. matching a name to each of 13 questions (more than one name could be used for some of the questions) which were presented in the textbook as:

Who...

- a) Was physically very fit?
- b) Experienced cruelty?

- c) Was saved by their education?
- d) Was given a scholarship?
- e) Ended their career because of an injury?
- f) Was first helped by their grandmother to develop their natural talent?
- g) Traveled around the world?
- h) Achieved a first for disabled people?
- i) Did more than one kind of job?
- j) Has lived in two different countries?
- k) Was a difficult child?
- l) Communicated by touch?
- m) Achieved international success in two different fields?

Following the teacher's instruction, the students started working on the activity in small groups which they created according to availability of textbooks. Only a few of them scribbled answers in their exercise books (noise and lack of involvement in the task seemed obvious). After a while, the noise subsided and the class went silent (possibly attributable to task difficulty). The teacher moved around the classroom occasionally and supervised students, trying to maximize on-task behaviour. Subsequently, realizing that the students were set on the task, he remained in the front of the classroom, but was not aware that they were carrying out discussions in a local language.

Having made sure that most of the students finished the exercise, the teacher started marking their works (noise revived and persisted for sometime). Students who were falling back hurried to finish the activity and get their works marked. Finally, the teacher reviewed the answers with the students without making any reference to reading strategy use. He also attempted to encourage the students to ask questions (if they had any). However, there was hardly any time for the latter to formulate and forward questions since the former abruptly announced end of the lesson at 11:11 A.M. Before leaving the class, the teacher gave the meaning-guessing exercise (a-g on Page 222) as homework, but he skipped the discussion questions (a-e on the same page).

To interpret, in Reading Lesson 4, T₁ attempted to provide practice in skim-reading to work out main ideas of texts. Guessing meanings of new words and expressions from their contexts of use in reading texts was also given emphasis in the lesson. Nevertheless, the

following points are worth considering. Firstly, since the teacher did not relate the texts to their background, the students did not have enough opportunities to utilize their prior knowledge or experience in comprehending the texts. Secondly, although the students did in small groups of their own making, they were not likely to exercise cooperative reading effectively since the groups were not systematically organized and supervised by the teacher. Thirdly, the teacher skipped the discussion questions designed to involve students in evaluative and reflective reading. Fourthly, although each text is accompanied by a picture of the famous person in focus, the teacher did not direct students' attention to the pictures which could have encouraged them to utilize images to make sense of the texts. Finally, like in the previous lessons, T₁ seemed to overlook issues like think-aloud, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between classroom reading and outside-class independent reading.

5.1.1.5. Features across T₁'s Lessons

In 5.1, the data collected via the observations of four reading lessons taught by T₁ (a Grade 11 teacher of English in a public school) were analyzed and interpreted. The lessons were respectively designated as Reading Lesson 1, Reading Lesson 2, Reading Lesson 3 and Reading Lesson.4. The objective of the observation was to find out how independent reading was covered in T₁'s reading instruction. So far, each lesson was analyzed and interpreted separately to see the features of individual lessons in relation to this objective. However, here, the features that emerge across the lessons are summarized and their implications for independent reading drawn. The following paragraphs are devoted for this purpose.

In Reading Lesson 1, the researcher's interpretation is that the teacher failed to relate the text to the students' background knowledge or experience to enable them to read to get questions answered or expectations confirmed. He did not also inform the students how to apply these aspects of reading, nor did he provide guided practice, which could have enabled them to apply these skills in their efforts to accomplish the reading activities. However, the explicit training provided on the stages of reading, the SQ3R reading techniques and the bad reading habits was likely to help the students to approach their reading systematically. In addition, the teacher did not openly encourage the students to practise cooperative reading. This limits

their use of social strategies in text compression. Therefore, issues like using prior knowledge or experience in text comprehension, cooperative reading, think-aloud technique, writing summary of key points of a text, evaluating the contents of the text being read, assessing one's reading progress and setting reading goals were overlooked in this lesson. This problem was also observed in Reading Lesson 2 which the teacher began by teaching meanings of key words without reference to their context of use in the respective text.

Similarly, in Reading Lesson 3, the teacher neither involved the students in reflective reading nor emphasized or checked their reading strategy use. Reflective reading and think-loud strategies respectively enable students to monitor their own cognitions (O'Malley & Chamot 1999:99) and practise conscious application of strategic thinking in reading (Bouchard 2005:34-45). Besides, evaluating one's reading progress, reading cooperatively in systematically formed groups, setting reading goals and linkage between in-class readings and out-side class independent reading did not receive overt focus. Likewise, in Reading Lesson 4, in which T₁ provided practice in skim-reading to work out main ideas of texts and guessing meanings of new words or expressions from context, cooperative reading, evaluative reading, reflective reading and using images to make sense of texts were not covered properly. In this lesson, too, the teacher overlooked the think-aloud technique, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between classroom reading and outside-class independent reading.

To integrate, the four reading lessons observed in T₁'s classes appeared to focus more on what the students accomplished in reading comprehension activities (product) than on how they did what they did (process/strategy). As a result, components of cognitive strategy (scanning, skimming, note-making/summarizing, using background knowledge or experience, using images, reading texts to get questions answered or expectations confirmed, analyzing textual information into important and less important, evaluating textual content or the writer's purpose) and aspects of social-affective strategy (cooperative reading in systematically organized groups and asking the teacher for clarification) should have been given sufficient explicit attention. As Bouchard (1995:8) maintains, careful and explicit

comprehension strategy instruction benefits English language learners. In the same manner, features of metacognitive strategy (think-aloud, reflecting on textual content, assessing one's reading progress and reading goal-setting) seemed neglected in T₁'s lessons. Additionally, none of these in-class reading lessons were extended to outside-class independent reading. Finally, nearly each of the four lessons was textbook-driven (textbooks were not adequately available) which took place in a class where inattention, off-task behaviour and noise hampered involved reading. In resource-limited situations where English teachers do not ensure involved reading, promote reading strategy use and link classroom reading with outside-class extensive reading, scaffolding independent reading is rarely possible.

5.1.2. Inclusion of IR Components in T₂'s Lessons

As mentioned earlier, four consecutive lessons taught by T₂ were observed over a period of four days. These lessons are represented here as Lesson 1, Lesson 2, Lesson 3 and Lesson 4 to mean, respectively, the first lesson taught by T₂, the second lesson taught by T₂ and so on. The analyses and interpretations of the data collected by observing these lessons are presented here. Firstly, each lesson is analyzed and interpreted independently, but later on, the analyses and interpretations of the four different lessons are summarized to capture the major issues that have implications for independent reading.

5.1.2.1. Reading Lesson 1

The Grade 11 English teacher observed in the selected non-public school conducted Reading Lesson 1 in a class of 24 Grade 11 students on the 23 of February 2016 from 2:30 PM to 3:15 PM. As soon as he got to class, he handed out an extract titled "A Whole Nation and a People" to the students. The extract was a selection from Harry Mark Petrakis' autobiography. Petrakis is known for his novels and short stories on the theme of Greek-American life. The teacher read out the introductory part of the extract which sets out as follows:

Harry Mark Petrakis (1923-) has written novels and short stories about Greek-American life. His characters are people who live with memories of another culture and seek to join the old ways with new customs and attitudes. Petrakis was born in

St. Louis, Missouri, and worked at an assortment of jobs, in steel mills and driving trucks, before becoming a writer. The selection reprinted here is taken from his autobiography, *Stelmark*.

In the extracted story, Petrakis narrates his bitter experience of attacking an old Greek-American who owned a grocery which depicted elements of Greek life. The writer developed the story by describing the following incidents. Born and grown in America but having Greek ancestry, he identified with a gang constituted by youngsters of diverse ethnic background. The members of this group did all that they deemed right to prove truly American identity. Consequently, they were involved in assaulting immigrants. This is stated in the author's words as "One of our untamed games was to seek out the owner of a pushcart or store, unmistakably an immigrant, and bedevil him with insults and jeers. To prove allegiance to the gang, it was necessary to reserve our fiercest malevolence for a store keeper or peddler belonging to our own ethnic background".

To put this mission into effect, Petrakis led a raid conducted on a small old grocery owned by Barba Nikos, a limping old Greek. The gang forced Barba Nikos to come out of the grocery. As he emerged to do battle, they plucked a few plums from the grocery and retreated to the street to eat them. While Barba Nikos was pursuing the gang to do battle with them, Petrakis (the raid leader) struck him on the cheek with a half-eaten plum. Barba Nikos, the loser of the battle, walked silently back into the store while the boys in the gang patted Petrakis on the shoulder in admiration. However, Petrakis was not pleased with the gain he registered since he considered it as a discreditable adventure: "..., but it was a hollow victory that rested like a stone in the pit of my stomach".

At twilight, when the gang disbanded, Petrakis passed by the grocery on his way home. Ridden by regret, shame and fear, he entered the grocery where he was confronted by the old man, Barba Nikos. After some curses for "A Greek boy attacking a Greek Grocer", Barba Nikos realized that Petrakis was there to make compensation. With this conviction, Barba Nikos asked Petrakis to pay seventy-five cents in amendment for the property damage: four plums and two peaches. Nevertheless, the latter admittedly expressed that he was broke. As a result, Barba Nikos changed the monetary compensation into five hours of work. To meet

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this decision, Petrakis worked for five hours in the old man's grocery where he received education on Greek foods, arts, literature, legend and mythology from Barba Nikos who said "... I will educate your abysmal ignorance".

T₂ carried out the lesson in the following ways. Firstly, he read out the title of the text, "A Whole Nation and a People", from the whiteboard and asked the students if they had attacked someone irrationally and felt ashamed of that rude act:

Class, have you ever attacked any one, especially an elderly person, and felt ashamed of the wrong doing? Tell me your experiences.

In response to the question, several students narrated various such incidents. The interaction was orderly and smooth in that, following the teacher's questions, individual students put up their hands and waited until the teacher allowed them to answer. In the question-answer intercourse, the teacher appreciated the students' responses and related them to the story in the extract. Secondly, T₂ discussed in detail the introductory notes in the extract to introduce the students to the life and works (novels and short stories) of the writer, Petrakis. After these pre-reading activities, the teacher led the students to the next stage of the lesson.

Having analyzed the first two paragraphs (with the students involved), the teacher moved on to the while-reading phase of the lesson. Here, he instructed the students to read the remaining part of the story and comprehend it; he advised them to guess meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues, utilize footnotes (seven footnotes available in the extract) and read the story critically (beyond the lines):

So class ... we have read the first two paragraphs together. You have a very good introduction as to how to read this biographical essay or personal narrative. Now, each and every one of you, individually, start reading [students hurried into reading the story]. As I told you, try to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words based on the context clues stated in the essay. And also, don't forget to refer the footnotes [it seems the students had experience of using footnotes already], given there, to understand the meanings of some of the words and phrases. Keep on reading!

The students listened to the teacher's instructions attentively and started reading the story individually. While the students were reading the text, the teacher moved around to support

them and maximize on-task behaviour. Each student seemed to be reading the text with high concentration and curiosity (involved reading). After some time, the teacher summoned the students to answer a few true/false questions. He read out the questions from a paper and asked individual students [calling them by names] to answer the questions. When one student gave the wrong answer, the teacher invited another student to correct the wrong answer, still individually. Afterwards, he confirmed answers or gave explanations (referring to the story or its parts) and ensured understanding through concept-check questions. He also made some students provide explanations and justifications for their answers. This generated more interaction and more involved reading.

After this, one student beckoned the teacher and whispered to him. The teacher nodded his head, moved to the front of the classroom, cleared his throat and said: “Class, this is the end of our today’s lesson. In the next lesson, we will do the discussion questions on page 226 of the extract. Read the selection again and come prepared to do the activities”. With these concluding remarks but without involving students in cooperative reading, think-aloud activities, self-assessment and reading goal setting, T₂ wrapped up the lesson at 3:15 PM.

In short, the following features were inherent in Reading Lesson 1. Firstly, the pre-reading activity which the teacher used to relate the text to students’ prior knowledge and experience enables the latter to use their schematic knowledge or previous experience in text comprehension. It also encourages them to ask questions and/or form expectations which they will get answered or confirmed as they read through the text. Secondly, the teacher advised students to guess meanings from contextual clues, to utilize footnotes to make sense of the text, and to read the text critically (beyond the lines). These, respectively, help students to practise the word-attack skill of contextual guess work, to utilize footnotes in extracting meaning from a text and to get a good grasp of textual message or evaluate it. Furthermore, although not openly focused on, reading techniques such as scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, analyzing details into important and less important and making notes of key points or summarizing a text could have come into application as students read the text. Thirdly, the discussion the teacher made about the life and works of Petrakis and the

extended reading he gave at the end of the lesson could have helped connect in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. However, T₂ did not give explicit attention to cooperative reading; think-aloud activities, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

5.1.2.2. Reading Lesson 2

Reading Lesson 2 emerged from Reading Lesson 1 which was based on a story called “A Whole Nation and a People”. T₂ taught this lesson on the 24 of February 2016 in a class of 25 Grade 11 students. The lesson started at 11:00 PM when the teacher wrote the title of the story on the whiteboard and directed the students to the discussion questions (Page 226 on the extract given out to students during the previous lesson). Before proceeding to the details of the new lesson, T₂ briefly reviewed the previous one:

Alright class, your attention please! Ok, you know we read a personal narrative titled “A Whole Nation and a People”, yesterday. So, we have a continued discussion today....You did the first question, and based on the study questions, we will try to look at the narrative once more so that I can check to what extent you have understood what you have read. The next thing we will do is to look at those colourful vocabularies which I think you might use in your sentences and later on in the essay you are going to write....

T₂ then ordered the students to do the following discussion questions individually:

1. In his opening paragraph, Petrakis tells how he and his friends banded together to reject their own ethnic background. Why is this information important to understanding of the experience he narrates?
2. What details characterize Barba Nikos? What shows his feeling about how children are raised in America?
3. Although the narrator wants the respect of his companions, he feels that the attack on the grocer is “a hollow victory”. Why?
4. What role does ancient Greek culture play in Barba Nikos’ life? How does his culture shape his value?
5. How does the concluding statement about the figs suggest a central point or thesis? Is the appearance of the store twelve years later important to what Petrakis is saying about Barba Nikos’ values and world?

The above questions are open-ended and can generate varied evaluative and reflective responses. Having ensured that each student brought the handout given in the previous lesson, the teacher asked the students to answer these questions individually based on the

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information in the story (penetrating deep into it to uncover meanings beyond what is explicitly stated). Individual students raised their hands, and when allowed, came up with various but well thought-about answers to the questions. The teacher confirmed, paraphrased or elaborated on the answers and provided encouraging feedback. He insisted that the students constantly refer to the story and read the text seriously with focus on key vocabularies and deeper messages. The students were positively and competitively busy reading the questions, locating the answers in the text and extending information based on their own perspectives. In the process, they looked poised possibly because the story was involving and/or the questions were not difficult. The teacher was also involved actively in attending to the students' queries and answers. After all the five questions were addressed in this way, the teacher ordered the students to reflect silently on the issue of identity loss putting themselves in Petrakis' situation. He also advised them to reread the story in their free time before the next class.

In the above activity, the questions the teacher used enabled him to elicit varied, rich and deep responses from the students who were involved in competitive, critical and reflective reading. As a result, the students approached these questions from different perspectives and provided answers which reflected deeper analysis and synthesis of information. The teacher also asked the students who answered questions to explain where and how they got the answers (think-aloud). In addition, he encouraged silent reflection on the theme of the story-identity loss. These helped him to constantly engage the students in the reading task and perhaps to extend in-class reading into out-of-class reading.

Generally, the following features can be drawn from Reading Lesson 2. Firstly, the lesson emerged from a text that was utilized in the previous lesson. This could have helped the students to get closer to a full grasp of the central essence of the story. This is likely to have given them confidence in answering the comprehension questions which required higher engagement. Secondly, the provision of a handout to each student contributed to on-task behaviour. Thirdly, the lesson actively involved the students in competitive, evaluative and reflective reading. Fourth, in addition to using the think-aloud strategy, in their effort to

uncover deeper messages as they read the story, the students could have utilized the techniques of scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, guessing meanings from contextual clues, making notes of or summarizing key points and analyzing details into important and less important. However, although he tried to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading through silent reflection followed by extended reading, the teacher did not explicitly require the students to read cooperatively, evaluate their reading progress and set their own reading goals. The social Constructivist view of learning emphasizes that the interaction among students, which encourages cooperative meaning construction and mutual goal-setting, should be the focus of theoretical explanation and language instruction (Brown 2007:304-305).

5.1.2.3. Reading Lesson 3

Like the second lesson discussed above, Reading Lesson 3 emerged from the first reading lesson which was based on the story called “A Whole Nation and a People”. This lesson, implemented on the 26th of February 2016 in a class of 25 students, focused on vocabulary (explaining meanings of phrases from context) and reflective writing practices. These practice activities were intended to enable the students to explore the text deeper through the application of contextual guess-work and insightful writing. T₂ set the lesson into motion and executed it in the following manner.

At 2:30 AM in the morning, the teacher entered class and wrote the following on the whiteboard: “A Whole Nation and a People: Language and Vocabulary”. Following this, he ordered the students to open their handout (the extract that was distributed during Reading Lesson 2.1) to page 226 where they found the meaning-guessing exercise under the instruction: “Explain these phrases from context”. The exercise contains nine phrases which were taken from the extract to engage students in guessing meanings based on contextual clues. However, these phrases were not underlined, italicized, highlighted or written in bold in the text. Paragraphs and line numbers where the phrases were found were not also indicated. The teacher read out each phrase and asked the students to locate it in the text and work out its meaning from the context in which it is used.

Accordingly, the teacher began with the expression “motley group”. Then, he ordered the students to locate this expression in the text and explain its contextual meaning. The students hurried into the task and began working out the answer. They were absorbed in the task and read the text with high concentration (involvement). Meanwhile, one student signaled that he needed support. As a result, the teacher went to this student, paraphrased the instruction and demonstrated it with an example. After a while, the teacher read out the expression “motley group” and asked for volunteers to explain the meaning of the expression based on the context where it was used in the text. Many of the students raised their hands [enthusiastically and competitively]. The teacher gave chance to one student to answer the question. The student explained the meaning of the phrase in his own words, and following the teacher’s insistence, indicated how he got to the answer. The teacher praised the student [emphatically] and confirmed the answer. However, since he wanted to elicit further responses, he asked other students [by calling names] to explain their answers. The students came up with various but essentially related responses which the teacher confirmed and negotiated. The same procedure was followed for the rest of the expressions: “our fiercest malevolence”, “my mettle was being tested”, “your abysmal ignorance”, etc.

After the end of the meaning-guessing activity, the teacher instructed the students to go to the second part of the lesson: composition writing. This activity required the students to write about their personal experiences. The teacher read out the instruction for this part, i.e. “Write an essay on someone who influenced your life in the way Barba Nikos influenced the narrator....” and ordered the students to start writing. Immediately, each student put pen to paper while the teacher went to his desk to take some rest. This activity must have helped the students to reread the story (“A Whole Nation and a People”) critically and reflect on related personal experiences in writing. The activity was also useful to integrate reading with writing.

To interpret, although Reading Lesson 3 mainly focused on the technique of guessing meanings of new expressions based on textual clues, it also has other features that have implications for independent reading. On the one hand, the phrases included in the exercise

were not underlined, italicized, highlighted or written in bold. This requires the students to put more effort to locate them in the text. On the other hand, while these expressions are relatively difficult, the students were highly involved in the task and thus tackled it successfully. In both cases, they should take varying levels of risk. Thirdly, the writing exercise, where the teacher integrated reading with writing, is like to have involved the students in reflective reading. Fourthly, by requiring the students to explain how they worked out answers, the teacher brought the think-aloud technique into effect. Risk-taking, reflective approach and think-aloud technique are aspects of independent reading.

5.1.2.4. Reading Lesson 4

Reading Lesson 4 was the last reading lesson observed in T₂'s class on the 29 of February 2016 where 25 students were attending. This lesson was based on a poem titled "Incident". The teacher introduced the lesson by writing the title of the poem and a follow-up instruction on the whiteboard. The instruction read:

Think about the title of this poem. Does it suggest something serious, or something relatively minor? You might be disturbed by one word in this poem—imagine how it affected a child.

After this, he gave the students thinking time so that they could reflect on the title of the poem. Following this, the class went into deep silence [each student likely to have been involved in silent reflection]. At this stage of the lesson (pre-reading stage), the teacher accomplished important things by engaging the students in silent reflection. On the one hand, he allowed the students to imagine a particular situation, event or scene in their attempt to work out what the title of the poem might suggest. On the other hand, this activity could have encouraged the students to ask questions about the poem or expect what they would come across in it. These are questions or expectations which they could have got answered or confirmed as they read the poem. Still, the activity has another implication: one sentence in the instruction, i.e. "You might be disturbed by **one word** [bold writing mine] in the poem...." can arouse students' curiosity to know the word and its meaning as used in the poem. Therefore, this activity can prepare the students for imaginative, inquisitive and curious reading.

In the while-reading phase, the teacher removed from the whiteboard the title of the poem along with the instruction and asked the students to remind him of this title. A female student soon uttered “Incident”. As a result, the teacher thanked and invited her to write the poem on the whiteboard from a paper that was given to her. She quickly appeared before the class and wrote the poem accurately [taking care about spelling, punctuation, layout of each stanza and spacing between stanzas]:

Incidence

Countee Cullen (1903-1940)

Once, riding in old Baltimore,
 Heart-filled, head-filled with glee,
 I saw a Baltimorean
 Keep looking straight at me.

Now I was eight and very small,
 And he was whit bigger,
 And so smiled, but he poked out
 His tongue, and called me “Nigger.”

I saw the whole of Baltimore
 From May until December;
 Of all the things that happened there
 That is all that I remember.

Once the student finished writing the poem and returned to her seat, the teacher ordered the class to read the poem from the whiteboard: first stanza by stanza and then the whole of it. Having ensured that this was done, the teacher proceeded to a task that involved the students in analyzing the poem. In this activity, he asked the students [calling individual students by their names] to: 1) tell which line revealed the speaker’s mood at the beginning of the incident in the poem, 2) find out the number of characters involved in the poem and who they

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were in relation to the incident, 3) guess the meaning of the word “whit” (underlined in stanza 2, line 2) from its context and 4) say whether this word reminded them of another English word. These requirements gave the students strong purpose to involve in exploring the poem.

While the teacher asked each question [with emphasis and enthusiasm], individual students raised their hands and answered the questions [when given chances]. As in the previous lessons, the teacher confirmed answers, probed for further answers and emphatically praised those who answered questions. In working out answers to the questions, the students could have applied the following techniques which have positive implications for independent reading: scanning for specific details and identifying text structure (Question 1), scanning for specific details (Question 2), skimming to work out main idea and reading beyond the lines (Question 3), guessing meaning from context (Question 4) and using prior knowledge (Question 5).

Having finished analyzing the poem, the class proceeded to an interpretative activity where the teacher asked questions aimed to stimulate critical thinking and interpretation. These questions required the students to explain 1) what might lead an eight-year-old boy to insult another child in the way described in the poem, 2) in what way might a child’s prejudice be even more disturbing than an adult’s, 3) what ironic undertones does the title of the poem has, 4) whether the poem is really only an “incident”, 5) how the last stanza indirectly makes clear the impression the event had created on the speaker and 6) how the incident affect them [the students]. The teacher asked individual students [calling them by names] to answer the questions. In response, the latter came up with deep interpretations and reflections which won the teachers’ appreciation. The question-answer interaction continued until the teacher order the students to summarize the poem in two prose sentences as homework. At last, he announced end of class and promised to come with another literary text in the next lesson. Generally, the class work (Questions 1-6) is likely to have helped the students to practise the skills of reading beyond what is stated in the text (inferential and interpretative reading) to construct deeper meanings and to reflect on how the story in the poem affected them

(reflective reading). Besides, the homework would give them chance to exercise summarizing texts while reading.

In short, Reading Lesson 4 covered some aspects of text comprehension that have bearings on independent reading. In the first activity, the teacher made the students imagine a particular situation by letting them work out the entailment of the title of the poem utilized in the lesson. This activity also encouraged the students to read the poem to get their questions answered, their expectations confirmed and their curiosity satisfied. In the second activity, the students applied the techniques of scanning for specific details, identifying text structure, skimming for main ideas, reading beyond the lines, guessing meaning from context and using prior knowledge in text comprehension. On the other hand, the third activity enabled them to practise inferential, interpretative and reflective reading whereas the homework would give them chance to exercise the skill of summarizing texts. Finally, the teacher's promise to come with another literary text in the next lesson, apart from possibly arousing students' curiosity to read such texts, could have helped him to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. Nevertheless, cooperative reading, think-aloud technique, self-assessment and reading goal setting were hardly included in the lesson.

5.1.2.5. Features across T₂'s Lessons

As mentioned earlier, four reading lessons (Reading Lesson 1, Reading Lesson 2, Reading Lesson 3 and Reading Lesson 4) were observed in the non-public school selected for this purpose. Thus far, the analyses and interpretations of the data collected by observing these lessons were presented; the data for each lesson were analyzed and interpreted separately. However, here, the results from the observations of the four lessons are synthesized with the view to drawing the features across lessons to ascertain how independent reading was covered in T₂'s reading instruction.

Reading Lessons 1 and 2 were based on a text called "A Whole Nation and a People". In the first one, T₂ in the main enabled the students to practise using their previous knowledge or experience in text comprehension, reading to get questions answered or expectations

confirmed, guessing meanings of new terms from contextual clues, utilizing footnotes as reading techniques and reading a text critically (evaluative reading). The teacher also tried to connect in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. However, he failed to give overt attention to cooperative reading, think-aloud activities, self-assessment and reading goal setting. The second lesson involved the students in evaluative reading, reflective reading and think-aloud strategy use. In this lesson, too, T₂ appeared to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. Nevertheless, like in the first lesson, he overlooked cooperative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

Reading Lesson 3 also emerged from the text mentioned above. This lesson primarily focused on guessing meanings of new expressions from textual clues. In addition, the phrases included in this vocabulary exercise were not underlined, italicized, highlighted or written in bold. This could have required the students to put more efforts to locate these phrases in the text. On the other hand, while these expressions are relatively difficult, the students were highly involved in the task and thus dealt with it successfully (risk-taking in reading). Where the teacher integrated reading with writing, the students could have been involved in reflective reading, too. Besides, by asking the students to explain how they worked out answers, the teacher engaged them in the use of the think-aloud technique. It is noteworthy that risk-taking, reflective approach and think-aloud technique are among the components of independent reading.

Likewise, in Reading Lesson 4, T₂ covered important techniques of text comprehension that have implications for independent reading. These include imaginative reading (an aspect involved reading), reading to get questions answered or expectations confirmed and reading with curiosity (intrinsic motivation). In addition, the lesson enabled the students to apply text comprehension techniques such as scanning for specific details, identifying text structure, skimming for main ideas, reading beyond the lines, guessing meaning from context and using prior knowledge. Inferential reading, interpretative reading, reflective reading and summarizing texts were also the focus of this lesson. Of course, his promise to come with another literary text in the next lesson could have indirectly helped T₂ to link in-class reading

with out-of-class independent reading. However, he did not focus on cooperative reading; think-aloud technique, self-assessment and reading goal setting which are integral to independent reading.

Briefly, through the four lessons, T₂ appeared to scaffold independent reading in different ways. On the one hand, he did this by enabling the students to use cognitive strategies (using prior knowledge or experience in text comprehension, reading texts to get questions answered or expectations confirmed, guessing meanings of new terms based on contextual clues, using footnotes in comprehension work, summarizing texts and critically evaluating the contents of a text. He also involved them in the use of components of metacognitive strategy such as think-aloud (slightly included) and reflective reading. On the other hand, he achieved this by linking classroom reading with outside-class independent reading. Furthermore, in all the observed reading lessons, most of T₂'s students demonstrated high reading comprehension ability levels and curious involvement in their reading comprehension work. Reading comprehension ability and curious involvement are important in independent reading. Yet, the teacher did not seem to cover socio-affective strategy (cooperative reading), self-assessment and reading goal setting. With these elements neglected, scaffolding independent reading may not be fully successful.

5.2. Coverage of IR in English Textbooks

As indicated in section 5.0, content analyses were conducted to assess the coverage of independent reading (IR) in Grade 11 English textbooks. Thus, reading comprehension lessons in selected units of the textbooks used in both public (*English for Ethiopia: Student Textbook-Grade 11*) and the one used in a non-public school (*English Language and Literature for the IB Diploma*) were analyzed and interpreted (using the technique of content analysis as indicated in section 3.8). Firstly, the analyses and interpretations of the lessons in each textbook are presented separately beginning with those in the textbook used in public schools. Then, the results are later synthesized in section 5.3 to identify patterns across textbooks with the intention to answer the respective research sub-question, namely:

How do Grade 11 English textbooks cover independent reading?

5.2.1. Coverage of IR in the Textbook Used in Public Schools

The Grade 11 textbook (2011) used in public schools contains twelve units titled: *The African Union, Education, Traditional and Modern Medicine, HIV/AIDS, Tourism, Fiction, Weather and Climate Change, Water, Disability, Poverty and Development, NGOs and Technological Advancement*. Each unit has at least two parts on listening, speaking, writing, vocabulary, reading, language focus and study skills. Lessons on language skills, language awareness or vocabulary thus recur at least twice in each unit. Accordingly, the number of reading comprehension lessons varies from unit to unit: some units have two; some have three and others contain four. The reading comprehension lessons in six units were included in the analysis with every other unit (Unit 1 selected by lot to begin with) being the focus. In this way, the reading lessons in the first, third, fifth, seventh, ninth and eleventh units underwent analyses and interpretations. Where there were three or four reading lessons in a selected unit, the third or the fourth was not included in the analysis unless it had features not seen in the preceding ones. The analyses and interpretations are arranged by units, but afterwards, results are synthesized to identify patterns across lessons.

5.2.1.1. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 1

Unit 1 has two reading comprehension lessons on the topic of “**The African Union**”. The first covers Pages 11-13 while the second, which is the continuation of the first, runs from Page 18 to Page 19. The two lessons aim to enable students to read about the African Union and answer subsequent comprehension questions. The following paragraphs present the analyses and interpretations of these two reading lessons in relation to the inclusion of components of independent reading.

The first reading lesson begins by introducing the symbols in the new flag of the African Union (AU) on a map and as a sub-topic: “**Symbols of the African Union**”. It then requires students to work with their partners and look at the new flag of the African Union which has a green background, a white sun and gold stars. The instruction in this part stresses that each

of these symbols has a special significance. It also instructs students to indicate which symbol they think represents a) the member states of the AU, b) the hope of Africa and c) Africa's bright future. This is a pre-reading activity intended to enable students to use their prior knowledge and anticipate possible outcomes which helps them to read to check whether their anticipation was correct or not. This activity also encourages students to read cooperatively and use graphic organizer (map) in the comprehension process. However, this part of the lesson does not openly give students an opportunity to ask questions of the text and read it to get the questions answered.

The second part of the lesson (Page 11) starts with the instruction: **“An anthem is a special song. Every country has an anthem. It voices the country's history, its values, or hopes. This is the anthem of the African Union. Read it and answer the questions below”**. This part requires students to read the anthem and answer questions that involve extracting meaning from and locating sub-themes in the anthem. Following this, they should read the anthem aloud: **“Practice reading the anthem aloud as if it were a poem”** (Page 12). At this point, although they are not explicitly instructed to use reading comprehension techniques such as scanning for specific details, skimming to work out main ideas, guessing meanings based on contextual clues, making notes, summarizing key points, drawing inferences and discriminating important information from less important information, students can apply them as they struggle to comprehend the anthem. Nevertheless, this part of the lesson does not require students to critique or evaluate the contents of the text and the writer's viewpoints.

In the third stage of the lesson, the sub-topic, **“The Vision of Africa”**, is taken up. It is followed by the instruction: **“The anthem is a poetic expression of the hopes of the African Union. These are more formally stated in documents relating to the African Union's ‘Vision and Mission’ from which this text is taken. Read the text and answer the true/false questions that follow”** (Page 12). The picture of the 16th Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the African Union held in Addis Ababa in January 2011 follows this instruction. Although the instruction mentions only true/false questions, students are also

required to match words (in bold print in the passage) with given definitions and, in pairs, identify words or phrases from the anthem which they think express the goals of the African Union.

One key question stated as “**Any institution must have a vision, that is, an idea of what it should be and how it should work. What is the vision of the AU?**” (Page 12) is used to direct students to the task and help them to read to get this question answered. The passage is divided into definite structures, and important parts are written in bold for students to pay selective attention. In other words, important terms are written in bold to facilitate contextual meaning-guessing. The source of the passage is indicated as “Adapted from: *STRATEGIC PLAN OF THE AFRICAN UNION COMMISSION VOLUME 1: Vision and Mission of the African Union May 2004, Prepared by the African Union Commission 2004*” (Page 13). In this exercise, using graphic organizer (picture), guessing meanings of new words based on contextual clues and cooperative reading are principally practised. Additionally, students may use the techniques of note-making or summarizing, drawing inferences and discriminating important information from less important information as they attempt to comprehend the text. However, they are not given chance to evaluate the contents of the text and the writer’s views.

In short, the lesson seems to end with the true/false, matching and pair work exercises. The fact that the source of the extract is mentioned, if utilized properly, can help teachers to encourage out-of-class independent reading and students to seek further information from the original document. Nevertheless, where and how this document can be obtained has not been indicated in the lesson. Furthermore, the lesson ends without engaging students in evaluating the contents of the texts and the writer’s viewpoints, reflecting on strategy use (think-aloud), assessing their reading progress and setting their reading goals. Evaluating the contents of the text being read and the writer’s views, making appropriate strategic choice, assessing their reading progress and planning corrective action (setting goals) when comprehension goes wrong help students to monitor their reading comprehension and practise independent reading.

To sum up, in the first reading comprehension lesson in Unit 1, reading techniques such as using prior knowledge, cooperative reading, using graphic organizers, forming anticipation, reading to get one's questions answered and guessing meanings of new words from contextual clues are practised. In addition, students may use techniques of scanning for specific details, skimming to work out main ideas, making notes of or summarizing key points, drawing inferences based on given information and discriminating important information from less important information in endeavoring to comprehend the texts. However, the lesson does not lucidly make students evaluate the contents of the texts and the writer's arguments, reflect on strategy use, assess their reading progress and set further reading goals. Besides, linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class independent reading seems overlooked. Whereas informed and committed English teachers may initiate students to access and read the original document (source indicated on Page 13) independently, others may be satisfied only with what students accomplish in the classroom.

The second reading comprehension lesson in Unit 1 has the same theme and objective as the first one. This shows that the two reading texts constitute the same passage but are presented separately in the textbook for pedagogical reasons. This lesson is based on the sub-topic: **"The Achievements of the African Union"** (Page 18). The lesson links the passage with listening and reading lessons previously encountered in the same unit: "You have already listened and read quite a lot about how the AU was founded and its various institutions. A good question is: What has it achieved?" This helps students to relate the text with their prior knowledge and form expectations regarding what to come across as they read along. The question concerning what the African Union achieved encourages them to read to get it answered. This also gives them a clear purpose for reading.

Next, students are directed to a table headed as **"The Achievements of the African Union"** (Page 18). The table contains a sketch for students to summarize the passage under the headings: **"Greatest achievements"**, **"Work of the organs of the AU"** and **"Behind the scenes work"**. After students have viewed the table and understood how to use it, they move on to the second instruction: **"Read the text below and take notes on the main points in**

your table. *Look back at the listening activity in A1.5 for guidance on note-taking. Note-taking from reading texts can be done in more or less the same way as listening and note-taking*” (Page 18). Based on this instruction, students read the text and complete the table. They read to identify the main ideas of the different parts of the text and summarize it according to the given sketch. This helps them to practise skimming for main ideas, making notes of key details and summarizing a given text in an appropriate form. Then, they proceed to the next two activities where they match words highlighted in the text with given meanings (using contextual clues) and refine the summary they drafted at the pre-reading stage. Furthermore, although not cogently required, they may scan the text for specific details, draw inferences based on given information and discriminate important information from less important information as they read through the text.

The lesson seems to end with the meaning guessing and summarizing activities. The last activity introduced as “**Write a summary of the information in the text in this way:** 1) *Using the information in your table only, write up your notes into sentences,* and 2) *Write your sentences under the same headings and using the same numbering as in your table*” (Page 19) could be done in pairs or small groups to encourage cooperative work. However, the lesson appears to give more emphasis to individual as opposed to cooperative reading. In addition, the lesson does not appear to include evaluative reading, reflection on strategy use (think-aloud), self-assessment and reading goal setting (devising action plan for improvement). It also does not extend classroom reading to out-of-class independent reading.

To interpret, in the second comprehension lesson in Unit 1, reading strategies such as using prior knowledge, skimming for main ideas, forming expectations, reading to get questions answered, guessing meanings based on contextual clues, making notes of key points and summarizing a text or its parts are principally practised. Moreover, students may use the techniques of scanning, making deductions based on available information and discriminating important information from less important information as they read along. However, this reading lesson lacks emphasis on cooperative reading, evaluative reading, reflection on strategy use, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between

classroom reading and out-of-class independent reading. Where these are neglected, scaffolding independent reading can be difficult.

5.2.1.2. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 3

Unit 3 contains four reading comprehension lessons titled: “**Medical Innovators**” (Pages 68-71), “**Poem-The Night of the Scorpion**” (Pages 74-75), “**Killer Disease**” (Pages 77-79) and “**A government health leaflet**” (Pages 86-87). Of these, the first, the second and the fourth underwent analyses and interpretations. The third one was not covered because it was found out that it does not include features, pertaining to independent reading, which are not seen in the preceding two reading lessons. The following paragraphs therefore present the analyses and interpretations of the first, the second and the fourth reading comprehension lessons in this unit.

The first reading lesson in the unit is intended to enable each student to read about a medical innovator and tell other members of his/her group about the innovator. The lesson begins on Page 68 with the instruction: “**Work in a group of four. Discuss whose name is closely associated with the development of each of these medicinal innovations**”: ‘modern nursing’, ‘antibiotics’, ‘x-rays’ and ‘heart transplantation’. Accordingly, students discuss what they know about the innovations and try to associate these innovations with the names of the innovators. The next activity requires students to match the words ‘culture’, ‘mould’, ‘mortality rate’, ‘transplant’, ‘pneumonia’, ‘fracture’, ‘cathode rays’ and ‘photographic plates’ (taken from the texts) with given meanings. The students rely on their background knowledge to match each word with its meaning. Then, as they read along, they check if their answers were right. In this pre-reading activity, students work cooperatively, use their background knowledge and establish expectations about what to find in the text and familiarize themselves with key vocabulary words included in it. However, there are no instances, at this stage of the lesson, where students are clearly required to read with specific questions in mind that they could get answered as they read through the text.

Following the above preparatory work, students are given the third instruction (Page 86):

Your teacher will give each person in the group the letter A, B, C or D. Working on your own and without talking to the other members of your group, read the relevant text, according to letter you have been given. Each text is about a medical innovator. As you read make notes in the appropriate column of the table on the next page.

Then, texts A, B, C and D which describe the works of Alexander Fleming, Florence Nightingale, Christaan Bernard and Wilhem Rongen are respectively presented. Each text is highlighted differently and bears the photograph of the innovator it describes. This reading activity needs each student to read his/her own text and complete a summary table. Thus, working individually, students practise the skills of note-making, summarizing and using graphic organizers (photographs) in comprehending texts. Although not explicitly instructed, they may also exercise scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, making inferences based on available information and prioritizing information according to importance which are aspects of cognitive strategy (Salkind 2008:84; Fang, Lamme, Pringle & Abell 2010:81-97; Antonicci & O'Callaghan 2012:176).

At the post-reading phase, students work in groups on a jig-saw reading according to the fourth instruction on Page 71: **“Now team up with the rest of your group. Each person should tell the other members of the group about the medical innovator they have read about. While each person is talking, the other members of the group should listen and make notes in their tables”**. They write notes in the table as they listen to a group member describing an innovator. If they (listeners) miss a piece of information or fail to understand a point, they can interrupt the speaker to ask him/her to repeat the point or explain it. Afterwards, they compare their notes. Doing so helps students to apply cooperative reading to make the summary complete. They may also practise scanning and skimming as they read through the texts given to them. The techniques of inferencing and analyzing details into important and less important can also come into play as students read along. However, this part of the lesson does not noticeably involve guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from context.

Finally, students accomplish an activity which requires them to discuss the medical innovators and explain which of them a) had to overcome prejudice against their work, b) achieved fame because others continued their work, c) has had the greatest impact and d) they [the students] admire most. This activity involves reflective reading (gives each student chance to express which innovator he/she admires most). On the other hand, in order to be able to express their preferences of innovators, they must evaluate the achievement of each innovator critically. That is, this activity also involves learners in evaluative reading. However, think-aloud, self-assessment, reading goal setting and extension of classroom reading to out-of-class independent reading are not emphasized in this part of the lesson.

Overall, in the first reading lesson in Unit 3, students practise the strategies of using background knowledge, forming expectations, reading to check one's answers to a pre-reading activity, using graphic organizers, reading cooperatively, scanning and skimming, note-making, summarizing, evaluative reading and reflective reading. The skills of inferencing and prioritizing information according to importance can also come into effect as students read through the text. However, reading with specific questions in mind, guessing meaning from context, think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting are not evidently emphasized in this lesson. Therefore, successful implementation of these would depend on teacher expertise. Based on the lessons observed, it can be concluded that the English teacher in the public school did not display such expertise. In addition, like in the reading lessons analyzed so far, classroom reading is not linked with out-of-class independent reading in this lesson.

The second reading lesson in Unit 1 intends to enable students to read a poem and answer subsequent comprehension questions. Since this lesson does not include pre-reading activities, it hardly appears to relate the poem with the students' background knowledge or experience and sensitize them to read the poem with certain expectations and/or specific questions in mind. Moreover, there is no focus on specific strategies of understanding a poem. No keywords are pre-taught that would familiarize students with the poem and

facilitate comprehension. Therefore, students are likely to be unduly struggling to understand the poem.

The lesson begins with the instruction: **“This poem is written by one of India’s most famous poets: Ezkiel Nissim. It describes what happened when the writer’s mother was stung by a scorpion. Read the poem and then do the exercises below”** (Page 74). Then, the poem is presented under the topic of **“Night of the Scorpion”** on the left column of the page accompanied with the picture of a scorpion on the right. No parts of the poem are highlighted, underlined or written in bold. While reading, students can use the picture to make sense of the poem and ease comprehension. They are also likely to apply scanning, skimming, inferencing, prioritizing information and note-making in the comprehension process although there seems to be lack of vivid focus on these techniques in the lesson.

The post-reading stage begins with a short instruction stated as **“Answer the questions”** (Page 75). Here, students are required to answer 10 open-ended questions using explicit and implicit information from the poem. In this activity, they are likely to scan different parts of the poem to locate specific details useful to answer the comprehension questions. They may also read the poem thoroughly (between the lines) to work out the main ideas or themes of the specific stanzas. In addition, they may repeat different parts of the poem as they struggle to extract meanings out of it. At this stage, too, although they are not explicitly told, students may use the techniques of scanning, skimming, inferencing and prioritizing information to comprehend the poem. Yet, cooperative reading is not clearly focused on in this specific part of the lesson. However, whether these aspects come into effect in the actual lesson implementation depends on awareness, teaching skills and commitment of the teacher. In this regard, the teacher observed in the public school did not appear equipped with the qualities useful to conducted effective strategy-based reading instruction (see sub-section 5.1.1).

The next two post-reading activities (Page 75) require students to look for evidences from the poem to support given claims (e.g. The writer’s mother was unselfish) and find words used in the poem with the intention to match them with given meanings. Three claims are given in the first activity for which students should search supporting evidences in the poem. This

needs scanning different parts of the poem to identify specific details and making deductions based on available information. In the second one, ten meanings are provided for students to locate their meanings in the poem. This activity involves students mainly in working out meanings of new words based on contextual clues. In fact, the extent to which these reading skills come into effect during lesson implementation relies on the teacher's expertise and commitment.

At the end, students do the activity on Page 75 which requires them to discuss the answers to questions regarding: a) why it would have been very serious if one of the children had been bitten by the scorpion rather than their mother, b) why they think the writer seems annoyed by the neighbours who have come into the house, c) to what extent they think the traditional treatment for the scorpion sting cured the mother, and to what extent her body could cure itself, d) how similar they think the scene described with the neighbours and the holy man around the mother in her agony [in an Indian setting] is to what happens in their culture and whether they or someone close to them has ever been bitten by a scorpion, or dangerous insect, spider or snake, and e) what they think of this poem [to say whether they like it or not and justify their answers].

In this activity, students work cooperatively and engage in critical reading. They do not rely only on information given or implied in the poem. They rather read beyond the lines, do evaluative reading and are involved in reflecting on their reading of the poem and beyond. The activity involves them in reasoning based on their beliefs, knowledge and experience ('a' and 'c' above), reasoning on the basis of on implied information ('b'), comparing the culture depicted in the poem with their own culture and describing an experience related to the story in the poem ('d') and practising evaluative and reflective reading ('e'). This last activity, however, does not appear to address the reading techniques of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal-setting. And, although the poem is potentially appropriate to direct students to out-of-class independent reading, this activity does not seem to pay explicit attention to this issue.

In general, the second reading lesson in Unit 3 does not include pre-reading activities. Therefore, initially, it can hardly relate the poem with students' background knowledge or experience and arouse their interest to read the poem. Besides, it does not focus on specific strategies of understanding a poem and lacks focus on pre-teaching of key words to familiarize students with the poem. The lesson gives students chance to practise using graphic organizer (picture of a scorpion), scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas and guessing meanings based on contextual clues; they are also likely to apply the techniques of making notes or summarizing, making inferences and prioritizing information according to importance. Besides, lesson advances evaluative and reflective reading techniques which are amenable to independent reading. However, it fails to introduce think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal-setting strategies. Further, although the poem is potentially appropriate to engage students in out-of-class reading, the activity fails to pay explicit attention to this aspect of independent reading.

The fourth reading lesson in Unit 3 is headed as “**A Government health leaflet**” and covers (Pages 86-87). This lesson was of particular interest in the analysis because it uses a form of reading (reading a leaflet) not encountered in the preceding reading lessons in the textbook. This type of reading helps teachers to relate real-life reading to classroom reading and students to engage in out-of-class authentic reading. The lesson begins with a pre-reading activity which gives students an opportunity to discuss in groups what they know about malaria, a common disease in many parts of Ethiopia. This pre-reading activity enables students to work cooperatively and bring their schematic knowledge to the text. It also encourages them to establish expectations about what to come across in the text, but it does not openly require them to ask questions the answers of which they can get as they read along.

The second stage of the lesson begins with the instruction: “**Now read the leaflet on the next page about malaria and check to see if you were correct**” (Page 86). At this stage, students are likely to skim through and read intensively the different parts of the health leaflet to grasp main ideas. The leaflet is divided into sections in which six sub-headings

have been purposely left out. The picture of the female mosquito is inserted at the end of the passage for students to view and relate it to the text. This activity helps students to engage in real-life reading (reading a leaflet) in which they practise the strategies of reading to check answers, using graphic organizer (picture of a female mosquito) and summarizing texts into sub-headings. In this activity, students may also guess meanings of new words based on contextual clues, make notes or summarize key points, deduce facts and prioritize information although these techniques are not noticeably reinforced in the lesson.

The post-reading stage in this lesson begins with the instruction: **“The subheadings have been removed. What do you think they should be? With a partner write the six missing sub-headings”** (Page 86). On the same page, the last activity follows with the instruction: **“What do you think of the leaflet? Can you think of ways in which it could be improved?”** Here, techniques such as reading for main ideas (to work out subheadings), cooperative reading and evaluative reading are practised. The fact that students are required to explain their evaluation of the leaflet and suggest ways in which it could be improved gives them more responsibility in the reading process. If students are consistently allowed to give comments on the texts they read and recommend ways of improving them, they can be deeply involved in the reading process and develop a love for reading which help them to read independently. Nevertheless, this is possible only if teachers implement, not skip, the lesson appropriately. In the implementation of Reading Lesson (sub-section 5.1.1.1), it was observed that the teacher in the public school omitted critical reading and discussion tasks which were meant to involve students in evaluative and reflective reading.

In short, in the fourth reading comprehension lesson of the third unit, students have the opportunities to use schematic knowledge, read with certain expectations, engage in cooperative reading, read to check answers, skim for main ideas, use graphic organizer (picture of mosquito), summarize information and evaluate content quality. While most of these reading strategies are common in the lessons analyzed so far, evaluative reading is the feature of only the reading lessons analyzed from Unit 3. It is set out in the first lesson, advanced in the second one and reinforced in the fourth. However, this lesson also does not

include think-aloud, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class reading which are useful to develop independent reading skills.

5.2.1.3. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 5

Unit 5 consists of three reading comprehension lessons: **“Extract from a Tourist Broacher”** (Pages 122-123), **“The Impact of Tourism”** (Pages 126-127) and **“Operation rhino** (Pages 138-139). Out of these lessons, only the first and the second underwent analyses and interpretations. The third one was excluded because preliminary review indicated that it does not include features that are not incorporated in the preceding two lessons in the unit. Therefore, the following paragraphs present the analyses and interpretations of the first and the second reading comprehension.

The first reading lesson in the fifth unit is based on the topic of **“Extract from a Tourist Broacher”** (Pages 122-123). It is intended to enable students to read the extract and do follow-up comprehension activities. The lesson begins with an instruction set out on Page 122: **“The following text is taken from a tourist broacher about Ethiopia. It is about one of the country’s most famous tourist destinations. Read it and try to guess the name of the place”**. The lesson does not include pre-reading activities that would help to closely relate the information in the extract with the students’ background knowledge or prior experience and arouse their interest to read the extract. In addition, there is no pre-teaching of vocabulary intended to familiarize students with the text. However, the lesson is not far from enabling learners to use their background knowledge since they are likely to guess the name of the tourist attraction in focus based on the instruction **“...one of the country’s most famous tourist destinations”**. Yet, this part of the lesson does not explicitly require students to ask questions which they could get answered as they read through the extract.

The extract is presented following the above instruction. It has blank spaces to be filled mostly with place names. Therefore, students are expected to read the extract and fill in the black spaces with names based on their prior knowledge (high cognitive work involved since information is not explicitly given but required) and textual clues. At this stage of the lesson, scanning the extract for specific details, skimming it to understand the main idea, making

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notes to keep record of useful points, making inferences on the basis of available information, discriminating between important and less important details and summarizing the main contents are not duly encouraged. However, it does not mean that students do not apply these techniques in their attempt to understand the text. Thus, the question is whether the lesson gives explicit attention to such reading comprehension techniques or not although the implementation is contingent upon the teacher's expertise and commitment.

The next activity which sets out with the instruction stated as **“There are several gaps in the text, each of these represent a name, including the name of the place itself. With a partner, see how many of the names you know”** (Page 122) requires students to work together to complete the extract. In this activity, they compare answers, re-read parts of the extract together, discuss and negotiate answers and exchange feedback. That is, students engage in cooperative reading which involves meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking, peer feedback and shared responsibility. If used consistently, meaning negotiating ability, reciprocal thinking, peer feedback and shared responsibility help students to take charge of their reading and develop independent reading abilities.

After they have checked their answers to the above exercise with the teacher who reads the full text out, students work in small groups to discuss the place described in the extract based on the instruction which runs as **“Work in a small group. Discuss the place in the text”** (Page 123). Here, students answer the following questions:

- a) Have you been to this place? Have you seen the places or done things mentioned in the text?
- b) Do you think the text makes it sound attractive? Identify words or phrases which in your opinion persuade people to go there.

In answering these questions, students engage in cooperative re-reading of the whole extract or parts of it and reflect on their experience related to the reading topic (to answer question ‘a’) and evaluate the effectiveness of the text (to respond to the first requirement in question ‘b’). They also scan for specific details to address the second issue in question ‘b’: **“.... Identify words or phrases which in your opinion persuade people to go there”**. However, the techniques of skimming for main idea(s), making notes of or summarizing details, © University of South Africa 2010

making inferences and differentiating between important and less important details are not openly emphasized although this may not mean that students do not apply them in the reading task.

Finally, a follow up activity requires students to read in groups an extract about another tourist destination in Ethiopia and supply missing names. Then, they are instructed to check their answers by listening to the teacher read out the full text. In this activity, too, students read cooperatively, apply prior knowledge to make sense of the text and use textual clues to find out missing names. Nevertheless, the lesson ends without providing practice in asking questions of the text, think-aloud technique, self-assessment and reading goal setting. Furthermore, although the topic covered in this lesson (tourism) has a robust potential of being extended to out-of-class reading, the lesson does not appear to pay particular attention to this vital aspect of independent reading.

Generally, the first reading lesson in Unit 5 embraces different reading comprehension techniques. Firstly, students read through the given text and fill in the black spaces with names based on their prior knowledge and textual clues. In this part of the lesson, scanning, skimming, note-making, inferencing, discriminating between important and less important messages and summarizing details, although not openly emphasized, are likely to come into play as students endeavour to understand the text. In the second activity, students work together to complete the extract: they are likely to compare answers, re-read parts of the extract jointly, discuss and negotiate answers and exchange feedback. In other words, they engage in meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking, peer feedback and shared responsibility. The lesson also involves reflective reading (reflection on personal experience) and evaluative reading (evaluating the effectiveness of the text). Still, issues of reflecting on strategy application (think-aloud), self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class independent reading are overlooked.

The second reading comprehension lesson in Unit 5 is based on **“The Impact of Tourism”** (Pages 126-127). It intends to enable students to read about the impact of tourism and do subsequent activities. The lesson begins with a short instruction: **“Tourism can have a**

significant impact on a country's economy. Read the text and decide if the following statements are true or false according to the text" (Page 126). Here, students are expected to read the passage (some words underlined) and answer eight true/false questions. This lesson, like the first one in this unit, does not include pre-reading activities which would help to relate the text with the students' background knowledge or prior experience and arouse their interest to read the text. In addition, no words are pre-taught that would help to familiarize students with the passage. In this activity, students may scan and/or skim the passage, make deductions based on available information, differentiate between important and less important information and make notes to record useful information or summarize key parts of the passage although they are not instructed to apply these techniques.

However, the way the first part of the lesson is concluded is not clear: whether students compare their answers with their partners' or check them with the teacher is not indicated. They are simply instructed to discuss the meanings of the underlined words in the next activity: **"With a partner, discuss the meanings of the underlined words as they are used in the passage"** (Page 127). Based on this instruction and working in pairs, students locate eight words underlined in the passage and guess the meanings of these words based on contextual clues. Scanning to locate specific words, guessing meanings from context and cooperative reading are the reading comprehension techniques that are essentially practised at this stage of the lesson.

Next, students are required to work in small groups and discuss the answers to the following questions:

- a) Do you know anyone who benefits from tourism? How do they benefit?
- b) Are you aware of any negative effects of tourism in Ethiopia?
- c) Have you ever heard of any ecotourist projects? Describe them?

Here, students engage in cooperative reading, apply prior knowledge or experience and reflectively relate the text with their personal experiences. However, they are not explicitly required to practise reading with specific questions in mind, make notes of useful details or summarize key ideas, reflect on strategic choice (think-aloud), engage in evaluative reading,

assess their reading progress and set their own reading goals. Like most of the reading lessons analyzed so far, this lesson fails to link classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading.

To put it in short, although the second reading lesson in Unit 5 includes limited activities, if implemented effectively, it helps students to practise several reading comprehension techniques. First of all, in attempting to answer the true/false questions in the first activity, they are likely to scan and/or skim the passage. In the second activity, which encourages them to work in cooperative pairs, they locate words underlined in the passage and guess their meanings based on the contexts in which they occur. The lesson also enables students to bring their background knowledge into the text and relate the text to their experiences. In addition, although not explicitly required, students may apply the techniques of making inferences based on given information, distinguishing important details from less important ones and making notes of useful points or summarizing key ideas. Nevertheless, the skills of reflecting on strategic choice (think-aloud), evaluating the contents of the text or the writer's viewpoints (evaluative reading), assessing one's success in reading and setting reading goals are neglected in this lesson, too. Besides, classroom reading is not extended to out-of-class independent reading.

5.2.1.4. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 7

Unit 7 has two reading lessons titled: **“The Challenges of Climate Change”** (Pages 168-169) and **“Why whether forecasts are important”** (Pages 186-187). These lessons contain fewer varieties of exercises than the reading lessons analyzed thus far. However, they include some elements that help teachers to scaffold independent reading and students to practise applying reading comprehension strategies which help them to monitor their own reading. The following paragraphs present the analyses and interpretations of these reading lessons.

The first reading lesson is based on a text concerning the challenges of climate change. The lesson aims to enable students to read this text and answer subsequent comprehension questions. In this lesson, there are no pre-reading activities that would help to activate students' schematic knowledge, arouse their interest to read the text and encourage them to

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read it with specific questions or expectations in mind. In addition, there is no pre-teaching of vocabulary that would help to ease the task of comprehending the text. The lesson begins with the instruction given on Page 168: “**Read this text about the challenges of climate changes and answer the questions below**”. Following this instruction, pictures are provided: the picture of a rocky mountain at the foot of which the land is being flooded and that of a factory emitting black fume. A rising sun is also seen shining over the area. These help students to use graphic organizers to make sense of the text although they are not explicitly told to interpret the pictures based on their schematic knowledge and link them with the theme of the reading passage.

Then follows the passage, “**The Challenges of Climate Change**”, which is divided into five sections respectively dealing with the definition of climate change, evidences for climate change, arguments about climate change, international measures taken to minimize the challenges created by climate change and actions to be taken in the future to mitigate the problem of climate change. In the passage, no words or phrases are underlined, written in bold or highlighted which would facilitate selective attention. While reading the text, students may scan for specific details, skim-read for main ideas, make inferences, discriminate between important and less important details, guess meanings from context and make notes of key points. However, they are not openly required to apply these reading techniques. Furthermore, cooperative reading is not given explicit attention at this stage of the lesson.

At the post-reading stage, students are expected to answer six comprehension questions regarding 1) the extent to which climate change is a modern problem, 2) seven evidences forwarded to justify climate change, 3) why scientists disagree that humans are responsible for climate change, 4) the targets most countries agreed to at the 1997 Kyoto Protocol, 5) alternatives for countries other than carbon cuts and 6) why climate change is ‘unfair’ to developing countries. Each of these questions can be answered using information explicitly stated in the passage. Therefore, students are not as such required to read beyond the lines or

make inferences on the basis of available information. All they need to do is locate specific details in the text and answer the respective questions.

To sum up, the first reading lesson in Unit 7, if implemented as intended, generally requires students to answer six post-reading questions which can be addressed using facts explicitly stated in the text. As indicated above, all students need to do is identify details pertinent to each comprehension question. The lesson also gives them an opportunity to use graphic organizers (pictures). Again, although they are not lucidly required to do so, students may apply the techniques of scanning, skimming, making inferences, prioritizing details, guessing meaning from context and making notes of important details. However, the lesson ends without giving students opportunities to use cooperative reading, think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting. Like the lessons analyzed so far, this lesson fails to extend in-class reading to out-of-class independent reading.

The second reading lesson in this Unit 7 (Pages 186-187), like the first one in the same unit, has few activities. It is based on a text titled: **“Why whether forecasts are important”**. This lesson begins with the instruction: **“Read the text below. You must do the following-a) put paragraphs (A-E) in the correct order (1-5) and add the three topic sentences in the box below (X-Z) to the three middle paragraphs(2-4)”** (Page 186). In this lesson, too, there are no pre-reading activities used to relate the text with the students’ background knowledge, familiarize them with the text, arouse their interest to read it and encourage them to form specific questions or expectations which they would get answered or confirmed as they read along. Furthermore, there are no new words selected to be taught to ease comprehension of the text.

Following the above instruction, students read through the text (a four paragraphs passage in which the topic sentences of the second, the third and the fourth paragraphs have been left out). Initially, they read the text and attempt to work out the main ideas of the respective paragraphs. Then, they try to match each given topic sentence with the second, the third or the fourth paragraph. In doing this, they mainly skim the passage to understand the main ideas of the paragraphs in focus. However, the techniques of scanning for specific details,

making notes to record important ideas, making inferences based on available information, discriminating between important and less important details and guessing meanings based on contextual clues can also come into play as students read along. At this stage and elsewhere in the lesson, cooperative reading and using graphic organizers are not given overt attention.

After students read the text and done the first activity, they are directed to do five comprehension questions based on the text (Page 187). These questions are open-ended ones which can be answered using information stated in the text. That is, the questions do not as such require students to read beyond the lines or make inferences. In this part of the lesson, too, the skill of note-taking or summarizing is not explicitly focused on, but emphasized in the immediate writing activity (Page 188) where students are required to identify and write the main ideas of paragraphs based on given topic sentences. This activity helps them to practise skim-reading to work out main ideas.

In sum, the second reading lesson in Unit 7 gives more emphasis to the technique of reading for main ideas. However, as they struggle to comprehend the text, students can use the techniques of note-making or summarizing, making inferences based on available information and analyzing information in terms of priority. Pre-reading, cooperative reading, think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading seem to be neglected in this lesson. However, as emphasized before, whether reading lessons are implemented as intended in the textbook or presented in an improved manner depends on the expertise and commitment of the teacher.

5.2.1.5. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 9

The ninth unit of the English textbook used in public schools contains three reading lessons. The first is based on non-fiction prose texts while the second depends on a short poem. However, the third does not present the passage (text), but requires the teacher to hand it out to students. A detailed analyses and interpretations of these lessons are presented in the following paragraphs.

The first reading lesson of the unit deals with the theme of “**Disability is no obstacle to success**” (Page 222). It has three short texts, each describing a famous person with disability (ies). The lesson begins with an introductory sentence: “**You are going to read about three people with disabilities who have achieved success and fame**” (Page 222). This informs students of what the text is going to talk about and gives them purpose for reading. Nevertheless, the lesson does not incorporate pre-reading activities which would a) help to activate students’ schematic knowledge or prior experience, b) arouse their interest to read the texts, and c) enable them to read the texts in order to get questions answered or expectations confirmed. In addition, there is no pre-teaching of new vocabulary in the lesson that would ease comprehension. As a result, the lesson seems to fail to create links between students’ background and the texts they are supposed to read and comprehend.

The first activity in this lesson requires students to skim each text and find out a) what disability each person had, and b) why they have achieved fame. Then, the three texts are given: the first about a famous blind man from Kenya called Kibuuka (Page 223), the second about a famous woman from Zimbabwe named Prudence, born with a condition known as anthrogyrosis (Page 224), and the third concerning the famous American blind and deaf woman called Helen Keller (Page 224). The first text has the picture of a big mountain surrounded by forests (perhaps it is Mount Kilimanjaro which Kibuuka climbed up successfully) while each of the other two has the photograph of the famous person it describes. In this activity, students principally apply the technique of skimming to grasp the central idea of each text or the main points of its parts with the intention to answering the two questions mentioned already. The activity also helps them to use graphic organizers (picture and photographs) to make sense of the respective text.

In the second activity, students match a name to each of 13 questions (more than one name can be used for some of the questions). The questions are presented as...

Who-----

- a) was physically very fit?
- b) experienced cruelty?
- c) was saved by their education?

- d) was given a scholarship?
- e) ended their career because of an injury?
- f) was first helped by their grandmother to develop their natural talent?
- g) traveled around the world?
- h) achieved a first for disabled people?
- i) did more than one kind of job?
- j) has lived in two different countries?
- k) was a difficult child?
- l) communicated by touch?
- m) achieved international success in two different fields?

To answer the above questions, students are likely to use two strategies. Some of them may read the whole of each text once again to get a better grasp of the main idea and answer the respective question(s). This technique is important because some of the questions (e.g. Question 'a') require them to work out answers by going beyond specific details stated in the text. In this case, the activity reinforces the skimming strategy practised in the first exercise in the same lesson. Secondly, some of the questions require students to locate specific details in the respective texts, i.e. the technique of scanning comes into effect as students read quickly to sort out answers to specific questions. Apart from skimming and scanning, since the texts in this activity are descriptive that appeal to the sense of sight, effective readers can create mental pictures (use the technique of visualization) of scenes, situations, phenomena and so on in the reading process. Therefore, skimming, scanning and imagery (using graphic organizers/mental pictures) are the techniques that can be used mainly in this activity while note-making or summarizing, inferencing, prioritizing information and guessing meaning from context can also come into play as students read along.

The next activities involve students in guessing meanings of new words and discussing the answers to some questions (Page 222). The former requires them to find words and expressions in the texts and match them with given meanings (a-g). This demands that students analyze the contexts surrounding the new words. The second activity requires them to answer the following questions:

- a) Why do you think Helen Keller thought deafness was more an affliction than blindness?
- b) Prudence's grandfather thought that she was a curse when she was born. Have you come across similar attitudes towards disability in your culture?

- c) Have you ever watched or read about the Paralympic Games? What do you think able-bodied people can gain from watching them?
- d) What do you think was the key event in the lives of these three people?
- e) Which story do you find the most inspiring? Why?

These two activities enable students to apply different reading comprehension strategies. In the first one, they guess meanings of new words and expressions based on contextual clues. This includes spotting specific words and expressions (scanning) and examining the surrounding contexts to work out the meanings of these words and expressions. The second activity is more personalized and engaging since it involves students in reading beyond the lines and making decisions (Questions 'a' and 'd'), reflecting on their experience in relation to a text (Questions 'b' and 'c'), and comparing the three texts in terms of their inspirational effect, i.e. exercising evaluative reading (Question 'e'). Nevertheless, as the last activity in the lesson, it would be better if it focused on strategies such as think-aloud, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between in-class reading and outside-class independent reading.

Generally, the first reading lesson in the ninth unit, provided that it is implemented properly, involves students in using various reading techniques: reading with anticipation of what to come across in the text, scanning to locate specific details, skimming to grasp main ideas, using imagery (graphic organizers), guessing meanings of new words and expressions from their contexts of use, comparing texts (evaluative reading), reading beyond the lines to making decisions and reflecting on one's experience in relation to the contents of given texts. In addition, although not emphasized explicitly, the skills of note-making, inferencing and analyzing information according to importance can come into effect as students read through the texts. However, think-aloud, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between in-class reading and outside-class independent reading do not receive explicit attention in this lesson.

The second reading lesson (Page 240) is based on a short poem written by an American girl with a disability. The lesson, without providing pre-reading activity, presents the poem for students to read cooperatively and answer three comprehension questions:

- a) What kind of disability does she have?
- b) What is the saying about it?

c) Your feeling about the poem.

Therefore, students attempt to read the poem and answer the above questions without having to do sensitizing activities before they read. Additionally, since the activities are limited, this lesson does not involve students in doing a variety of reading tasks which would enable them to apply different reading techniques. The fact that the lesson does not include pre-reading activities deprives students of the chance to relate the poem with their background knowledge or prior experience, develop interest to read the poem and ask specific questions of the poem which they would get answered as they read along. Furthermore, the lesson does not include pre-teaching of new words which could help students in comprehending the poem. The first and the second questions in the cooperative reading activity require students to read the whole poem to grasp main ideas while the third question involves them in evaluative reading (expressing their feelings about the poem). That is, while they mainly employ the technique of skimming for main ideas and evaluative reading, the techniques of scanning for specific details, guessing meanings from contextual clues, making notes or summarizing key points, making inferences based on available information, and analyzing details into important and less important are not given explicit attention. Besides, this lesson does not address think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting. It also appears to fail to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading.

To interpret, the second reading lesson in Unit 9 helps students to practise cooperative reading, skim-reading for main ideas and evaluating the contents of a given text. In addition, although not overtly required, students may exercise the strategies of scanning for specific details, guessing meanings from contextual clues, making notes, inferring outcomes based on available details, and sorting details into important and less important. Nevertheless, the reading techniques of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting seem neglected. The issue of linking in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading does not also receive explicit attention.

The third reading lesson in the ninth unit begins with a general introduction: **“Your teacher will give you a Fact Sheet prepared by the United Nations International Labour Office (ILO) about Ethiopia. Skim read it and match the sections in the text to these sub-headings”** (Page 241). Following the instruction, seven sub-headings are given:

- a) The way forward
- b) Key ministries responsible for people with disabilities
- c) Current situation
- d) Key international standards on disability and their status
- e) Governmental support for people with disabilities
- f) Organizations of persons with disabilities
- g) The role of the ILO

This lesson, too, does not include pre-reading activities and pre-teaching of new vocabulary that would give students insight into the text they are supposed to read and comprehend. Like the preceding lessons in the same unit, this lesson gives students a chance to skim-read the to-be-given text to grasp the main ideas of the different sections in order to be able to correctly match each section with a given sub-heading. In addition, although not directly encouraged to do so, students may apply the techniques of scanning, guessing meaning from context, making notes, inferencing and discriminating between important and less important details in their attempt to comprehend the text. Yet, cooperative reading, think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting do not seem to be given explicit attention in this lesson, too. In addition, it is not clear whether the lesson links in-class reading with outside-class reading. However, based on the nature of the reading lessons analyzed so far, one can guess that this lesson fails to include this important aspect of independent reading.

5.2.1.6. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 11

Unit 11 consists of two reading lessons: the first based on a newspaper report about a severe earthquake in Haiti and the second on readings of job advertisement. Both texts are not pedagogical constrained in that they replicate the types of texts students are likely to read in real-life. These lessons expose students to use different reading techniques which help them to develop independent reading abilities. The following paragraphs describe the analyses and interpretations of the two reading lessons.

In the first reading lesson (Pages 273-275), students read a text about a story of a Haitian girl who was lost because of a horrific earthquake but later found alive. Then, based on their background knowledge and their reading of the text, they do various tasks. The lesson first presents the title of the text, “**Newspaper report**”, which is followed by a map showing the islands of Haiti, Portau Prince, St. Martin, St. Barts, Guadeloupe and Martinique. Subsequently,

a general introduction is stated: “Can you remember hearing about the earthquake in Haiti in January 2010? Over a hundred thousand people were killed and many times more than that figure were injured and made homeless” (Page 273). After this, students come across the instruction: “**Before you read the article discuss these questions** [a) Where is Haiti? b) What happens during an earthquake and what are the effects?]. At this stage, students 1) acquaint themselves with the text based on the title, guess what comes next on the basis of the depiction of the map (graphic organizer) and use their prior knowledge to answer the two pre-reading questions cooperatively.

The next activity starts with the instruction: “**Skim read the article and then do the exercise below**”. This instruction is followed by the newspaper article with the heading: “**Saïda has been found!**” Some words and expressions are written in bold to facilitate meaning guessing through selective attention. There is also a picture depicting Saïda’s re-union with her mother, Salvanie, and her little sister, Cama-Lisa. Here, students are required to skim through the text and make notes to accomplish these tasks based on the instructions: 1) “Make notes of the main points Saïda’s [in Saïda’s] story in chronological order; and 2) Re-tell the story from your notes with the other members of your group”. This activity also includes vocabulary guess work through selective attention. Students are asked to choose, from two given alternatives, the correct contextual meaning of a new word or phrase written in bold in the text. In this activity, students (working cooperatively) apply mainly the technique of skimming to grasp the main idea of the story, make notes of key points and guess meanings of new words or expressions based on contextual clues. In addition, although not explicitly required, they may also practise scanning to pick up specific details, making inferences based on available information and analyzing details into important and less important ones.

The last activity in this lesson, a whole class discussion under the instruction stated as “Decide if you agree or disagree with these statements” (Page 275), involves reading beyond the lines and making decisions. It has three broad points for discussion:

- a) It is important for newspapers to report individual stories during crises as well as to report the overall situation.
- b) It would be better for Saïda to stay in Guadeloupe, which is part of France and a rich country than return to her family in Haiti, which is a poor country with many problems.

c) I could not be a Red Cross worker as the work would be too emotional for me.

This open-ended activity requires students to express views of agreement or disagreement on these three debatable points. It thus allows them to reflect on their views with justifications (reasoning, reflection and defending one's position). Generally, the first reading lesson in the 11th unit allows students to use various reading strategies. In the first activity, they practise using a map and a picture (graphic organizers), applying prior knowledge and working cooperatively in comprehending a text. The next activity enables them to work cooperatively to grasp main ideas in the story, make notes of key points and guess meanings of new words or expressions from context. The third activity is an open-ended one which requires students to express views of agreement or disagreement on the three debatable points (a-c). It thus allows them to reflect on and justify their views (the skills of reasoning, reflective reading, defending one's position and evaluating arguments coming into effect). However, like most of the lessons analyzed before, this lesson neglects the techniques of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting. Moreover, the lesson appears to overlook the need to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading.

The second reading lesson in Unit 11 (Pages 281-282) contains three job advertisements. It begins with a pre-reading activity: **“Look at these job advertisements. Where do you find advertisements like these?”** This helps the teacher to activate students' prior knowledge and initiate them to read the passage in an involved manner. It also enables students to apply their background knowledge in the comprehension process and to read the texts to get the above question answered or to confirm their answers to it. After this, an instruction stated as **“Read the advertisements and complete the notes below”** is given. Then, the three advertisements are presented in boxes.

The first one advertises **Job A** for a position of an assistant supply officer at a small United Nations agency. Applicants should write to the Director, UNGP, P.O. Box 12, Addis Ababa. The would-be employee is responsible for placing orders with suppliers, supervising the arrival of goods and sending them out to project offices in different parts of the country [Ethiopia]. This job requires computer skills and some knowledge of accounts. The second is an urgent advertisement for **Job B**, which seeks an office administrator for a small NGO opening in Harar.

The employee, accountable to the Director, will be in charge of managing the office. Computer skills, secondary education and excellent Amharic and English are essential for the job. Applications must be sent to the Personnel Manager, P.O. Box 35, Dire Dawa. The third one advertises **Job C** for a position of field officer in a national NGO. The employee will be responsible for gathering information and assessing community needs, coordinating community projects, liaising with local officials and ensuring efficient office organizations. Computer skills, driving license and secondary education are the requirements. Applications should be accompanied with a full CV and sent to HZY, P.O. Box 51, Addis Ababa.

Then, students are expected to complete the following summary table (Page 282) while and/or after they read the advertisements in which they predominantly practise reading for specific details (scanning) and making notes of key points:

	Job A	Job B	Job C
Type of organization			
Job title			
Responsibilities			
Skills required			
Location of job			

To integrate, the two activities in this lesson, if made operational as intended, can train students in the use of different reading strategies. The first activity gives them an opportunity to use their background knowledge or prior experience in text comprehension and read texts to get questions answered or answers confirmed. The second one requires them to practise reading texts to identify specific details and making notes of important details. While these are the main reading techniques focused on in this lesson, students may also apply other techniques such as skimming for main ideas, guessing meanings using contextual clues, making inferences and analyzing details into important and less important. However, this lesson fails to give students chance to use the strategies of think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting. It also does not link classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading.

5.2.1.7. Features across Lessons

Where textbooks are used as central learning resources, it is vital to ensure that they serve the intended function. Therefore, analyzing the contents of textbooks to determine the extent to which they are appropriate for the purpose they are meant to serve is a useful undertaking. It was with this understanding that six reading comprehension lessons included in the Grade 11 EFL textbook used in public schools were analyzed and interpreted. The analyses and interpretations were intended to examine how independent reading is covered in the textbook. In the above sub-sections (5.2.1.1-5.2.1.6), the analysis and interpretation of each lesson were presented separately. In this section, the features that recur across reading lessons are captured. The following paragraphs are thus devoted for this purpose.

Two reading lessons were analyzed and interpreted from Unit 1. The first promotes the practice of using cognitive strategies such as using graphic organizers, establishing anticipation of what to come across in a text, reading to get one's questions answered, guessing meanings of new words from contextual clues and applying prior knowledge in text comprehension. The lesson also gives practice in the use of socio-affective strategy through cooperative reading. The second lesson, although it lacks focus on socio-affective strategy, provides exercise in using cognitive strategies such as applying prior knowledge, skimming for main ideas, forming expectations, reading to get questions answered, guessing meaning from context, making notes of key points and summarizing a text or its parts. However, the two lessons lack emphasis on the cognitive strategy of evaluative reading (the skill of critically assessing the contents of the texts and/or the writer's views). Moreover, although consistent use of background knowledge or prior experience can develop into metacognitive awareness about the value of schematic knowledge or prior experience in text comprehension, both lessons seem to neglect specific metacognitive strategies of reflecting on strategy use (think-aloud), assessing one's reading progress and setting reading goals. Besides, linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class independent reading appears to be overlooked in these lessons.

Three reading lessons (the first, the second and the fourth) were analyzed and interpreted from Unit 3. The first lesson, although it lacks focus on the socio-affective strategy of cooperative reading, gives students chance to practise the cognitive strategies of using background

knowledge, reading with specific expectations, reading to check answers, scanning for specific information, skimming for main ideas, making notes of key ideas, summarizing information, making inferences based on available information and analyzing details into important and less important. Although the second lesson, in Unit 3, does not include pre-reading activities, specific strategies of understanding a poem and pre-teaching of key words, it enables students to practise scanning, skimming and guessing meanings from contextual clues. It also includes evaluative reading (cognitive strategy) and reflective reading (metacognitive strategy). Similarly, the fourth reading lesson promotes the use of components of cognitive strategy (using schematic knowledge, reading with certain expectations, reading to check answers, skimming for main ideas, using graphic organizer, summarizing texts and evaluating content quality). It also gives practice in the use of socio-affective strategy via cooperative reading. Nevertheless, like the ones in Unit 1, the three reading lessons in this unit do not incorporate the metacognitive strategies of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting. They also fail to extend in-class reading to out-of-class independent reading.

Like in Unit 1, two reading lessons were analyzed and interpreted from the fifth unit. The two reading lessons cogently encourage students to apply the cognitive strategies of using prior knowledge to make sense of texts, scanning texts to locate specific details and relating textual information to their personal experiences. In their reading journey, students may also use the cognitive strategies of skimming, making deductions based on available information, discriminating details into important and less important, making notes of key points and summarizing texts. The socio-affective strategy of cooperative reading (meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking, peer feedback and shared responsibility) is also emphasized in these lessons. On the other hand, while reflective reading (metacognitive strategy) and evaluative reading (cognitive strategy) are included in the first lesson, these are lacking in the second one which, unlike the first, embraces guessing meanings of new words based on contextual clues (cognitive strategy). However, the metacognitive strategies of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting plus linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class independent reading are overlooked in both reading lessons.

The number of reading lessons analyzed and interpreted from the seventh unit was also two. While the first gives students chance to apply the cognitive strategy of using graphic organizers

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(pictures) in their endeavours to comprehend the respective texts, the cognitive strategies of scanning, skimming, inferencing, note-making, discriminating details into important and less important and guessing meaning from context can come into effect as students read the texts in the two lessons. Nevertheless, both lessons seem to lack explicit focus on some cognitive strategies (using schematic knowledge or prior experience, reading texts to get questions answered and evaluating contents of a text or the writer's views), socio-affective strategy (cooperative reading that involves meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking and mutual accountability) and metacognitive strategies (think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting). In addition, these reading lessons fail to extend in-class reading to out-of-class independent reading.

The next three reading lessons which underwent analyses and interpretations were taken from Unit 9. The first enables students to apply the cognitive strategies of guessing meanings of new terms based on their contexts and scanning to spot specific items. It also involves students in reading beyond the lines and making decisions (metacognitive strategy), reflecting on their experience in relation to the given text (metacognitive strategy) and comparing texts in terms of their inspirational effect (cognitive strategy). The second lesson, like the first one, does not include pre-reading activities and pre-teaching of new words. However, it engages them in employing the techniques of skimming (cognitive strategy), cooperative reading (socio-affective strategy) and expressing their feelings about a text (cognitive strategy). The third lesson does not include pre-reading activities, pre-teaching of new vocabulary and evaluative reading (aspects of cognitive strategy) and cooperative reading (socio-affective strategy). This lesson gives students a chance to skim-read a to-be given text to grasp main ideas. Nevertheless, the metacognitive strategies of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting are not given overt attention in this lesson, too. The reading lessons in the ninth unit also do not link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading.

Lastly, two reading lessons underwent analyses and interpretations from Unit 11. The first allows students to practise the cognitive strategies of using a map and a picture (graphic organizers), applying prior knowledge in text comprehension, skimming to grasp main ideas, making notes of key points, guessing meanings from context and expressing views of agreement or disagreement on debatable issues which involves evaluation (cognitive strategy) reading. It also enables them

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to work cooperatively (socio-affective strategy) and reflect on their views (metacognitive strategy). Likewise, the second lesson trains students in the use of cognitive strategies such as applying background knowledge or prior experience in text comprehension and reading texts to get questions answered or answers confirmed, reading texts to identify specific details and making notes of important points. Other aspects of cognitive strategy like skimming for main ideas, guessing meanings using contextual clues, making inferences and analyzing details into important and less important can also come into application as students read through the given text. However, both lessons neglect the metacognitive strategies of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting. They also appear to overlook the need to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading.

Generally, although asking questions of a text and evaluative reading are minimally incorporated, cognitive strategies are covered fairly well in the six reading lessons which underwent analysis. The lessons also provide a rather good coverage of socio-affective strategy. When an aspect of cognitive strategy or socio-affective strategy is lacking in a certain lesson, it receives focus in other lessons. Thus, the textbook, if properly utilized, can fairly train students in the use of cognitive and socio-affective strategies required in independent reading. However, metacognitive strategy appears to lack adequate coverage across the six reading lessons. Although reflective reading is minimally covered in few lessons, the metacognitive strategies of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting are overlooked across these lessons. Besides, nearly all the lessons do not explicitly link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. Where the think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting and linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class autonomous reading are neglected, scaffolding independent reading can be difficult. It is also useful to note that whether independent reading components covered in a textbook are implemented as intended or dealt with in a better way highly depends on the expertise, commitment and emphasis of the teacher. For example, while the public school English textbook covers socio-affective strategy fairly well, it was dealt with poorly in the lessons observed in the selected public school.

5.2.2. Coverage of IR in the Textbook Used in a Non-public School

The Grade 11 share of the coursebook used in the non-public school, selected for analysis, consists of four parts each of which is divided into units of varying numbers. Each unit is subdivided into sub-units which are based on the grand theme of this part. From now on, ‘textbook’ will be used instead of ‘coursebook’ to maintain consistency throughout the thesis. The following sub-sections present the analyses and interpretations of the reading lessons in the first unit of Part 1 of the selected textbook. This unit consists of two sub-units that contain different lessons all of which underwent analyses and interpretations.

5.2.2.1. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 1.1

The first part of Unit 1 in Part 1 has two sub-units: Unit 1.1 and Unit 1.2. Each sub-unit is based on the theme of the first part of the textbook, language in cultural context, and contains different reading lessons accompanied with various activities. The analyses and interpretations of the reading lessons in the two sub-units are presented in the following paragraphs. The details first focus on the features of the different lessons separately and then treat the issues that emerge across lessons.

Unit 1, “**The English language**”, begins on the first page of the textbook. It partly aims to enable students to read texts and understand why the English language became a global language and why there are so many varieties of English. A brief background is provided to inform students to approach the English language as anthropologists approach the study of unfamiliar cultures through writing observations in journals or making recordings of an obscure language. This part also emphasizes that the target students, as learners of the English language, should consider themselves as learners of the cultures of the Anglophone world depicted in film posters, text messages, advertisements on websites, magazines, graffiti on billboards, poetry read in cafes, speeches of politicians, manuals, private letters and Tweets. The background describes these texts as little mirrors which reflect cultural values. This part also highlights the structure and focus of each sub-unit and provides definitions of four key terms: *anthropology world*, *text*, *culture* and *context*.

The background information forms a focus, arouses students’ interest to know about the Anglophone cultures and helps them read to get their anticipations confirmed or questions

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answered. Although specific questions are not raised, this part can be considered as a pre-reading activity used to lead to the two sub-units which constitute the first part of the textbook. The emphasis on Anglophone cultures can inspire students to read to explore more about these cultures. It can also cultivate in them intrinsic desire to interact with the various sub-groups of the Anglophone community. The importance attached to magazines, graffitis, poetry, political speeches, private letters and Tweets can encourage students to read such real-life texts outside class. This helps them to move away from textbook-based and classroom-confined reading. In addition, as stated in the background (Page xvi), pre-teaching of the definitions of key terms enables students to learn the meanings of important terms and see how these terms are used contextually in the respective texts.

Unit 1.1, “**English as a global language**”, comes next to the background information. It sets out on Page 2 by providing the following tips on self-selection of texts:

It does not always have to be your teacher who finds appropriate texts to study for part 1. Hunting for interesting texts is a challenging and worthwhile activity for you as well. You can create a classroom ‘library’ of texts that explores a wide range of cultures. Try to include as many different types of text as possible, from letters to brochures, and articles to advertisements.

Then, a short quiz consisting of questions which capture facts included in the first passage is given. The questions follow here:

1. How many people speak English as a native language?
 a. 200 million b. 400 million c. 600 million d. 1 billion
2. How many people speak English as an additional language?
 a. 300 million b. 400 million c. 600 million d. 1 billion
3. How many people are learning English as a foreign language?
 a. 300 million b. 400 million c. 600 million d. 1 billion

What reading experiences and techniques do students acquire from the above activities? Collecting a variety of interesting texts to create a classroom ‘library’ helps link classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading. It gives students responsibility to select appropriate texts based on their own purpose and criteria. It also involves them in evaluative reading which enables them to make decisions on the appropriateness of texts. In this way, it encourages them to exercise self-directed reading. On the other hand, while trying to answer the

questions in the quiz, students can use their schematic knowledge, form expectations of what to encounter in the upcoming texts and read to get their expectations confirmed.

Following this, an introduction is given regarding the rapid expansion in the number of English language users. The introduction also raises questions of 1) why has the English language become the world's number one lingua franca, and 2) why English is the language of the global village. It also announces that students will explore three answers related to the British Empire, economics and fashion. Then, different texts are provided: **Text 1.1** (IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases, International Maritime Organization, 2001) about the British Empire (Pages 2-4), **Text 1.2** (Call center training) regarding economic factors (Pages 4-6) and **Text 1.3** (Cosmo Girl) concerning fashion (Pages 7-8).

Text 1.1 is accompanied by pictures depicting particular themes (e.g. Figure 1.2 showing the Port of Hong Kong on Page 3 and the map of English speaking countries in the world on the same page). It is accompanied by two discussion questions. These are:

- 1) How does text 1.1 define its speaker? Where do you see evidence that this is the language of ocean-going vessel?
- 2) Although it is said that English is the language of the seas because of the British Empire, you can see that the IMO uses American English. 'International Maritime Organization' is spelled with a 'z'. Why do you think this is so?

At the end of the text, a useful further resource is indicated: *The Story of English*-a TV series from 1986 that documents the rise of the English language from its Anglosaxon origins to its global dominance today. The series covers a range of topics, including Shakespeare's influence on the language and interesting accents from all over the world (Page 4).

Reading through Text 1.1 and doing the activities helps students to develop useful reading techniques. Firstly, to comprehend the text, although not explicitly required, they could scan parts of the text to locate specific details (e.g. to answer the first discussion question), skim-read to work out the main idea of the text, analyze details into important and less important, make notes of or summarize key points and make inferences. Secondly, using the figures and the map enables them to practise using imagery (graphic organizer) in text compression. Thirdly, since the second discussion question cannot be answered using information explicitly stated in the text, it requires students to go beyond the lines and use their reasoning abilities. Some students may

argue that America's global supremacy is the reason for IMO's use of American English. Others may present other reasons and formulate counter arguments. This is likely to engage them in reflective reading. Finally, referring students to a further resource has an important implication. On the one hand, watching the TV series may inspire students to learn about Shakespeare and to read his works. On the other hand, it gives them the impression that learning is not confined to the classroom. Both can encourage them to practise out-of-class independent reading. However, it does not provide explicit focus on cooperative reading; think-aloud techniques, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

Text 1.2 is preceded by background information on how economic factors helped the English language to gain increasing currency. It begins with discussion questions:

- 1) What do you know about the target audience for text 1.2? Where do you find evidence in this text that indicates this?
- 2) How does the text indicate that there are economic benefits for call center workers who speak English fluently without an Indian accent?

The text then provides details on the topic of call center training, asks an evaluative question and defines key terms: *cultural bias*, *language currency*, *instrumental motivation*, *integrative motivation* and *bilingualism*. It contains the picture of a young male Indian working in a call center. It also provides a further resource. This is indicated in the first line of the instruction on Page 6: "Find the short film *Jay Walker on the World's English mania* on the Internet at www.ted.com/talks/jay_walker_on_the_world_s_english_mania.html".

From the preceding analysis and interpretation of Text 1.2, one can understand that this text, if used properly, trains students to use different reading techniques. Firstly, the pre-reading questions help them to anticipate what to come across in the text, read the text to get questions answered and scan it to locate the answers to these questions. Secondly, although they are not overtly required, in their attempt to comprehend the text, students are likely to skim-read the text to grasp its main idea, analyze details into important and less important, write notes or summaries of key points and make inferences. Thirdly, the evaluative questions (Page 5): "... You may have found it hard to comment on Text 1.2 without making assumptions about the importance of money in Indian society. Is it possible to discuss any text without passing judgment on its cultural value?" help students to evaluate the text and the writer's views

critically when they read. Fourthly, while the use of the picture consolidates students' practice of using graphic organizers in text comprehension, teaching the definitions of key terms raises their sensitivity to important words while reading. It also gives students chance to focus on the contextual use of such words. Finally, the provision of a further resource, the film, and referring students to the Internet enables them to reinforce their understanding that learning is not restricted to the classroom. Doing these also encourages them to use the Internet as an independent learning resource. This can establish a foundation for independent reading. However, the lesson that is based on Text 1.2 fails to explicitly focus on cooperative reading, using think-aloud strategies, assessing one's reading progress and setting one's reading goals.

Text 1.3 deals with how fashion helped the English language to spread around the world. Like the preceding texts, it gives details on its topic and provides a picture which portrays different fashions (see below). Following the text, discussion questions are presented:

- 1) With reference to Text 1.3, can you see how the English language has been integrated in the Dutch language?
- 2) A word like *hotste* contains the Dutch suffix *-ste*, which is a superlative, attached to the English root *hot*. The Dutch word *hotste* can be translated into English by the word *hottest*. Can you find more examples?
- 3) Why do you think teenage girls borrow English words to express themselves in Dutch?
- 4) Do you think, from this example, that the English language is invading or corrupting the Dutch language?

The text also contains definitions of two key terms, *language borrowing* and *loanwords*. On page 8, three figures (Figures 1.5, 1.6 and 1.7) are presented under Activity 1.1. Students are thus required to study the figures and answer this question: "Why is English used in these three situations? Explain their contexts with reference to the reasons for using English explored in this unit". Figures 1.5, 1.6 and 1.7 respectively depict the use of English to make a point in demonstrations, the utilization of bilingual signs in major airports all over the world and the practice of using English to display religious convictions on a football shirt. The text ends by providing a further resource (Page 8):

English as a Global Language by David Crystal explores the rise of English as the dominant lingua franca in the world. He looks at 'new' Englishes and the history of familiar varieties of English. This book is an excellent starting point for anyone interested in the global nature of English.

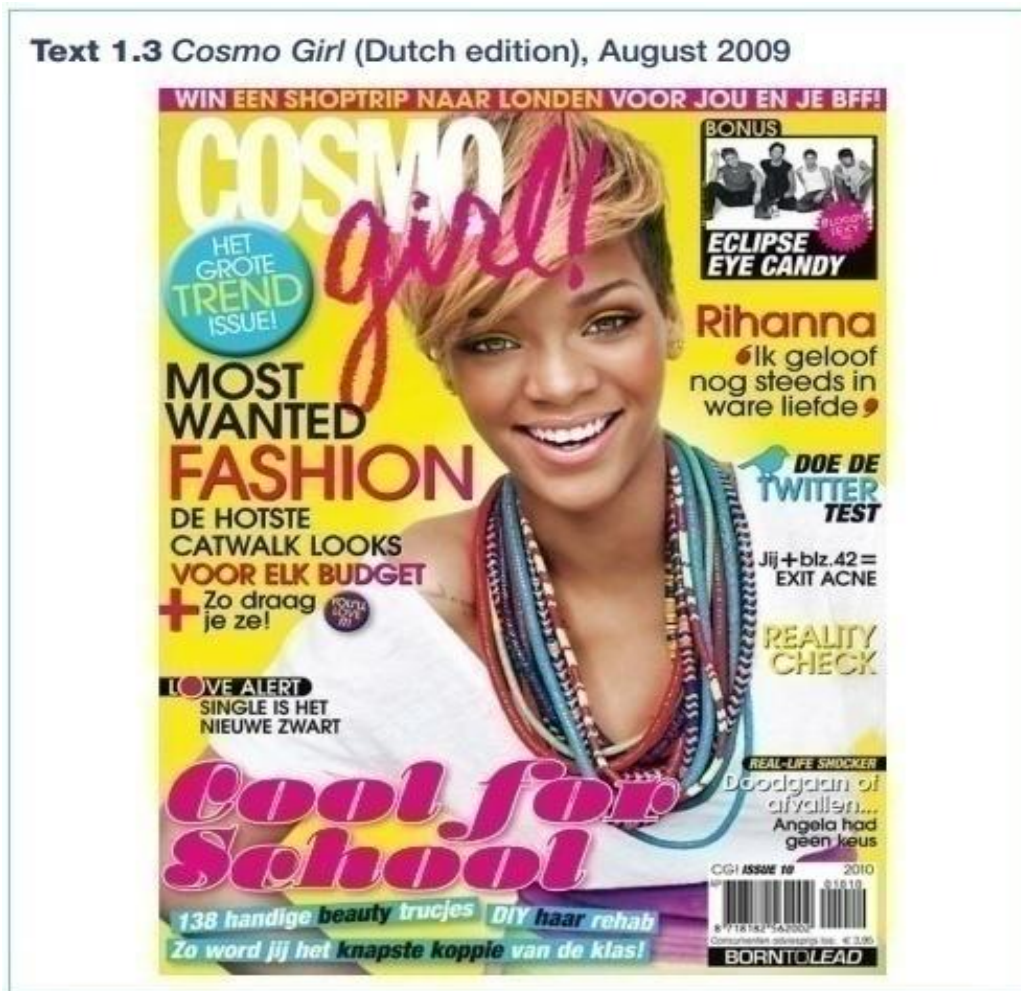


Figure 5.2: *Cosmo Girl* (Source: English Language and Literature for the IB Diploma 2011:8)

Text 1.3 also encourages students to apply various reading techniques. To comprehend the text and answer most of the discussion questions, they may use the skills of scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, making notes or summarizing key details, discriminating between important and less important information and making inferences based on available information. The use of the figures in the text helps students to continue using graphic organizers in text comprehension. Finally, the further reading resource provided in the text, if utilized correctly, helps to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. Finally, the question stated as “Do you think, from this example, that the English language is invading or corrupting the Dutch language?” engages students in reflective reading in the form of arguments

and counter arguments. Nevertheless, the text ends without providing explicit practice in cooperative reading, think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

Generally, the reading activities in Unit 1.1 train students in using various reading strategies which help them to develop independent reading skills. Using background knowledge or prior experience in text comprehension, reading a text with expectations of what to encounter in it, reading a text to get questions answered, using graphic organizers to make sense of a text, analyzing the contexts in which key terms are used and evaluating texts or writers' purposes are some of the cognitive strategies practised in the unit. However, the cognitive strategies of scanning for specific details, skim-reading for main ideas, guessing meanings of new words from context, analyzing details into important and less important, making notes or summarizing key points and making inference based on available information, although students can apply them in attempting to comprehend texts, do not seem to be given adequate explicit attention. The social strategy of cooperative reading also appears to lack overt attention in the unit. On the other hand, while the unit provides practice in the use of the metacognitive strategy of reflective reading, it does not explicitly focus on think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting. It is also worth noting that the activities in the unit seem to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading either by encouraging students to self-select texts or by referring them to further resources.

5.2.2.2. Coverage of IR in Reading Lessons in Unit 1.2

Unit 1.2, which deals with varieties of English, begins on Page 8 by providing definitions of three key terms: *jargon*, *idiolect* and *divergence*. It then gives a brief account of language varieties. It also highlights that the unit focuses on three main reasons (social, historical and regional) that make people speak distinctive varieties of English. On Page 9, explanations are provided about language varieties along with distinctions between *language*, *accent* and *dialect*. The explanations also offer tips on Standard English, non-standard English and attitudes towards users of dialects that deviate from American or British English.

These introductory details can give students purpose for reading the upcoming texts, train them to focus on key terms while reading the text and encourage them to analyze the contexts in which these terms are used. In addition, although not cogently instructed to do, they may apply the

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techniques of scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, making notes or summarizing key points, guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues, analyzing details into important and less important and making inferences based on available information. However, this part of the lesson does not clearly encourage students to use their background knowledge or experience in text comprehension.

Then, Text 1.4, the first text in the unit, which is titled “**Pygmalion**” (George Bernard Shaw, 1914), begins on Page 10. On the top right part of the page, a picture depicting a scene from George Bernard Shaw’s “Pygmalion” is given. Following this, a scene in which Liza Doolittle, a Cockney-speaking flower girl comes into contact with Henry Higgins (The Note Taker) is presented. The Note Taker is a linguist and member of the upper class. In a setting which brings the wealthy and the poor in close immediacy, the two engage in dialogues in which their registers manifest. The Note Taker speaks formal register while the Flower Girl employs informal register. The Note Taker condemns her use of informal English which is not as formal as the circumstance requires. He not only denounces the Flower Girl’s register but also pledges to teach her to speak with acceptable formality. Discussion questions, accompanied by a cartoon picture aimed to illustrate clash of cultures due to language use included on Page 12, are also part of Text 1.4:

- 1) Do you agree with the Note Taker’s statements about the Flower Girl’s use of English? Will her ‘kerbstone English’ keep her in the ‘gutter’? Or are there other factors that determine her position in society?
- 2) What do you think of the Note Taker’s proposition? Is it possible to transform a cockney girl into a duchess by teaching her to speak differently? Does such a plan ignore her sense of identity and dignity, or is it a generous offer?

Text 1.4, provided that it is implemented as intended, helps students to apply different techniques of reading. Although they are not explicitly told, in their attempt to comprehend the text, students are likely to scan for specific details, skim-read to grasp the main intent of the story, make notes or summarize key points, guess meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues, analyze details into important and less important and exercise inferential reading. The use of the cartoon picture also helps them to use graphic organizers in comprehending the text. The discussion questions involve them in applying two important reading techniques. On the one hand, they critically evaluate the issues in the story in the light of the questions (evaluative reading). On the

other hand, they express their agreements or disagreements with the points raised in the text and forward views to justify their agreements or disagreements (reflective reading). However, the text does not lucidly focus on cooperative reading; think-aloud techniques, self-assessment, reading goal setting and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading.

The issue of language attitude is also taken up in Text 1.5, an extract from George Orwell's essay called "Politics and the English Language" (1946). The extract is preceded by the following background information on Page 12:

George Orwell, the pen name of Eric Arthur, is most famous for his novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four* and novella *Animal Farm*. In these works, just as in others about his travels in Burma and Spain, there is a common theme of anti-totalitarianism. Through various essays and novels, Orwell explored the notion of language as a political tool that can be used to manipulate the minds of the masses. As you can see from the following extract, he was an advocate of using clear and unambiguous language.

Then, an extract consisting of three paragraphs is presented (Pages 12-13) for students to read and comprehend. In the extract, Orwell advances the fight against "vague writing and sloppy English, which contaminate our thoughts". He argues that poor English, caused by political and economic factors, corrupts thoughts. The following lines from the extract illustrate Orwell's contention: "Modern English, especially written English, is full of bad habits which spread by imitation and which can be avoided if one is willing to take the necessary trouble". On the top right of Page 13, a picture of George Orwell's (1903-1950) is provided. Below the picture, Samuel Johnson (1709-84) is quoted as saying: "Tongues, like governments, have a natural tendency to degeneration". On the same page, discussion questions are included. After these questions, Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) is quoted as saying: "Time changes all things: there is no reason why language should escape this universal law". Then follow two discussion questions:

- 1) What do you think of Orwell's argument that poor language leads to a corruption of thought? Is there, as Samuel Johnson once said, a natural tendency for languages to degenerate?
- 2) The greater context of Text 1.5 is a political one. Orwell's purpose in his essay is to warn us about the effects of the inaccurate and ambiguous language used by politicians to manipulate the public and gain power. Do you find this idea relevant today?

Text 1.5, too, is intended to enable students to apply various reading techniques. First of all, the background information about George Orwell's novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four*, his novella *Animal Farm* and his essays can inspire students to read and appreciate these works. This in turn could give them the impetus to engage in continued self-initiated reading. In other words, the background, although it does not succinctly encourage students to use their prior knowledge, helps link classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading. On the other hand, in attempting to comprehend the text, students may apply the techniques of scanning, skimming, guessing meanings from context, making notes or summarizing key points, making inferences and analyzing details into important and less important. In addition, the picture on Page 13 forms a basis for discussion about George Orwell and, as stipulated in the textbook (Page xvi), creates "a memorable learning experience". Finally, the discussion questions engage students in evaluating the writer's arguments that poor language corrupts thoughts. They evaluate this argument in light of the views of Samuel Johnson and Ferdinand de Saussure, who believe that language changes are natural. This activity also gives them chance to reflect on their positions concerning the issue. That is, the discussion questions involve students in evaluative and reflective reading. Nevertheless, the reading lesson here does not explicitly train students in cooperative reading; think-aloud techniques, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

Text 1.6 deals with historical influences on the English language (Pages 13-14). It is preceded by the following background information:

People speak differently because people move around, and they have done so for hundreds of years. Take for example the use of English in the areas of the USA known as the South. By the early 1860s almost a million people had immigrated from the English isles to the USA and settled in the region. To this day, the accents and dialects of the people of the South both reflect their British roots and express a unique identity that is different from their British ancestry. As you read Text 1.6 (from a letter by an American), notice how linguistic features such as the silent 'r' at the end of words reflect the language's British ancestry. Notice also how other features distinguish it from the standard British English of today.

This opening is followed by the text of "**Letter from Artemus Ward to the Prince of Wales, early 1860s**". A historical account on the context of the letter leads to the letter itself presented on Page 14 along with a picture of Artemus' (1834-67). The letter contains several unique words such as *asseldim*, *hearn*, *printics*, *hain't*, *tooken* and *cap'n*. The text (letter) is accompanied with

discussion questions that require students to analyze the letter critically and express their views regarding the Southern accent along with its possible effects on participation in business, politics and educating children. One question that addresses this issue is: “Could someone with such an accent seriously conduct business, run for public office or educate children?”

Text 1.6 also exposes students to various aspects of reading. First of all, the background information provided in the opening, although it does not openly encourage students to use prior knowledge in comprehending the text, helps them to establish expectations of what to encounter in the text and formulate some questions that they will get answered as they read through the text. The use of the picture helps students to use graphic organizers to make sense of the text. In addition, although they are not lucidly required, students may apply the techniques of scanning, skimming, guessing meaning based on contextual clues, writing notes or summarizing key points, analyzing details into important and less important and making inferences based on available information. Besides, the discussion questions involve them in evaluative and reflective reading. However, cooperative reading, think-aloud techniques, self-assessment and reading goal setting are not given explicit attention. Besides, the text does not cogently link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. Fortunately, this issue seems to be taken care of in Text 1.7 and Text 1.8.

Text 1.7 is titled “**Coffin for head of state, FelaKuti, 1978**”. FelaKuti was a famous musician and political activist in Nigeria in the 1970s and 1980s. The text introduces FelaKuti and his works in the following lines (Page 15):

Kuti’s lyrics often spoke out against the colonial mentality that was entrenched in his country’s people and government. On his album *Zombie*, which appeared in 1977, he had accused the Nigerian government of using child soldiers. As a result, Nigerian soldiers stormed the compound where Kuti and his family lived. His mother died of injuries from this accident. In response, Kuti, together with hundreds of his ‘Movement of the People’ followers, carried the mother’s coffin to the Dodan Barrack in Lagos, where he demanded that General Olusegun Obasanjo and Lieutenant Y’arada of the Nigerian military help carry the coffin. Eventually they did. Kuti also wrote the song: “Coffin for head of state.

Then, Kuti’s song lyric is presented on Pages 15-18. The lyric contains a different variety of English (e.g. *I waka waka waka; ... him go dey shout*) reflecting regional influences on the English language. The text also contains analytical and reflective questions (Page 15) and a

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picture showing Kuti (1938-97) while singing (Page 15). The lyric denounces the effects of colonialism and criticizes the Nigerian leadership under Obasanjo's presidency for its misdoings.

Text 1.8 is also similar in its procedure with Text 1.7. It is a poem titled “**2 mothers in hdb’ playground, Arthur Yap, 1981**”. It introduces Arthur Yap and his work in the following lines (Page 20):

Arthur Yap is a revered poet in Singapore. After receiving a scholarship to study English in Britain, he returned to the National University of Singapore where he taught creative writing. His poetry usually plays with the varieties of English found in everyday Singapore. He is known for not using capital letters and for playing with punctuation.

The above opening is followed by the poem presented on Page 20. The poet does not follow capitalization rules. For example, *TV* is written as *tv* in it. The text is accompanied with a picture of Arthur Yap's (1943-2006). It also contains discussion questions which help students to analyze and reflect on the poem:

- 1) In what ways is the English these mothers speak in Text 1.8 different from the kind of English you are accustomed to speaking and hearing?
- 2) How is their use of English an example of both cultural convergence and cultural divergence?

At this point, it is necessary to summarize the reading techniques practised in Text 1.7 and Text 1.8. The opening of Text 1.7 acquaints students with Kuti's life and his works. This can initiate them to read, independently, more about his musical works and political career. Similarly, the background information about Yap and his poem in Text 1.8 can encourage students to engage in independent reading to learn more regarding the life and literary works of this poet. Thus, although the two reading lessons do not seem to give students chance to use schematic knowledge in text comprehension, they are potentially appropriate to link classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading. The provision of a further resource on Page 28 strengthens this assertion: “*Language Magazine* is a popular monthly publication with an online edition that covers a wide range of topics relating to part 1 of the course. You could use articles from the magazine as the basis of interesting classroom discussions”. The two texts also enable students to use graphic organizers in text comprehension and engage them in analytical (evaluative) reading and in reflective reading. However, the lessons here lack explicit focus on cooperative reading, think-aloud techniques, self-assessment and reading goal setting.

In sum, the reading lessons in Unit 1.2 can train students to use various reading strategies. In most cases, the lessons encourage students to read to confirm expectations or to get questions answered (both cognitive strategies). Again, in all of the lessons, although they are not explicitly required, students may use the cognitive strategies of scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, making notes of or summarizing key details, guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues, analyzing details into important and less important and making inferences based on available details. Besides, while the pictures provided in the lessons help students to use graphic organizers in comprehending texts (cognitive strategy), the discussion questions given at the ends of the lessons engage them in evaluative reading (cognitive strategy) and in reflective reading (metacognitive strategy). Furthermore, most of the reading lessons in the unit are potentially appropriate to link classroom reading without-of-class independent reading. However, all the lessons appear to lack clear focus on using prior knowledge (cognitive strategy), cooperative reading (socio-affective strategy), think-aloud technique (metacognitive strategy) and self-assessment (metacognitive strategy) and reading goal setting (metacognitive strategy).

The writing tasks in Unit 1.2 also seem to involve students in independent reading and prepare them for writing activities. For example, the Theory of Knowledge (TOK) box of written task 1 in assessment part 1 encourages students to engage in out-of class independent reading to further their understanding of linguistic imperialism and language planning. This is captured in these sentences: "... Do we have an ethical duty to prevent the spread of English? Should we use language planning to prevent languages from dying out? These are good questions for a TOK presentation. Edward Said's book *Culture and Imperialism* could provide guidance on this discussion" (Page 21). This activity helps students to engage in out-of class reading for a better understanding of the TOK issue. It also enables teachers to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. The 'tips box' (Page 22) in the same task also serves a similar function in that it helps students to self-select relevant texts and read them independently to achieve a specific purpose as required in the following excerpt:

A well-balanced English language and literature course should offer a variety of **primary** and **secondary sources**. Some texts should be examples of the English language in use (primary sources). Other texts should be articles, essays or informative texts about the English language (secondary sources). Texts 1.9 and 1.10

are both secondary sources. You should look for articles about the English language in magazines or newspapers to supplement your classroom discussion.

2.2.2.3. Features across Lessons

In this sub-section, eight reading lessons from the Grade 11 textbook used in the selected non-public school were analyzed and interpreted to see how independent reading is covered in the textbook. The analyses and interpretations included the reading lessons in Unit 1.1 and Unit 1.2 which constitute the first part of the book. The reading lessons in Unit 1.1 deal with the grand theme of English as a global language while those in Unit 1.2 focus on the main theme of varieties of English. The analyses and interpretations of each lesson in each unit were presented separately. In this section, however, the notable features that emerge from the analyses and interpretations are captured. To this end, the features identified in each unit are identified, and the common features are synthesized and summarized afterwards.

As indicated earlier, the reading activities in Unit 1.1 can enable students to practise using various reading strategies. These include the cognitive strategies of using prior knowledge or experience in text comprehension, reading texts with expectations of what to come across in them and/or to get questions answered, using graphic organizers in making sense of texts, analyzing contexts where key terms are used and evaluating the contents of texts and/or the writers' views. Nevertheless, the cognitive strategies of scanning for specific details, skim-reading for main ideas, guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues, analyzing details into important and less important, making notes or summarizing key points and making deductions based on available information (although students can use them in comprehending texts) seem to lack explicit attention. The socio-affective strategy of cooperative reading also appears to be neglected. Still, while the unit provides practice in the use of the metacognitive strategy of reflective reading, it seems to lack explicit focus on the metacognitive strategy components such as think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting. It is noteworthy that findings from classroom observations also indicated that these components (except think-aloud) were missing across the reading lessons taught by the observed non-public school teacher. Fortunately, the activities in the unit link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading: students are encouraged to self-select texts and referred to further resources.

Similarly, the reading lessons in Unit 1.2 are potentially appropriate to train students to use different reading techniques. Firstly, the lessons encourage students to practise the cognitive strategies of reading to confirm expectations or to get questions answered. Again, in each reading lesson in this unit, students are likely to exercise using the cognitive strategies of scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, making notes or summarizing key points, guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from contexts of use, analyzing information into important and less important and making inferences based on available details. Additionally, while they practise using graphic organizers in comprehending texts (cognitive strategy), the discussion questions given at the ends of the lessons engage them in evaluative reading (cognitive strategy) and in reflective reading (metacognitive strategy). Furthermore, most of the reading lessons in the unit, which lead students to further resources, can help teachers to connect in-class reading with out-of-class extensive reading. Yet, all the lessons appear to lack open focus on using prior knowledge (cognitive strategy), cooperative reading (socio-affective strategy), think-aloud technique (metacognitive strategy), self-assessment (metacognitive strategy) and reading goal setting (metacognitive strategy).

Therefore, the reading lessons analyzed from the textbook in focus incorporate a good number of reading strategies which help students to comprehend demanding texts while reading independently. More importantly, mostly, the lessons create opportunities to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. This helps teachers to scaffold independent reading and students to involve in such reading outside the classroom. The textbook states in its introduction that the course exposes students to a variety of texts: “This course offers an introduction to these core principles and concepts, which you and your teacher will want to add to, using other literary and non-literary texts” (Page v). The course also provides reading lists: prescribed list of authors (PLA), prescribed literature in translation (PLT) and free choice. This can involve students in persistent out-of-class independent reading. The provision of independent reading resources seems to intensify as the course progresses. This is especially evident in Part 3 (**Literature: texts and contexts**) and Part 4 (**Literature: critical study**). In these parts, students study useful literary concepts (the context of interpretation, approaching fictions, traditions of criticism, the context of composition, types of novel, literary movements, the mechanics of fiction, engaging the reader, plot, character and setting, conflict and theme, narrative voice, sound and structure

and imagery and figurative language). The two parts can also engage students in independent reading of a variety of literary texts.

On the other hand, cooperative reading, think-aloud technique, self-assessment and reading goal setting do not seem to be given explicit attention in the lessons (also witnessed during classroom observation in the selected non-public school). This lack of lucid attention to cooperative reading and think-aloud strategy may be due to the belief that the target students are already able to read effectively with little or no teacher intervention and without peer support. This is implicitly indicated in the introductory part of the textbook where it says: “At SL [Standard Level], you must have an effective level of proficiency, meaning you can understand demanding texts with implicit meaning” (Page v). Again, the lessons in focus, by explicating the course assessment and grading scheme in the introduction of the course (Page vii-xiii), seem to indirectly encourage students to assess their reading progress. This can enable students to evaluate their reading progress and take corrective actions when necessary. The following table summarizes the course assessment specification:

How is the course assessed?

	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3		Part 4	
Title	Language in cultural context	Language and mass communication	Literature: texts and contexts		Literature: critical study	
Focus	The English language, culture, identity, language and power, textual analysis, close reading skills	The media, journalism, propaganda, rhetoric, advertising techniques, bias, sensationalism	Genre, movement, approaches to literature, traditions of literary criticism		Literary devices (e.g. imagery, plot, conflict, characterization, setting, symbolism, irony)	
Texts	miscellaneous non-fiction	miscellaneous non-fiction	SL 1 x PLT 1 x free choice	HL 1 x PLA 1 x PLT 1 x free choice	SL 2 x PLA	HL 3 x PLA
Assessment	Written tasks 1 (SL/HL) and 2 (HL only)					
	Further oral activities: Paper 1	Part 2		Individual oral commentary		

PLA: Prescribed list of authors

PLT: Prescribed literature in translation list

Knowing the nature of the course assessment helps students to evaluate their learning strengths and weakness. That is, they see their learning progress (including their reading development) in the light of the focuses, the weights assigned to the different components (Page viii), the set

criteria (Pages iv-v), the summary of descriptors (Page ix) and the requirements indicated (Page xi) of the assessment. The course assessment also involves students in textual analysis according to their levels. At Standard Level (SL), they are required to analyze one of two texts (literary or non-literary). In their analysis, students comment on the intended audience, the purpose of their chosen text and the stylistic devices imbedded in it. At Higher Level (HL), they are required to analyze one pair from two pairs of texts (literary or non-literary). They will also comment on the intended audiences and purposes of the texts. The task also requires them to explain the significances of the stylistic devices used in the texts. Knowledge of these requirements enables students to evaluate their understanding of the respective contents and their reading progress as stipulated in the following lines (Page xv):

The one who should be most involved in your learning is you. Use the assessment criteria to assess your own performance and discuss your progress with your teacher. In the coursebook, you will see how the criteria are applied to students' work in the sample responses. If you compare your assessment of their work with the examiner's, you will become better at reflecting on your own work.

5.3. Overview of the Qualitative Findings

So far, in this chapter, the qualitative findings were analyzed and interpreted in sections 5.1 and 5.2 to respectively address the research sub-questions concerning the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction and the coverage of the same in the respective English textbooks. Section 5.1 focused on the qualitative findings from classroom observation while section 5.2 dealt with the qualitative findings from content analysis. In the former section, the data obtained from the observations of lessons taught by T₁ (teacher of English observed from a public school) and T₂ (teacher of English from a non-public school) treated separately followed by a summary of the features across the respective teacher's lessons. Likewise, the analyses and interpretations of selected reading lessons in the textbook used in public schools and the one used in a selected non-public school were presented separately. Here, too, the presentation first focused on the features of individual lessons in each textbook. Following this, it identified features across lessons within each textbook. This section provides an overview of the qualitative findings. Accordingly, the findings from the observations are synthesized, compared and contrasted to sort out features that emerge across lessons taught by the two teachers (T₁ and T₂). In the same

manner, the findings from content analyses are synthesized and cross-checked to see features across textbooks. The following paragraphs are devoted for these purposes.

The reading lessons observed in T₁'s classes appeared to be textbook-driven and focused more on what the students accomplished in reading comprehension activities than on how they accomplished them. As a result, components of cognitive strategy (scanning, skimming, note-making or summarizing, using background knowledge or experience, using images, reading a text to get questions answered or expectations confirmed and analyzing textual information into important and less important, evaluating textual message or the writer's point of view) were not given adequate explicit attention in his lessons. Besides, students' attempts to work in groups to share scarce textbooks were not systematically facilitated to enhance cooperative reading (socio-affective strategy use). Similarly, features of metacognitive strategy (think-aloud, reflective reading, self-assessment and reading goal-setting seemed) were neglected. In addition, in none of the observed lessons was in-class reading extended to outside-class independent reading. What is more, T₁'s lessons also suffered from students' inattention, off-task behaviour and noise as opposed to involved reading.

On the contrary, T₂ encouraged his students to practise using cognitive strategies (using prior knowledge or experience in text comprehension, reading texts to get questions answered or expectations confirmed, guessing meanings based on contextual clues, using footnotes in comprehension work, summarizing texts and critically evaluating the contents of a text being read). He also enabled them, at least to a limited extent, to use reflective reading (an aspect of metacognitive strategy) and, although slightly, think-aloud strategy (metacognitive strategy). Furthermore, he directly or indirectly linked classroom reading with outside-class independent reading. Another feature of T₂'s classes was that in all the reading lessons which were observed, most of the students exhibited high reading comprehension ability levels and curious involvement in their reading comprehension work. These are crucial requirements in independent reading. However, T₂ did not give adequate attention to cooperative reading (socio-affective strategy use), self-assessment and reading goal setting.

The lessons taught by T₁ and those delivered by T₂ can also be seen from the perspectives of resources, types of texts and students' involvement in the reading tasks dealt with. Throughout

the observations, T₁ entirely depended on the EFL textbook (dominated by non-literary texts) and implemented the reading lessons as they are presented in this material. Observation of some students' exercise books also showed that previous reading lessons were also based on the textbook. This can limit students' exposure only to the texts provided in their textbook rather than engaging them in extensive reading of other teacher-chosen or self-selected texts. On the other hand, in all the observed lessons, T₁'s students seemed less involved in the reading tasks (noise, inattention and off-task behaviour common). Textbooks were also scarce in class [despite the school's claimed 1:1 student-textbook ratio]. Nevertheless T₂'s lessons differed from T₁'s in resource provision and student involvement.

In all the observed lessons, T₂ distributed to each student sufficient copies of the texts of his selection. He selected mainly literary texts which helped him to involve his students in attentive and curious reading. Previous selections (done by the teacher) included '*The Law of Life*' (a short story by Jack London), '*The Raven*' (a short story by Edgar Allan Poe), '*How Much Land Does a Man Need?*' (a short story by Leo Tolstoy), '*Any Human to Another*' (a poem by Countee Cullen), '*A Summer's Reading*' (a story by Bernard Malamud) and '*The Masque of the Red Death*' (a short story by Edgar Allan Poe). This seems the result of his belief in the role of literature in yielding engaged and sustained reading: "Literature is irresistible", he said in a casual conversation about text selection.

To integrate, T₁'s and T₂'s lessons generally differed in the following features. Firstly, T₁'s lessons were textbook-driven (dominated by non-literary texts) and product-oriented which did not focus much on strategy training. On the contrary, T₂'s lessons were process-oriented (based on a selection of a variety of texts) characterized by a relatively better focus on strategy training. Secondly, T₁ failed to connect in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading while T₂ directly and indirectly created linkage between classroom readings and out-side class readings. Thirdly, T₁'s classes were influenced by scarcity of resource (the textbook), noise, inattention and off-task behaviour which resulted in poor reading involvement and low reading success. Oppositely, T₂'s classes were characterized by availability of sufficient resources (handouts), involved and curious reading and higher reading achievement (success in doing comprehension tasks). In the absence of sufficient focus on reading strategy training, involved and curious

reading, adequate resources and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class extended reading, fostering independent reading can be hardly successful. Therefore, it is possible to argue that T_2 tried to inherently scaffold independent reading in a better way than T_1 did.

When it comes to the findings from content analysis, firstly, although asking questions of a text, using schematic knowledge in text comprehension and evaluative reading are incorporated to a lesser extent, cognitive strategy is covered fairly well in the textbook used in public schools. Specifically, using graphic organizers to make sense of texts, guessing meanings of new words from contextual clues, scanning texts to locate specific details and skim-reading to work out main ideas receive rather good coverage in this textbook. In addition, whereas making notes or summarizing key points, drawing inferences based on available information and analyzing details into important and less important are not often lucidly emphasized, they can come into effect as students read along the passages in the textbook. The textbook used in the non-public school also covers components of cognitive strategy in a similar manner. The coverage of using prior knowledge in text comprehension, reading texts to get expectations confirmed or questioned answered, using graphic organizers to make sense of texts, analyzing contexts in which key terms occur, scanning texts for specific details, skimming texts for main ideas and evaluating the contents of texts or the writers' views seems relatively sufficient. In this textbook, too, making notes or summarizing key points, drawing inferences and discriminating important from less important details, which are not given explicit attention, can come into application as students read along. Thus, the two textbooks appear fairly appropriate to train students in the use of elements of cognitive strategy which help them to deal with challenging texts during independent reading.

Secondly, the textbook used in public schools provides a moderately good coverage of socio-affective strategy (e.g. pair or group works in the first lessons in Unit 1 and Unit 2). If utilized effectively, this textbook can thus train students in the use of socio-affective strategy by engaging them in cooperative meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking and shared responsibility handling. However, this dimension of reading strategy does not receive explicit attention in the textbook used in the non-public school. This may result from an assumption that Grade 11 students in this school are already able to read effectively without support from other people.

However, engaging students in cooperative reading can be necessary in this context, too, to

facilitate joint extraction of meaning, reciprocal thinking and mutual responsibility, through the discussion-based approach, (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand & Gamoran 2003:686), which empower students to read texts with little or no teacher intervention.

Thirdly, while the metacognitive strategy of reflective reading is minimally covered in the public school textbook, it is given better coverage in the one used in the non-public school. However, the metacognitive techniques of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting generally seem to lack explicit focus in both textbooks. Yet, while self-assessment is totally overlooked in the public school textbook, it appears to be indirectly addressed in the non-public school textbook which includes the course assessment scheme in its introduction (although this aspect of metacognitive strategy is not explicitly incorporated in the specific lessons). This helps students to gauge their learning progress (including their reading development) in the light of the assessment requirements.

Fourthly, nearly all the lessons analyzed from the public textbook fail to explicitly link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. On the contrary, in most cases, the lessons analyzed from the non-public textbook link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. This helps teachers to scaffold independent reading and students to involve in continued self-initiated reading outside the classroom. In this case, other things being constant, Grade 11 students in non-public schools can have better exposure to the practice of independent reading than Grade 11 students in public schools. The actual classroom lessons in the observed non-public school also appeared to foster independent reading through linkage between in-class readings and outside-class extended reading.

Overall, whereas both the public school and the non-public school textbooks provide fairly good coverage of components of cognitive strategy, evaluative reading seems to receive more emphasis in the latter than in the former. On the other hand, the textbook used in public schools trains students in the use of socio-affective strategy which lacks explicit coverage in the textbook used in the non-public school. In addition, both textbooks attempt to engage students in reflective reading, but this aspect of metacognitive strategy is given more coverage in the one used in the non-public school. However, while both textbooks do not incorporate the metacognitive techniques of think-aloud and reading goal setting, the non-public school textbook seems to

slightly address self-assessment (an aspect of metacognitive strategy). Finally, unlike the textbook used in public schools, the one in use in the selected non-public school creates linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading: potentially better to scaffold independent reading. The findings thus indicate fairly good coverage of cognitive strategies in both textbooks (with slight differences), better focus on social strategy in the public school textbook and rather better coverage of metacognitive strategy in the non-public textbook which also links in-class reading with outside-class independent reading.

5.4. Conclusion

This chapter focused on the qualitative findings in two sections. The first section dealt with the qualitative findings from classroom observation which answered the research sub-question regarding the inclusion of independent reading components in reading instruction. In this section, the data generated from the observations of two teachers (one selected from a public school and the other selected from a non-public school), pseudo-named as T₁ and T₂, were analyzed and interpreted. Firstly, the lessons taught by the two teachers were treated separately in sub-sections 5.1.2 and 5.1.2 respectively. However, the results were integrated in section 5.3 to identify features across the lessons delivered by the two teachers. The findings from classroom observation generally indicated that the non-public school teacher (T₂) demonstrated better attempts to scaffold independent reading than the public school teacher (T₁) did.

The focus on the qualitative findings from content analysis, which was taken up in the second section of the unit, followed the presentation of the qualitative findings from classroom observation. In the second section, reading lessons selected from the Grade 11 English textbook used in public schools and another English textbook in use in a chosen non-public school were analyzed and interpreted. Here, too, the reading lessons selected from the public school textbook and those taken from the non-public school textbook were dealt with separately. However, the results were synthesized, compared and contrasted in section 5.3 to sort out features across textbooks. The next chapter, Chapter 6, focuses on the discussion of the quantitative and the qualitative findings.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

6.0. Introduction

Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 presented the analyses and interpretations of the data collected through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire, independent reading follow-up, classroom observation and content analysis. Since the data gathered via reading comprehension test, questionnaire and independent reading follow-up were quantitative; they were analyzed using quantitative techniques of percentage, mean, standard deviation, range and Mann Whitney U test (Chapter 4). On the other hand, the data collected through classroom observation and textbook content analysis required qualitative analyses which employed the techniques of interactional analysis and content analysis respectively (Chapter 5). The analyses and interpretations in the quantitative component of the study were presented under the labels of reading comprehension ability, attitude towards learning English and reading English texts, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. On the other side, the analyses and interpretations in the quantitative component were treated under the labels of inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction and coverage of independent reading in Grade 11 English textbooks.

This chapter builds on the preceding chapters by discussing the findings of the study in connection with the research sub-questions and the relevant literature. That is, it reiterates and synthesizes the major findings and backs them up with support literature. Firstly, discussion is made on the quantitative findings (section 6.1). This is followed by the discussion of the qualitative findings (section 6.2). The chapter then ends with a brief conclusion which captures the main issues covered (section 6.3).

6.1. Discussion of the Quantitative Findings

The quantitative component of this study includes findings regarding reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in English, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access

to reading resources. Therefore, the discussion in this section begins with the findings pertinent to the study participants' reading comprehension ability levels and proceeds to their attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources.

6.1.1. Reading Comprehension Ability

Students cannot engage in successful independent reading unless they have adequate reading comprehension abilities to enable them to understand texts that are appropriate for their levels. Therefore, in conducting studies on independent reading among a certain group of students, it is useful to assess their reading comprehension ability levels. Accordingly, the reading comprehension ability levels of the participants of this study were assessed using a pretested reading comprehension tests. The assessment revealed that students in public schools in Ethiopia achieved a lower mean score (Mean = 41.43). This is lower than the average result expected in many classroom and other types of achievement tests (average = 50). In this case, it can be hard to expect these students to read more challenging texts and comprehend them sufficiently. This in turn can hinder their involvement in independent reading of various texts for a variety of purposes. Contrary to this, the reading comprehension ability levels of non-public school students were found better with a mean score of 69.64. The discussion of the findings pertinent to reading comprehension ability levels is made in line with the respective research sub-question, namely:

What are the reading comprehension ability levels of Grade 11 students in public vs. non-public schools in Ethiopia?

Public school students' poor reading ability levels can be attributed to a host of factors one of which is their reading background in earlier grades. This is attested by the findings of an Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) survey conducted on public schools in Ethiopia. In 2010, a mother tongue EGRA was conducted with Grade 2 and Grade 3 pupils in six languages (Afan Oromo, Amharic, Harari, Sidama, Somali and Tigrigna) in eight of the 11 administrative units (nine regions and two city administrations) in Ethiopia (Smith, Stone & Comings 2012:7). The assessment showed that only 5% of the pupils in the studied public schools achieved at or above

the fluency benchmark (60 words per minute). The low mother tongue reading proficiency among these pupils can be an obstacle in their later reading achievement and reading habits in the English language since reading skills and habits can transfer from one language to another under certain conditions (Morvay 2015:26).

The EGRA study in Ethiopia was not confined to mother tongue literacy. In 2011, the Ministry of Education (MOE), in collaboration with the Teach English for Life Learning (TELL) Programme, implemented a nationwide English EGRA baseline assessment. The assessment covered all the nine regions and the two city administrations (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa) (Smith, Stone & Comings 2012:9-10). In the assessment, pupils who had completed Grades 2, 3 and 4 ($N = 19,603$) were tested. The results revealed that about two-thirds of the testees did not have the knowledge and skills expected of the minimum learning competencies of the curriculum for each grade. Based on this finding, the study concluded that English literacy is at least as poor as mother tongue literacy throughout Ethiopia. Thus, the pupils' low early grade EFL reading can result in poor reading ability in later grades which hampers their involvement in independent reading of various English texts.

The result of this study concerning the participants' reading comprehension ability levels also revealed that the reading comprehension score of non-public school students was significantly greater ($Mdn = 70$) than the one for public school students ($Mdn = 40$), $U = 61,183$, $Z = 15.271$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 376$, $P = .000$). In other words, a statistically significant difference was observed between students in non-public schools and those in public schools, in favour of the former, in reading comprehension achievement. This difference can be the result of discrepancies in socio-economic status, home-based support, previous learning experience, reading strategy use and reading motivation between the two groups of students. However, the focus of this study was the implication of the participants' reading comprehension abilities for their practice of independent reading in English which can also be influenced by mother tongue education. In this case, effective reading instruction in any language can also lead to good comprehension and independent reading abilities in English. To return to our point, other things being constant, non-public school students, by virtue of their better reading comprehension abilities, seem to have a better potential to engage in independent reading than public school students. This implies that there is a need for more scaffolding of reading comprehension in public schools since scaffolded

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instruction eases student learning and facilitates student independence (Huggins & Edwards 2011:31).

To put the matter short, the low reading comprehension ability levels among public school students should be an issue of focus. Poor reading ability can result in negative reading attitude and lack of reading perseverance. In addition, struggling readers may not have permanent intrinsic motivation to read. Their reading goal can be one that is grade-driven which is liable to cessation with the culmination of a study programme. Such readers are teacher-dependent readers who cannot engage in life-long independent reading. Therefore, it is useful to help them to improve their reading comprehension abilities through scaffolded reading instruction which involves training in the use of effective reading strategies. On the other hand, the fact that non-public school students outperformed their public school counterparts in reading comprehension achievement suggests that there are practices that public schools can learn from non-public schools to improve their students' reading competence.

6.1.2. Attitude towards Learning English and Reading English Texts

Students' attitude towards learning a new language and reading materials written in this language plays a crucial role in their reading behaviour and performance. Attitude shapes students' reading behaviour and achievement by influencing their reading engagement and perseverance. Coupled with appropriate motivation, positive attitude thus enhances students' English language learning proficiency and effectiveness (Abdullah & Shah 2014:213), including their involvement in independent reading. Thus, the attitudes of the participants towards learning English and reading texts written in this language were investigated in this study. The participants were asked to respond to six items of the questionnaire concerning their attitude towards learning English as a school subject, their views about using another foreign language (instead of English) as a medium of high school instruction, their feelings about reading English books as a pastime activity, their preference of reading English texts (fictions, newspapers or magazines) to playing games, the satisfaction they get when they read such texts and their general beliefs about reading English texts. The intention of measuring attitude in this regard was to answer partly the research sub-question stated as:

What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?

The findings revealed that the mean attitude scores for both public school students (Mean = 3.17) and non-public school students (Mean = 3.5) were on the positive side of the measurement scale (see Appendix II). This suggests that the students in both school categories had positive attitudes towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language. Based on this, one can infer that they had positive attitudes towards the English speaking community and the use of English for instructional purposes. Studies conducted in other settings also documented similar findings. For example, a survey carried out by Tahaine and Daana in 2013 on undergraduates majoring in English at Al Balqa' Applied University-Princess Alia University College in Jordan reported highly positive attitudes of the sampled students ($n = 184$) towards English, the members of the English speaking community and the learning of English as a foreign language. Another study conducted by Soleimani and Hanafi in 2013 found that the overall mean score of attitude towards learning the English language among Iranian medical students was above average (Mean = 65.4). This study also reported that male and female students significantly differed (males having a higher mean score than females) in their attitudes towards learning English.

However, a study conducted in Puduchery Region in India (Gajalakshimi 2013) came up with a finding that slightly differs from the finding being reported in the current study. In Gajalkshim's study, 600 high school students (XV-standard students according to that particular context) were surveyed. The study found that these students generally had average attitude towards learning the English language. Gajalkshim's study also ascertained that attitude towards learning English differed significantly with school locality (rural vs. urban), school ownership (government vs. private) and students' gender (male vs. female). Accordingly, while students who attended urban schools had higher mean attitude score than those who attended rural schools, government school students had higher mean attitude score than locally owned private school students. Gender wise, male students had a higher mean attitude score than female students. In other words, Gajalkshim's findings confirm the findings of a study conducted by Konya in the Turkish EFL context in 2012. Konya's study revealed that high school (Grade 9 and Grade 12) students had moderate levels of reading attitude. It also reported that high school students' reading attitudes

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differed significantly according to gender, grade level, school type, parental educational level and household economic status.

The positive attitude scores discussed in the preceding paragraph can be ascribed to the status English enjoys as the language of global communication. The fact that English is the language of global politics, diplomacy, media, technology, commerce and tourism (Crystal 1997:111) can initiate people to want to integrate with members of the English speaking community. This could cause intrinsic urge in students to master the language and enjoy reading its literature. On the contrary, the use of English in the above spheres of life globally may mean more employment opportunities for people who have a better handle on the language. This can give learners extrinsic reasons to like to become better users of English. In both cases, the positive attitude towards English, its use as a medium of instruction, the learning of it as a school subject and reading its literature can help students, particularly the participants of this study, to develop the habit of independent reading. On the other hand, the attitude scores indicated in the above paragraph generally ranged from moderately positive to highly positive. Political, socio-demographic, contextual (EFL vs. ESL) and academic factors might have brought about this slight difference which can be a candidate for further research.

Attitudinal differences by school locality, grade level, parental education, gender and household economic status were not addressed in the current study which investigated attitude along with reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources among Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in the Ethiopian context. Concerning attitudinal differences, the findings revealed that the attitude scores were significantly greater for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.50$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 3.17$), $U = 39992.5$, $Z = 4.269$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). That means, a statistically significant difference was observed, in favour of non-public school students, between the two groups of students in attitude score. The higher attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language exhibited among non-public school students may be the result of their better exposure to the language. This can help them to develop intrinsic interest to read English texts which in effect can have a positive impact on their practice of independent reading.

To sum up, the attitudes of the students in both school categories towards learning English as a school subject and reading English texts and the difference between the two groups on these issues have implications for independent reading. Accordingly, both public and non-public school students, who had positive attitudes towards learning English and reading its literature, may engage in independent reading of English texts according to their goals and preferences. However, the statistically significant difference, favouring non-public school students, can suggest that Grade 11 students in non-public schools could be better than their public school counterparts in their involvement in independent reading of English texts. Yet, these claims should be evaluated in relation to the students' reading motivation since positive attitude alone may not presuppose involvement in independent reading. Finally, while the positive attitude towards learning English and reading its literature among the participants of this study is in agreement with the findings of some previous studies, attitudinal differences by school locality, grade level, parental education, gender and household economic status can be topics for future research in the Ethiopian context.

6.1.3. Reading Motivation

As discussed in the literature review, motivation has a profound impact on students' involvement in independent reading. Obviously, motivation energizes students to engage and persevere in reading texts according to their purposes and choices. Likewise, since appropriately motivated students can create their own reading opportunities, they do not overly depend on their teachers. These students have a wide range of personal reasons for reading such as curiosity, involvement, social interchange and emotional satisfaction. In this study, reading motivation was treated according to its dimensions of reading goal and reading self-efficacy. Reading goal subsumes intrinsic motivation (curiosity, involvement and importance of reading), extrinsic motivation (grades, competition and recognition) and social motivation (social purpose for reading) while reading self-efficacy embraces perceived reading ability and challenge-facing (risk-taking). The findings discussed in this section were used to answer the second part of the research sub-question formulated as:

What are the attitudes along with types of motivation of Grade 11 students as regards independent EFL reading?

With regard to intrinsic motivation, the findings demonstrated that public school students had mean scores lower than the expected mean (3.0) on the curiosity and involvement components while non-public school students had mean scores above the expected mean (statistically significant differences in favour of non-public schools observed). However, both public and non-public school students had comparable positive views on the importance of reading. On the extrinsic motivation sub-scale, on the other hand, students in both school categories registered positive scores on the measures of grade, competition and recognition. Nevertheless, while both groups had comparable inclinations towards competition, non-public school students had significantly better scores for the extrinsic goals of grade and recognition. Concerning social motivation, public school students had a greater mean score than non-public school students (statistically significant difference in favour of public school students identified).

The findings thus suggest that non-public school students had more intrinsic (curiosity and involvement) and extrinsic (grades and recognition) goals for reading than public school students. From intrinsic motivation point of view, this means that they were better in curious reading (reading to quench one's curiosity to learn new things) and involved reading (reading with immersion) which help them to develop independent reading habits for "... the more one reads, the better reader one becomes" (Gambrell 2011:5). On the extrinsic side, non-public school students also appeared more serious about obtaining good grades (which is normally possible through reading) and demonstrated more recognition-seeking behaviour (reading texts with the intention to get recognition from teachers, parents and other people). These can be the results of stronger competition among non-public school students for grades and recognition than among their public school counterparts. On the contrary, public school students excelled their non-public school counterparts in their score of social motivation (reading cooperatively with others). Here, it can be expected that their social purpose for reading, if put into effect, can help public school students to learn and apply components of socio-affective strategy more efficiently. Therefore, this finding should be interpreted in relation to the findings about socio-affective strategy use (see sub-section 6.1.4).

Studies established that reading motivation is a multi-faceted issue. For example, Komiyama (2013) found that adult English for Academic Purpose (EAP) students' (in the USA) reading motivation had intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions. Similarly, a study conducted by Kim and Choi

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(2014) identified that Korean high school students' ESL motivation was affected by several factors suggesting the multidimensionality of reading motivation. However, based on the findings of several studies (e.g. Gottfried 1990; Wigfield & Guthrie 1997; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Von Secker 2000; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon & Deci 2004; Guthrie *et al.*, 2007), Gambrell (2011:175) reports that intrinsic motivation can result in better reading achievement than extrinsic motivation. Intrinsically motivated students engage in reading for the satisfaction they acquire from it, not for temporary external rewards. Thus, they can become life-long independent readers for the desire to read which emerges from within is likely to develop into an enduring habit. Accordingly, non-public school students who possess better intrinsic motivation are likely to become better independent readers. This can be one of the reasons that helped them to involve in independent reading with a better frequency (see sub-section 6.1.5). On the other hand, public school students' better social motivation can enable them to set mutual reading goals, give and receive feedback, monitor their reading comprehension and evaluate their reading progress in their cooperative reading efforts (Schrader, Stuber & Widwick 2012:15). These practices can help them to progressively move away from the direct control of the teacher and develop independent reading habits.

In this study, reading self-efficacy (the second component of reading motivation), was measured according to its sub-scales of perceived reading ability and challenge-facing (risk-taking). In this regard, it was found that public and non-public school students had positive perceptions about their reading abilities. As a result, no statistically significant difference was observed between the two groups of students on scores of perceived reading ability. However, public school students' mean score (2.93) on the measure of challenge-facing (risk-taking) was below the expected mean (3.0) whereas non-public school students' mean score (3.39) on the same measure was above this expected mean (statistically significant difference in favour of non-public school students observed). This suggests that non-public school students had positive perceived reading abilities and were significantly more challenge-facing (risk-taking) while their public school counterparts had positive perceived reading abilities but appeared challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing). Therefore, it appears that non-public school students, by virtue of their positive perceived reading abilities accompanied with challenge-facing (risk-taking) behaviours, seem in a better situation to develop independent reading habits. On the contrary, public school

students' challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing) tendency seems to make their reading self-efficacy incomplete and can hinder their claimed perceived reading abilities from enhancing their involvement in independent reading.

Reading self-efficacy plays an important role in students' reading behaviour. That is why reading self-efficacy becomes an area that needs addressing in efforts to "find better and more specific ways to meet the learning needs of students with reading difficulties" (Ferrara 2005:37). Self-efficacious students participate actively in learning activities, put considerable endeavours into their learning, sustain their learning efforts, readily face challenges in the learning process and achieve better results (Zimmerman 2000:86). Conversely, low self-efficacious students refrain from participating in learning activities, do not make meaningful efforts in their learning, avoid challenging tasks and eventually obtain poor academic results. As this study found, non-public school students had positive perceived reading abilities and were more challenge-facing (risk-taking). This could have positively contributed to their better achievement in the reading comprehension test (see section 6.1) and their better persistence in independent reading (see section 6.5). However, public school students, who had claimed positive perceived reading abilities but were challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing), are likely to achieve low results in reading comprehension tasks (see section 6.1) and poorly persist in independent reading (see section 6.5).

In short, the following findings stand out regarding reading motivation. Firstly, it was found that non-public school students had more intrinsic (curiosity and involvement) and extrinsic (grades and recognition) goals for reading than public school students. On the extrinsic motivation dimension, non-public school students appeared to be more serious about obtaining good grades (which is normally possible through reading) and to demonstrate more recognition-seeking tendency (reading texts to get recognition from teachers, parents and other people). Secondly, public school students excelled their non-public school counterparts in their scores of social motivation (social purpose for reading). Thirdly, non-public school students, due to their positive perceived reading abilities accompanied with challenge-facing (risk-taking) behaviours, seem in a better footing to develop independent reading skills than public school students.

At this point, it is important to re-emphasize that the higher intrinsic motivation, coupled with the better extrinsic motivation, appears to put non-public school students in a better position to

develop independent reading practices by exposing them to a variety of readings. This is because the double advantage of possessing both types of motivation can equip them to read with different purposes: to satisfy the intrinsically driven needs (curiosity and involvement) and reinforcement-triggered goals (grade and recognition). Nevertheless, these students lack social motivation for reading which could engage them in cooperative reading and slowly distance them from direct teacher control. Higher reading comprehension ability could have equipped non-public school students with the confidence to tackle challenging reading tasks individually. Yet, it would be better if they possessed social motivation and practised cooperative reading which yields deeper and more complex comprehension (Applebee, Judith, Langer, Nystrand & Gamoran 2003:169).

6.1.4. Reading Strategy Use

Researchers (e.g. Garner & Bochman 2004) indicate that independent reading needs application of effective reading strategies. This is because strategies enable students to tackle challenges faced in reading texts in the absence of teacher support. Therefore, they should know and properly apply metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective reading strategies. Metacognitive strategies help students to take responsibility for the development of their own reading skills by empowering them to make personal decisions and choices. Cognitive strategies enable them to deal with specific reading comprehension tasks effectively. On the other hand, socio-affective strategies help them to maximize learning by interacting with classmates, teachers and other people. Thus, if students become effective reading strategy users, they will benefit in independent reading situations. In this study, reading strategy use among the participants was investigated in terms of its sub-scales of metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and socio-affective strategy with the aim of answering the following research sub-question:

What reading strategies do Grade 11 students predominantly use which help them to develop independent reading skills?

The findings about metacognitive strategy use revealed that while the mean score for public school students (3.11) was only a little higher than the expected mean (3.0), the mean score for non-public school students (3.29) was not much higher than the one for public school students. This shows that both groups were average metacognitive strategy users although non-public

school students were slightly better in this case. The results also indicated that cognitive strategy use among both group of students was better than metacognitive strategy use. However, students in non-public schools had a higher mean score than those in public schools in the score of cognitive strategy use; a statistically significant difference was also observed in this regard between the two groups of students. Regarding socio-affective reading strategy use, the mean score for public school students (2.71) and the one for non-public school students (2.63) were both below the expected mean (3.0) although the former had a slightly higher mean score than the latter.

Thus, metacognitive strategy use among students in both school categories was not much above average with a little better application of this strategy among students in non-public schools. That is, the results suggest average use (among students in both school categories) of components of metacognitive strategy such as setting reading goals, deciding on reading venue and schedule, using reading strategies selectively (think-aloud), evaluating one's reading progress and planning corrective actions when comprehension ability fails. On the other hand, while both groups were good users of cognitive techniques such as making notes or summarizing important points, guessing meanings of new words from context, using comprehension aides (e.g. bold writings, underlined parts, illustrations and figures), relating textual information with one's background knowledge and analyzing details into important and less important, evaluative reading was particularly low among public school students. In fact, non-public school students were significantly better than their public school counterparts in cognitive strategy use. These facts about metacognitive and cognitive strategies use can have background reasons relating to reading instruction and textbook-related factors (see sub-sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2).

The lowest results were observed concerning socio-affective reading strategy use. In this case, public school and non-public school students were found to be below-average users of components of this strategy. However, the difference favouring public school students between the two groups of students in this regard was not statistically significant. This implies that both public and non-public school students were poor users of components of socio-affective strategy (discussing with their English language teachers and colleagues about the English books they have read, doing reading comprehension assignments cooperatively with colleagues and commenting on their colleagues' comprehension works). Thus, if public school students do not

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enhance their socio-affective strategy use, they will hardly be able to achieve their social motivation which was higher than that of non-public school students (see sub-section 6.1.3).

The issue of poor socio-affective strategy use among public school students can also be seen from the perspective of cooperative learning that is receiving considerable attention in Ethiopia. In the current Ethiopian educational context, cooperative learning is being implemented through ‘one-to-five cooperative learning groups’ scheme. The Ministry of Education and the respective institutions are putting substantial efforts to realize this scheme by ensuring its implementation in all classrooms at all levels of education. Accordingly, teachers are required to organize their students into groups consisting of five students one of whom is a leader. The leader is entrusted with the responsibility of coordinating cooperative learning while each member has to contribute to the achievement of learning goals. This joint engagement is believed to promote what Sharan and Shachar (1988:9) refer to as positive interdependence, individual accountability, group and interpersonal skills and face-to-face interaction. Positive interdependence enables students to set mutual goals, support each other, exchange feedback and share learning strategies. However, the results discussed above unveiled that Grade 11 students in public schools were not improving their use of socio-affective strategies. If the one-to-five cooperative learning approach does not foster socio-affective strategy use in reading, it hardly improves the learning of other language skills and contents in other subjects since the majority of school learning takes place through reading. In this case, the implementation and effectiveness of the one-to-five learning scheme should be researched.

Studies have documented that reading strategy instruction improves students’ reading behaviours and achievements. For example, a study carried out in Turkey (Adıgüzel & Gürses 2013) examined students' opinions regarding reading strategies instruction based on cognitive academic language learning approach. The participants of this study were a sample of higher education students studying French as a Second Language (FSL). The study mainly focused on metacognitive and cognitive strategies and found that the participants had positive attitudes towards the effect of reading strategies instruction on their reading skills, awareness of reading strategies and reading strategy use. Similarly, a study was conducted to investigate the relationship between strategy-based reading instruction, the process of learning second language-based reading strategies and English reading achievement among science and technology

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students in Thai University (Akkakoson 2013). The study revealed that instruction on reading strategies had a positive relationship with students' achievement in a post-course standardized English test. In a related manner, a study undertaken by Nahatame (2014), which investigated predictive inference generation (cognitive strategy) in ESL learning at Japanese universities, revealed that students generated better inferences in reading only when instructions focused on prediction strategies.

To wind up, the findings of the studies mentioned above imply that using metacognitive and cognitive strategies improves students' reading comprehensions achievement. Socio-affective strategy also plays a significant role in enhancing students' reading motivation and achievement. As Gambrell (2011:175) puts it: "Students are motivated to read when they have opportunities to socially interact with others about the texts they are reading". This is because social interaction allows students to engage in productive discussions with others about the materials they have read (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand & Gamoran, 2003:688). However, the findings of this study of independent reading among Grade 11 students in Ethiopian schools unveiled that while the students in focus used aspects of cognitive strategy well, their uses of components of metacognitive and socio-affective strategies were average and low respectively. This obviously has a negative implication for their involvement in independent reading which requires a repertoire of reading comprehensions strategies. Seen in aggregate, non-public school students were found better users of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies. This can be one of the factors that helped them to outperform public school students in the reading comprehension test and excel them in scores of persistence in independent reading (see sub-sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.5).

6.1.5. Persistence in Independent Reading

As indicated in the literature review (sub-section 2.2.1.4), reading has a behavioural dimension. Accordingly independent reading requires regular involvement since persistent practice "helps students to become better readers" (Gambrell 2011:174). This implies that students should practise persistent reading which helps them to evolve as life-long independent readers. It is established that even people with adequate reading ability, positive attitude towards reading and appropriate reading motivation may not become independent readers if they do not have consistent self-initiated reading behaviour. It follows that classroom reading should be connected

with out-of-class self-initiated reading of various texts such as fictions, magazines and newspapers (Hollingworth & Drake 2012:74-75). From this standpoint, one can argue that the persistence with which students engage in reading of such texts should be addressed in studies of independent reading. With this rationale, in this study, the frequency of engagement in independent reading of English fictions, magazines and newspapers among Grade 11 students across public and non-public students was surveyed to address the research sub-question formulated as:

How persistently do Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools practise independent EFL reading?

In the survey, the participants were asked to rate their persistence in independent reading (every day, every week, every month, when schools close for vacation, when English language teachers order them to read, just when they access such texts). The results showed that the mean scores on this variable were 2.54 and 3.17 for public school and non-public school students respectively. That is, the mean score for public school students was below the expected mean (3.0) while the mean score for non-public school students was a little above the same expected mean. This suggests that while students in public schools engaged in independent reading infrequently, those in non-public schools engaged in such reading with a better frequency.

A statistically significant difference was also observed between the two groups of students in scores of persistence in independent reading. Specifically, the scores of persistence in independent reading were significantly greater (showing considerable more frequent practice) for non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.17$) than for public school students ($Mdn = 2.50$), $U = 45,836.5$, $Z = 7.516$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .000$). The findings from the independent reading follow-up also appeared to support this conclusion (see Table 4.7). These findings imply that students in non-public schools practised independent reading better than students in public schools did. Here, the discrepancies between public school students and non-public school students in reading comprehension abilities, attitude towards learning English and reading English texts, reading strategy use and reading motivation could have contributed to the difference between the two groups of students in scores of persistence in independent reading.

Overall, the quantitative findings unveiled that public school and non-public students, respectively, had low and a little above average mean scores of persistence in independent reading. This means that while public school students engaged in independent reading with poor persistence, non-public school students were better in this regard. Of course, there can be possible reasons for the lower persistence in independent reading among public school students. Firstly, inadequate teacher scaffolding of independent reading (see sub-section 6.2.1) and the poor potential of the English textbook in leading students to out-of-class reading (see sub-section 6.2.2) could have hindered them from practising regular independent reading. Secondly, the low reading comprehension abilities they possessed [determined with reading comprehension test] might have negatively affected their involvement in independent reading. In addition, most students in public schools come from low income families. This can also have some consequences on their reading behaviours. On the one hand, students from such families may not afford to purchase independent reading resources. On the other hand, they could engage in income-earning activities and/or household chores which take up their independent reading time: time is an important factor in all academic activities including independent reading (Kulich 2008:337).

6.1.6. Access to Reading Resources

Students are initiated to read when they have access to a wide range of relevant and engaging texts (Glasswell & Ford 2010:59; Mol & Bus 2011:267). As such, students who have positive attitudes towards learning a new language and reading its literature, a repertoire of effective reading strategies and appropriate motivational orientations to read cannot engage in persistent independent reading if they do not have exposure to a wide variety of texts. In this study, data on students' access to reading resources were generated through seven items of the questionnaire. The first five items dealt with access to English books, fictions, magazines or newspapers in libraries (school or public), through purchasing and on the internet (from computers or mobile phones). The sixth item inquired whether the participants thought obtaining such resources was difficult while the seven was aimed to find out if they mainly depended on the Grade 11 textbook for their English reading. This was done with the intention to answer the following research sub-question:

To what extent do Grade 11 students have access to a variety of independent EFL reading resources?

The findings indicated that the mean scores of access to reading resources for public and non-public school students were 3.0 and 3.13 respectively. That is, the mean score for public school students was equal to the expected mean (3.0), 'cannot decide', while the one for non-public school students (3.13) was a little above the expected mean. This implies that students in public schools did not seem to have a clear idea about their access to reading resources. Or, it can be deduced that their access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers was not satisfactory enough. On the other hand, the result implies that students in non-public schools, whose mean score was a little above average, had a slightly better access to such resources. However, the difference between the two groups in respect to access to reading resources was not statistically significant.

Accordingly, the non-parametric test revealed that the scores of access to reading resources did not differ significantly between non-public school students ($Mdn = 3.07$) and public school students ($Mdn = 3.14$), $U = 34,694.5$, $Z = 1.467$, $n_{non-public} = 181$, $n_{public} = 375$, $P = .142$). Public school students' limited access to reading resources could have contributed to their inadequate persistence in independent reading of English fictions, magazines and newspapers (see sub-section 6.1.5). The problem gets worse when students do not have enough reading materials in the classroom during reading lessons. Even the English textbook was scarcely available during observations of reading lessons in the selected public school (see sub-section 6.2.1).

Non-public school students' access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers was also below what one might expect. Their mean score (3.13), which is slightly greater than the mean score for public school students (3.0), implies that their access to such resources was not quite promising. Since most students in non-public schools come from high income families, they have better possession of computers and mobile phone technologies through which they can access electronic texts. It is also possible to expect them to be able to afford to purchase independent reading resources. However, the finding mentioned above suggests that these students, too, did not have much access to English books, fiction, magazines and newspapers. What can be inferred from this finding is that independent reading was not a priority for this

group of students. Actually, the extent to which socio-economic status affects students' involvement in independent EFL reading should be researched in the Ethiopian context.

Studies have shown that students are more encouraged to read when they have access to a wide range of texts. For example, Neuman and Celano (2001) studied access to print in low and middle income communities in four neighborhoods in Philadelphia, USA. This study reported inequity in the number of resources, choice and quality of materials available, public spaces and places for reading plus amount and quality of literacy materials in public institutions, schools and local public libraries in the community in focus. Based on this finding, the researchers stressed that variations in patterns of early literacy development can be affected by the ways in which print is organized in communities. Similarly, Kim (2004) conducted a study to explore a) whether reading summer books improved fall reading proficiency, and b) whether access to books increased the quantity of summer reading. The study was carried out in 18 ethnically diverse elementary schools in a mid-Atlantic state. This study reported that children who had easy access to books read more. Based on this and other research findings, Gambrell (2011:173) emphasizes: "Motivation to read and reading achievement are higher when the classroom environment is rich in reading materials and includes books from an array of genres and text types, magazines, the Internet, resource materials, and real-life documents". These two studies focused on early grade reading in English as a first language context. However, the findings apply to the Ethiopian context where struggling high school EFL readers should have exposure to a wide variety of English texts that can engage them in independent reading.

To conclude, contrary to the above research findings and Gambrell's emphasis, this study found that public school students had less satisfactory access to reading resources; the situation among non-public school students was not also much encouraging. Particularly, public school students' less satisfactory access to independent reading texts, accompanied with product-focused and text-driven reading instruction (see sub-section 6.2.1), is likely to hinder their involvement in independent EFL reading. Inadequacies of the English language textbook in its coverage of independent reading components can also aggravate the problem (see sub-section 6.2.2). On the other hand, given the fact that most non-public school students come from high income families, one can expect that they have considerable access to print and electronic texts for their independent reading. However, it was found that their access to such resources was not much

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higher than average. This can imply that they were satisfied, at least to an extent, with classroom readings that may be based on teachers' selections of texts.

6.2. Discussion of the Qualitative Findings

This section presents the discussion of the qualitative findings in two sub-sections. The first sub-section discusses the qualitative findings from classroom observation while the second deals with those obtained from content analysis. Like in the discussion of the quantitative findings, the results are synthesized and, where necessary, supported with the relevant literature. The discussion of the findings from classroom observation is made in close connection with the research sub-question pertaining to the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction. Similarly, the findings from content analysis are discussed in alignment with the research sub-question concerning the coverage of independent reading in Grade 11 English textbooks.

6.2.1. Inclusion of IR in Reading Instruction

As mentioned above, the first set of the qualitative component of the study contains the findings that emerged from the analyses, done based on the technique of interaction analysis (Jordan & Henderson 1995:39), of the data from classroom observations. In Chapter 4, the analyses and interpretations of the data collected through the observations of lessons in the public and non-public schools were first done separately. However, the results were combined afterwards with the view to identifying features across the two categories of observed lessons. In this sub-section, these findings are discussed in terms of the themes that emerged in relation to the research sub-question stated below:

What are the independent reading components Grade 11 English teachers in selected schools include in their instructions?

Theme 1: Textbook-Driven and Product-Focused Reading Lessons in the Public School

The findings showed that the reading lessons observed in the selected public school were more textbook-driven (textbook dominated by prose passages) and product-focused (as opposed to process-oriented instruction which emphasizes training in reading strategy use and linkage between in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading). Consequently, components of cognitive strategy were not given adequate explicit attention in these lessons. Besides, students' © University of South Africa 2010

attempts to work in groups in which they shared textbooks were not systematically arranged and supervised to promote socio-affective strategy use. Similarly, features of metacognitive strategy (think-aloud, reflective reading, self-assessment and reading goal-setting) seemed neglected. These lessons also failed to connect in-class reading with outside-class independent reading. In addition, they suffered from students' inattention, off-task behaviour and noise (lack of involved reading) and scarcity of the prescribed textbook. In the absence of effective reading strategy training, linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading, involved reading on the part of students and sufficient reading resources, scaffolding independent reading is scarcely possible. Such problems might have negatively affected public school students' reading comprehension achievement, reading motivation; metacognitive strategy use and persistence in independent reading (see section 6.1).

Theme 2: More Process-Oriented and Better Resourced Lessons in the Non-Public School

On the contrary, the lessons observed in the selected non-public school were more process-oriented. Accordingly, they encouraged students to practise more components of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Most of these lessons also, in one way or another, linked in-class reading with outside-class independent reading. In addition, in all the observed reading lessons, most of the students demonstrated high reading comprehension abilities and curious involvement in their reading comprehension work. There were also sufficient literary texts (teacher selected handouts) during these lessons. Better use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, more involved reading and better availability of reading resources might have positively contributed to non-public school students' better reading comprehension achievement, higher mean score on perceived reading ability, significantly higher mean score on challenge-facing (risk-taking) behaviour and more persistent involvement in independent reading (see section 6.1). However, socio-affective strategy and components of metacognitive strategy such as self-assessment and reading goal-setting were overlooked in the non-public school lessons. Where these are lacking in reading instruction, reduced independent reading practice can be observed among students.

Theme 3: Better Scaffolding of Independent Reading in the Non-Public School

To integrate, the lessons observed in the public school and those observed in the non-public school generally differed in the following features. Firstly, the lessons observed in the public

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school were more textbook-driven and product-focused (as opposed to focus on strategy training). On the contrary, the lessons observed in the non-public school were process-oriented (based on a variety of teacher-selected texts) characterized by a comparatively better coverage of strategy training. Secondly, the lessons in the public school did not connect in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading while those in the non-public school created linkage, in most cases, between classroom and out-of-class readings. Thirdly, the lessons in the public school were hampered by scarcity of resource (the textbook), noise, inattention and off-task behaviour which resulted in poor reading involvement and low reading success. Oppositely, reading classes in the non-public school were characterized by availability of sufficient resources (handouts), involved and curious reading and more success in doing comprehension tasks. Such differences could have contributed to the discrepancies in reading comprehension achievement, reading motivation; reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading between public and non-public school students (see sections 6.1). In other words, the lessons observed in the non-public school appeared better in scaffolding independent reading than those observed in the public school.

Theme 4: More Need for Scaffolding IR in the Public School

Independent reading cannot develop on its own accord. Therefore, teacher scaffolding is obviously an important requirement. Likewise, English language teachers who aspire to produce learners who possess the expertise and the desire to become life-long independent readers should train their students in the use of effective reading strategies. It is also necessary that reading lessons constantly create linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading. Facilitating access to reading resources is also a crucial element in promoting independent reading. In scaffolding independent reading, teachers act as facilitators (Savignon 2002:4), encouraging students to involve in self-directed reading (individually or in cooperative groups). In instructional contexts where sufficient focus on reading strategy training, involved and curious reading among students, adequate resources and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading are lacking, scaffolding independent reading can be barely possible. Based on the preceding discussion, it can be concluded that the reading lessons observed in the non-public school were better than those observed in the public school in helping students to develop independent reading abilities and habits. Therefore, there appears to be more need for scaffolding

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independent reading in the public school than in the non-public school. This requires strategy-based reading instruction (Linda, Lamme, Pringle & Abell 2010:77) and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading.

6.2.2. Coverage of IR in English Textbooks

The second set of findings within the qualitative component of the study pertains to results of content analysis. In order to find out the extent to which elements of independent reading (reading strategy training and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading) are included in English textbooks, some reading lessons selected from the Grade 11 English textbook used in public schools and from one used in a non-public school were analyzed. In Chapter 5, the analyses and interpretations of the selected reading lessons in each textbook were done based on the technique of content analysis (Vogt 2005:60). These were first accomplished separately, but later on, the results were developed into a holistic synthesis to capture the features that emerged across the two textbooks. In this sub-section, these findings are discussed in terms of the main features (A-D below) with respect to the research sub-question indicated hereunder:

How do Grade 11 English textbooks cover independent reading?

A) Good but Slightly Different Coverage of Cognitive Strategy

The content analyses indicated that components of cognitive strategy are covered fairly well in the textbook used in public schools. Specifically, the cognitive strategies of using graphic organizers to make sense of texts, guessing meanings of new words from contextual clues, scanning texts to locate specific details and skim-reading texts to identify main ideas receive rather good coverage in this material. However, the textbook used in the non-public school covers components of cognitive strategy in a slightly better way. The inclusion of using prior knowledge in text comprehension, reading texts to get expectations confirmed or questions answered, using graphic organizers to make sense of texts, analyzing contexts in which key terms occur, scanning texts for specific details, skimming texts for main ideas and evaluating the contents of texts or the writers' views seem fairly sufficient in both textbooks. Thus, the two textbooks appear to be moderately appropriate (with a slightly better quality of the non-public textbook) to train students in the use of components of cognitive strategy which help them to

deal with challenging texts during independent reading. This finding seems to be in agreement with the quantitative findings which revealed good use of components of cognitive strategy among students in public and non-public schools (see sub-section 6.1.4). However, it should be noted that the findings from the analyses of the lessons from the non-public school textbook may not apply to all non-public schools which use different coursebooks.

B) Moderately Good Coverage of Socio-Affective Strategy in the Public School Textbook

The findings from content analyses also indicated that the textbook used in public schools provides a moderately good coverage of socio-affective strategy (cooperative reading) which, if implemented appropriately, can train students in the use of this strategy by engaging them in cooperative meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking and responsibility sharing. Nevertheless, this dimension of reading strategy does not receive overt focus in the textbook used in the non-public school. This finding relates to the quantitative finding which unveiled better social motivation for reading among public school students (see sub-section 6.14). The neglect of socio-affective strategy in the non-public school textbook may emanate from the view that the respective students are already able to read effectively without seeking support from one another. However, cooperative reading can be necessary to facilitate mutual extraction of meaning, reciprocal thinking and shared responsibility that empower students to read texts with little or no teacher intervention. This is because discussion-based approach has been proved to improve learning (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran 2003:686). This approach can be situated in the Constructivist Theory of learning which views students as active participants in the construction of knowledge and understanding of meaning under proper facilitation (coaching) from teachers (Darge 2001:58).

C) Better Coverage of Metacognitive Strategy and Linkage of In-Class Reading with Out-of-Class Reading in the Non-Public School Textbook

The two textbooks also differ in their coverage of metacognitive strategy components and their potential to link in-class reading with outside-class reading. On the one hand, while the metacognitive strategy of reflective reading is very slightly covered in the public school textbook, it is given better attention in the non-public school textbook. However, metacognitive strategy components such as think-aloud and reading goal setting seem to lack explicit focus in

both textbooks. Yet, while self-assessment is overlooked in the public school textbook, it appears to be slightly addressed in the non-public school textbook which includes the course assessment scheme in its introduction although it is not explicitly addressed in the specific lessons. This can help the respective students to evaluate their reading progress in the light of assessment requirements.

What is more, nearly all the lessons analyzed from the public textbook fail to explicitly link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. On the contrary, to a certain extent, the lessons analyzed from the non-public textbook link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading. This encourages teachers to scaffold independent reading and students to involve in continued self-initiated reading outside the classroom. In this case, other things being the same, Grade 11 students in the non-public school can have better exposure to the practice of independent reading than their counterparts in public schools (same textbook used in all public schools). The actual classroom lessons in the observed non-public school also appeared to foster independent reading through linkage between in-class readings with outside-class extended reading. The slightly better coverage of metacognitive strategy components in the non-public school textbook is in congruence with the quantitative finding which indicated better metacognitive strategy use among non-public school students (see sub-section 6.1.4).

D) Overview of the Main Features

Generally, the following issues stand out regarding the qualitative findings which emerged from content analyses. Firstly, both the public school and the non-public school textbooks provide fairly good coverage of components of cognitive strategy (with slight differences). Secondly, while the public school textbook appears more appropriate to train students in the use of socio-affective strategy, this dimension of reading strategy lacks explicit coverage in the non-public school textbook. Thirdly, reflective reading, an aspect of metacognitive strategy, is given more coverage in the non-public school textbook. Fourthly, while both textbooks do not incorporate think-aloud and reading goal setting (aspects of metacognitive strategy), the non-public school textbook seems to address self-assessment in an indirect way. Finally, unlike the public school textbook, the one used in the non-public school creates linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading. Therefore, the non-public school textbook, due to better coverage

of components of metacognitive strategy and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading, seems potentially better to scaffold independent reading than the public school textbook. This is related to the quantitative findings which revealed better predisposition for and practice of independent reading among non-public school students than among public school students (see section 6.1).

6.3. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the main findings of the study based on the quantitative and qualitative results dealt with in the fourth and fifth chapters respectively. Specifically, it captured the major findings and synthesized them with support literature. The discussion was organized under two sections: discussion of the quantitative findings and discussion of the qualitative findings. The discussion of the quantitative findings embraced the findings regarding reading comprehension ability, attitude towards learning English and reading texts written in English, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. The discussion of the qualitative findings on its part focused on the inclusion of components of independent reading in reading instruction and the coverage of the same in Grade 11 English textbooks.

The discussions presented in this chapter, based on the findings accounted for in the fourth and fifth chapters, incorporated student-related factors (reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English and reading texts written in this language, reading motivation, reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading), factors concerning English language teachers (strategy-based reading instruction and fostering out-of-class independent reading), Grade 11 English textbooks (coverage of reading strategy components and potential to be used as a leaping point towards out-of-class independent reading) and access to reading resources (fictions, newspapers and magazines). In this case, the data analyses and interpretations as well as the discussion of the findings fit in the conceptual model of the study indicated in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.3 in section 2.3). With this grounding, this chapter leads to the next chapter, Chapter 7, which presents the conclusions and the recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0. Introduction

Chapter 6 discussed the results of the quantitative component of the study together with key findings in the qualitative component supported by the literature. This final chapter, Chapter 7, starts with a brief recapitulation of the study as a whole (section 7.1). Then, a brief summary of the main findings from the two phases of the research is made (section 7.2) followed by conclusions drawn based on the summary (section 7.3). The main contributions of the study are highlighted (section 7.4). The limitations of the study are acknowledged (section 7.5), a number of recommendations are spelt out (section 7.6), and suggestions for further research are given (section 7.7) before the thesis is concluded (section 7.8).

7.1. Brief Recapitulation

This study investigated independent reading among Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in Ethiopia with particular focus on preparatory schools in the city of Addis Ababa. As highlighted in section 1.8, the study is structured into seven chapters.

Chapter 1 provided a brief introduction to the study in different sections. Following a brief introduction to the chapter in the first section, the second section provided an account of the context of the study while a brief background was presented in the third one concerning the historical developments that led to the conception of learner autonomy in language learning. In the fourth section, the rationale of the study was established. The fifth section gave details on the statement of the problem and spelled out the research gaps that the study tried to address. This section was followed by the sixth section which stated the research questions. Next, the scope of the study was described in the seventh section. Then, the eighth section focused on definitions of terms deemed key in the study. Following this, whereas the ninth section highlighted the organization of the study, the tenth one concluded the chapter.

The literature review was taken up in the second chapter which also provided insight into the conceptual framework of the study. The contents of the second chapter were treated in different

sections some of which were divided into sub-sections. Next to a brief introduction to the chapter, four theories of learning, including the Constructivist Theory (the theoretical framework of this study) were reviewed. Next, details were given regarding theories of language viz-a-viz the acquisition-learning distinction theory and the theory of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Then, the nature of reading, independent reading and issues pertaining to independent reading (attitude towards learning a new language and reading its literature, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources) were discussed. This was followed by a brief review of previous studies on independent reading. Finally, the conceptual framework of the study was explained and illustrated. Following this, the chapter ended with a brief conclusion which led to the third chapter.

Chapter 3 began with a brief introduction and described the study setting, the research design, the study population along with the sampling techniques, the data collection instruments, issues pertaining to validity and reliability, the procedure of data collection, the data analysis methods and the ethical considerations. Since the study used both quantitative and qualitative methods, Chapter 3 described the research methods used in data collection in two categories: quantitative and qualitative. Under the quantitative category, the chapter described reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist. In the qualitative category, observation schedule and content analysis checklist used to elicit qualitative research data were described. Accordingly, the chapter described the methods used to analyze the data in each category of the study. The methodological framework that consequently emerged from Chapter 3 included the following features.

- Reading comprehension ability levels were measured with comprehension test which was marked out of 100 to address the research sub-question regarding the reading comprehension ability levels of students across public and non-public schools.
- Attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in English was measured with six items of the five-point Likert scale type questionnaire used in the study (77 items included in the questionnaire focusing on attitude, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources). The data collected through these items were used to partly answer the research sub-

question focusing on students' attitude along with motivation as regards independent EFL reading.

- Reading motivation was classified into two dimensions (reading goal and reading self-efficacy) and measured using 41 items of the questionnaire to answer the second part of the research sub-question reiterated in the preceding bulleted sentence.
- Reading strategy use was seen in terms of three sub-scales (metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and socio-affective strategy) and addressed with 17 items of the questionnaire with the intention to answering the research sub-question regarding the reading strategies students use predominantly which help them to develop independent reading skills.
- Persistence in independent reading was mainly addressed using six items of the questionnaire. Independent reading follow-up checklist was also employed to gather supportive data concerning this variable. The data generated through these items were used to address the research sub-question dealing with students' persistence in independent reading.
- Access to reading resources was measured using seven items of the questionnaire to answer the research sub-question regarding the extent to which the target students had access to a variety of independent reading resources (books, fictions, magazines, newspapers) written in English.
- Quantitative data collected via reading comprehension test and questionnaire were analyzed into mean scores, standard deviations, medians, ranges and Mann Whitney U test scores while quantitative data from independent reading follow-up were analyzed into percentages.
- The research sub-question focusing on the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction was answered based on qualitative data elicited through observation schedule and analyzed using the technique of interaction analysis.
- The research sub-question regarding the coverage of independent reading in English textbooks was addressed based on data generated using textbook analysis checklist and analyzed using the technique of content analysis.

In Chapter 4, the quantitative findings were presented and interpreted according to certain labels. Specifically, the quantitative findings were treated under the labels of reading comprehension ability, attitude towards learning English and reading texts written in this language, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. An overview of the quantitative findings was also provided before the chapter was concluded.

In Chapter 5, the qualitative findings were presented and interpreted in two categories. The first category dealt with qualitative findings from classroom observation while the second one focused on qualitative findings from content analysis. Then, as done with the quantitative findings in the fourth chapter, the qualitative findings were integrated in a section which provided a brief overview of the chapter. Finally, a brief conclusion captured the main intent of the chapter.

Discussion of the quantitative and the qualitative findings was made in Chapter 6. This chapter reiterated and synthesized the major findings and backed them up with relevant literature. Firstly, discussion was made on the quantitative findings under the labels of reading comprehension ability, attitude towards learning English and reading English texts, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. This was then followed by discussion of the qualitative findings according to themes which were treated in two categories: those which emerged from classroom observations (in one public school and one non-public school) and those which were generated from content analysis. The themes in the first category were textbook-driven and product-focused reading lessons in the public school, more process-oriented and better resourced lessons in the non-public school, better scaffolding of independent reading in the non-public school plus more need for scaffolding independent reading in public schools. On the other hand, the themes in the second category included good but slightly different coverage of cognitive strategy in the public and non-public school English textbooks, moderately good coverage of socio-affective strategy in the public school textbook and better coverage of metacognitive strategy and linkage of in-class reading with out-of-class reading in the non-public school textbook.

7.2. Summary of the Major Findings

To investigate independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in the Ethiopian context, two sets of research sub-questions were formulated. The research sub-questions in the first set concerning students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude (attitude towards learning English and reading texts written in this language) along with reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to reading resources and existence of statistically significant differences between Grade 11 students in public and those in non-public schools in their predisposition alongside practice of independent reading, were addressed using quantitative data. The research sub-questions in the second set dealt with the inclusion of independent reading in classroom instruction and coverage of independent reading in English textbooks and were answered based on qualitative data.

In answering the question regarding reading comprehension ability levels, the study found that public school students' had lower reading comprehension abilities than non-public school students. The findings of the study about attitude unveiled that both public and non-public school students had positive attitudes towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language although the latter had higher attitude scores. It was also found that non-public school students demonstrated better extrinsic motivation (grades and recognition), intrinsic motivation (curiosity and involvement) and reading challenge-facing (risk-taking) while public school students excelled in social motivation for reading. In answering the question focusing on reading strategy use, the study generally found good, average and low uses of cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies among students in public and non-public schools (with some differences). In relation to the question pertaining to persistence in independent reading, it was found that non-public school students were more frequent readers of English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers. On the other hand, the findings of the study revealed that both public and non-public school students did not seem to have satisfactory access to independent reading texts. This finding answers the question regarding access to reading resources.

Before proceeding to the conclusions drawn from quantitative findings, it is necessary to answer the research question about the existence of statistically significant differences between students

across public and non-public schools in their predisposition alongside their practice as regards independent EFL reading. In this respect, significant differences were identified between the two groups of students in reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English and reading texts written in this language, involvement and curiosity components of intrinsic motivation, grade and recognition sub-scales of extrinsic motivation, challenge-facing (risk-taking) sub-scale of reading self-efficacy, use of reading strategies (cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective) and persistence in independent reading. All of these differences, except the one for socio-affective strategy use, were in favour of non-public school students.

As indicated above, two research sub-questions were used in the qualitative component of the study: one on the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction and the other on the coverage of independent reading in English textbooks. Regarding the question on the inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction, it was found that there was better focus on independent reading in lessons observed in the non-public school. Similarly, the findings pertaining to the coverage of independent reading in English textbooks showed that the non-public textbook seems potentially better to scaffold independent reading. Of course, these findings are in agreement with the respective results in the quantitative component of the study.

Overall, the study revealed lower predisposition towards and practice of independent reading among public school students. This problem, as identified in the study, was ascribable to factors relating to the students themselves, their English teachers (this concerns only the observed teacher), the English textbook and access to reading resources. The student-related factors subsumed limitations in reading comprehension ability, reading motivation, reading strategy use and persistence in independent reading while the teacher-related factors included teacher deficiency in scaffolding independent reading due to lack of strategy instruction and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading. On the other hand, whereas inadequate coverage of components of independent reading (strategy-based instruction and linkage between classroom reading and outside-class reading) was the weakness of the English textbook, resources-related hindrances were inherent in claimed lack of access to a variety of English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers.

7.3. Conclusions

Based on the main findings synthesized above, this study is able to make the following conclusions regarding the topic of independent reading in EFL in Ethiopian schools.

Students cannot engage in effective independent reading unless they possess the reading comprehension abilities required at their levels. In other words, deficient reading comprehension ability leads to poor predisposition towards and practice of independent reading. In this connection, this study found that Grade 11 students in public schools had low reading comprehension ability levels while their non-public school counterparts demonstrated significantly better reading comprehension abilities. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that low reading comprehension ability levels can hinder public school students' involvement in independent reading of a variety of English texts. It can also be inferred that non-public school students, by virtue of higher reading comprehension abilities, have a better chance to develop independent reading abilities and habits. The poor reading comprehension ability levels among public school students can be rooted in their learning experiences in earlier grades (Smith, Stone & Comings 2012:9-10). However, regardless of the sources of the problem, the findings of this study imply that there is more need for scaffolding reading comprehension in public schools than in non-public schools. In fact, for effective scaffolding of reading comprehension to occur, English teachers should be aware of the role of scaffolded instruction in fostering student independence (Huggins & Edwards 211:31) and develop expertise, coupled with commitment, to implement it.

Students' attitude towards learning a new language and reading its literature plays a crucial role in determining their reading involvement and persistence which are integral to independent reading (McKenna, Kear & Ellsworth 1995:934). In this regard, the findings of the study unveiled that both public and non-public school students had positive attitudes towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language. However, a statistically significant difference favouring non-public school students was observed in attitude scores. From these, one can conclude that, provided they possess appropriate motivation, the positive attitudes towards learning English and reading its literature can help public and non-public school students to engage in independent reading of English texts. In addition, it can be inferred that

Grade 11 students in non-public schools, due to more positive attitude, can develop better independent reading tendencies than public school students. It can also be concluded that the low reading comprehension ability levels among public school students can slowly erode their positive attitude towards learning the English language and reading its literature. Therefore, the attitudes of these students need boosting with the view to instilling independent reading abilities in them.

The type of reading motivation students possess determines the extent to which they practise independent reading (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling & Mazzoni 1996:518). Accordingly, students with positive attitudes towards learning a new language and reading its literature may not read independently unless they have suitable motivation. On the contrary, since appropriately motivated students have various personal reasons for reading, they can create their own opportunities to read independently. In this study, reading motivation was measured in terms of its dimensions of reading goal and reading self-efficacy. Reading goal was treated as embracing intrinsic motivation (curiosity, involvement and importance of reading), extrinsic motivation (grades, competition and recognition) and social motivation (social purpose for reading). Reading self-efficacy was addressed as subsuming perceived reading ability and challenge-facing (risk-taking).

The findings pertaining to reading goal revealed that non-public school students had significantly more intrinsic (curiosity and involvement) and extrinsic (grades and recognition) purposes for reading as compared to public school students. Yet, the latter significantly outperformed the former in their score of social motivation which has implications for independent reading. It was also found that public and non-public school students had positive perceptions about their reading abilities. However, non-public school students were found significantly more challenge-facing (risk-taking) than public school students who demonstrated challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing) behaviour. It can thus be concluded that non-public school students, by virtue of their higher intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, positive perceived reading abilities and challenge-facing (risk-taking) behaviours, are in a better situation to develop independent reading skills and habits. On the contrary, public school students' lower intrinsic and extrinsic motivations coupled with challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing) tendencies can hinder their involvement in independent reading. This implies that the reading motivation of public school students, especially their

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challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing) behaviour, should be worked upon for a better effect before it deteriorates to the worst.

Independent reading needs effective use of reading strategies (Fang, Lamme, Pringle & Abell 2010:77). Effective reading strategies enable students to tackle reading challenges in the absence of teacher assistance. Therefore, students must have a repertoire of metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies which they can utilize in independent reading situations. In this study, reading strategy use was investigated according to three sub-scales: metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and socio-affective strategy. The results of the study indicated that both public and non-public school students were average metacognitive strategy users although the latter were slightly better in this case. It was also identified that cognitive strategy use among both group of students was high, but students in non-public schools had a significantly higher mean score in this regard. On the other hand, both groups of students were poor users of socio-affective strategy although those in public schools were slightly better in this respect.

Thus, it was found that both public and non-public school students predominantly used components of cognitive strategy which can positively contribute to their efforts to develop independent reading abilities. However, both groups were found average users of components of metacognitive strategy. Metacognitive strategy use helps students to take responsibility for the development of their own reading skills by empowering them to make personal decisions and choices which are integral to independent reading. If students lack the metacognitive techniques of reflective reading, think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting, it can be hard to expect them to demonstrate effective independent reading predispositions. Similarly, both public and non-public school students' poor use of socio-affective strategy can negatively affect their predispositions towards independent reading. In this connection, the case for public school students is worth reconsidering given that they claimed having higher social motivation for reading. That is, although they expressed possession of higher social motivation for reading, their use of socio-affective reading strategy was found poor. That means, either the social motivation was not put into practice or it did not lead to effective use of socio-affective strategy. It can also be inferred that average use of metacognitive strategy and low application of socio-affective strategy among both groups of students, which have negative implications for their involvements

in independent reading, can emanate from inadequate strategy instruction and/or insufficient coverage of strategy components in textbooks (course materials).

The fourth research sub-question pertains to persistence in independent reading. Independent reading among a certain group of students practically happens only if they engage in continued self-initiated reading outside the classroom (Hollingworth & Drake 2012:74-75). Student predispositions such as adequate reading comprehensions ability, positive reading attitude, appropriate reading motivation and repertoire of reading strategies are only a means towards this end. Therefore, whether students have established independent reading habits should be seen in terms of their persistence in out-of-class self-monitored reading. In this study, findings from the questionnaire (also supported with findings from independent reading follow-up) revealed that non-public school students practised independent reading with significantly better frequencies than public school students. It can therefore be concluded that non-public school students' better persistence in self-initiated reading along with higher reading comprehension abilities, better predisposition towards such reading (positive attitude, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies) places them in a better position to evolve as persistent independent readers. Conversely, the low reading persistence among public school students can be the result of low predisposition (e.g. low reading comprehension ability, challenge-avoiding behaviour, poor use of metacognitive strategy), poor teacher scaffolding and deficiencies of the English textbook.

Quantitative findings in this study generally indicated that both public and non-public school students had average access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers. Particularly, the mean score of public school students for access to reading resources was 3.0 ('cannot decide'). Two things can be emphasized here. Firstly, a mean score of 3.0 can imply that the students did not have a clear idea of their access to reading texts which may be attributed to lack of awareness about the resources that can be available in their school libraries. Secondly, although non-public school students (who come from high income families) are believed to be better resourced with online and print texts, their access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers was found to be below what one can expect. That is, better socio-economic status did not have a major impact on non-public school students' access to reading texts. This suggests that independent reading was not their priority. Based on these findings, it can be

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concluded that public school students can be excessively dependent on the prescribed textbook while non-public school students may be dominated by teacher-selected texts.

The findings mentioned in the above paragraph strengthen the conclusions so far made regarding the fact that non-public school students, due to better predisposition towards and practice of self-initiated reading, have a far better chance of evolving as life-long independent readers of English texts. Therefore, there appears to be a more critical need for scaffolding independent reading in public schools than in non-public schools. In fact, to scaffold independent reading effectively, English language teachers in public schools need to develop expertise and demonstrate commitment in this regard.

Teacher-related factors are important in shaping independent reading habits among students (Naeghel, et al. 2012). Teachers can play the important role of fostering independent reading in their students by conducting strategy-based instruction and linking in-class reading with out-of-class reading. That was why this study tried to investigate selected teachers' practices of scaffolding independent reading through strategy-based instruction and linkage between classroom reading and outside-class reading. The findings showed that the lessons observed in the public school were more textbook-driven and product-oriented (as opposed to process-oriented instruction which emphasizes training in reading strategy use). These lessons lacked involved reading on the part of students, suffered from scarcity of the textbook and failed to connect in-class reading with outside-class independent reading. This is in contradiction with the aspects of independent reading such as engaged reading (Kulich 2008:337), variety of reading texts (Gilmore 2011:41) and linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading (Sanden 2012:222). Contrarily, the lessons observed in the non-public school focused more on learning process (better reading strategy training), were better resourced and linked classroom reading with out-of-class reading. That is, there was better scaffolding of independent reading in the non-public school which can help the respective students to emerge as independent readers. One can thus infer that teacher-related factors could also have contributed to low predisposition towards and practice of independent EFL reading among public school students.

As important resources for the teaching of reading, English textbooks were also the focus of this study. The findings indicated that the textbook used in public schools, due to lack of focus on

metacognitive strategy and linkage between in-class-reading and out-of-class reading, appears potentially poorer in helping teachers to scaffold independent reading and in leading students to self-initiated reading outside the classroom. It can therefore be concluded that the weaknesses of the public school textbook could have contributed to the low independent reading predisposition towards and practice of independent reading among the respective students.

7.4. Main Contributions and Originality of the Study

As elaborated in section 1.4, research studies which entirely looked into independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students in the Ethiopian context were lacking. Therefore, this study has made an original contribution by examining the predispositions towards and practice of independent reading among Grade 11 students in the country. In addition, studies which tried to address independent reading across public and non-public schools were equally unavailable. This study has thus made another new contribution to the body of knowledge of independent reading by identifying better predisposition towards and involvement in independent reading among Grade 11 students in non-public schools than among those in public schools. The study also has made a methodological contribution as explained below.

Unlike previous studies which focused on a single aspect or fewer aspects of independent reading mostly in English as a first language contexts (e.g. Harmon 2000; Garner & Bochman 2004; Topping, Samuels & Paul 2008), this study investigated independent EFL reading in terms of students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English and reading its literature, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. Knowledge of independent EFL reading, including these components, is needed because there are more challenges associated with reading in EFL learning contexts than there are in other English language learning contexts. In addition to the above issues, the study examined the inclusion of independent reading in reading lessons and in Grade 11 English textbooks. As a result, rich data were collected using reading comprehension test (quantitative), questionnaire (quantitative), independent reading follow-up checklist (quantitative), observation schedule (qualitative) and content analysis checklist (qualitative). Therefore, the study employed a more comprehensive approach (quantitative and qualitative) which is a methodological contribution to future studies since it brought together several

dimensions of independent reading in an EFL learning context. In this regard, this study offers unique insights into how independent reading can be investigated in EFL learning contexts.

7.5. Limitations of the Study

Like any other study, this study acknowledges the following limitations, which future studies could thwart, if need be. Firstly, the fact that it was delimited to one grade level in 10 preparatory schools in the city of Addis Ababa makes it limited in its scope. However, the findings pertinent to public schools can apply to other parts of Ethiopia. On the one hand, the same English textbook is used in all Grade 11 classes of public schools in the country. Thus, the weaknesses of the textbook identified in this study affect all Grade 11 students attending public schools in Ethiopia. On the other hand, since Addis Ababa is the nucleus of Ethiopia, trends that prevail in this city can influence the different parts of the country. Hence, arguably, experiences in the educational process cannot be out of this influence.

Secondly, due to the wide differences in population sizes of the study, the sample size used for non-public schools ($n = 181$) was much smaller than the one used for public schools ($n = 375$). Nevertheless, since appropriate sample size determination technique was used, it was attempted to work within the existing reality, i.e. small population sizes in non-public schools. Thirdly, students' reading comprehension ability levels were determined based on their results on a single test. Administering more than one test would have given more confidence in drawing conclusions about the study participants' reading comprehension ability levels. To address this problem, care was taken to increase the validity of this test by obtaining teachers' comments and piloting it to improve its difficulty level and discrimination power. Finally, classroom observations were conducted only in two schools (one public school and one non-public school). Although representativeness of samples is not a critical question in qualitative studies, richer data would have been collected through observations in more schools to address the unique classroom characteristics, routines, interactions and other dynamics pertinent to the research issue. In this case, a study that used only one method (such as qualitative) would probably arrive at different findings because the qualitative findings would be more in-depth than what was possible for a combined approach used in this study. However, the use of both quantitative and qualitative

methods in this study resulted in the two methods compensating each other, leading to a more balanced approach.

7.6. Recommendations

This section presents the recommendations forwarded based on the conclusions drawn from the quantitative and qualitative findings. The recommendations deal with measures that should be taken to improve students' reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading and access to reading resources. Suggestions are also put forward concerning the importance of short refresher training courses for English language teachers.

- This study revealed poor reading comprehension ability levels among public school students which can hinder their involvement in independent EFL reading. Therefore, Grade 11 English language teachers in public schools should work to improve their students' reading comprehension competence through instructional scaffolding. Scaffolding reading comprehension includes effective strategy instruction through interesting texts and tasks, working on students' reading attitude and reading motivation and making adequate time to engage students in successful sustained reading (Huggins & Edwards 211:31). It is thus necessary that English language teachers in public schools develop their expertise and commitment to address these crucial issues in their reading instruction with the view to enabling students to develop independent reading repertoire.
- This study found that both public and non-public school students had positive attitudes towards learning English as a school subject and reading texts written in this language. This is a promising condition in that, other things being constant, positive attitude helps students to practise independent reading. Nevertheless, the attitude of public school students needs caution since their low reading comprehension abilities can erode their reading success. If students recurrently achieve poorly in reading comprehension tasks, they can develop negative attitude towards learning English and, in effect, decide to stop reading texts written in this language. Thus, English language teachers in public schools should constantly enhance their students' attitude towards learning the English language

and reading its literature. They can do this by maximizing success through the provision of relevant, meaningful and reasonably challenging reading comprehension tasks.

- Findings in this study revealed lower extrinsic motivation (grades and recognition) and intrinsic motivation (involvement and curiosity) among public school students. It was also found that lessons observed in the selected public school (findings may not apply to other public schools) suffered from lack of involved and curious reading, inattention and lack of genuine competition on the part of students. In addition, public school students were found to be challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing). Inadequacy in possession of components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations reduces students' involvement in reading texts for a variety of personal reasons. Besides, the challenge-avoiding (risk-fearing) tendency weakens their perseverance in the face of reading challenges which hinders their predisposition towards independent reading. Therefore, teachers of English in public schools need to enhance their students' reading motivation and their challenge-facing (risk-taking) capacities. Boosting students' reading motivation requires choosing interesting and relevant texts which enable them to see connections between in-school reading and real-life reading. To this effect, teachers of English, instead of implementing textbook-driven reading lessons, should constantly engage students in reading a variety of texts in and outside the classroom. Ensuring success with manageable tasks and providing persistent practice opportunities are some of the measures teachers can take to foster students' challenge-facing (risk-taking) behaviour (Gambrell 2011:9)-a crucial component of reading motivation which impacts on independent reading.
- According to quantitative findings in this study, cognitive strategy use was promising among public and non-public students with the latter being significantly better in this regard. However, both groups of students used components of metacognitive strategy moderately. Especially, the application of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting, which are vital in independent reading, was low across public and non-public schools with the problem being worse in the former. Classroom observations and content analyses also elicited similar results although the situation in the respective non-public school was slightly better. On the contrary, socio-affective strategy use was significantly

poor among non-public school students. In addition, socio-affective strategy was not included in reading lessons in the observed non-public school and it lacked coverage in the analyzed non-public school textbook. Therefore, it is recommended that reading strategy instruction in public schools should focus more on metacognitive strategy without neglecting cognitive and socio-affective strategies while reading strategy training in non-public schools need to place more attention on metacognitive and socio-affective strategies.

- Quantitative findings in this study revealed that public school students' persistence in independent reading was significantly low. The implication of this is that these students are less likely to develop regular independent reading habits unless measures are taken. It was also found that the reading lessons in the observed public school failed to link in-class reading with outside-class reading. Moreover, it was identified that reading lessons in the public school textbook can hardly lead to out-of-class independent reading. Therefore, teachers of English need to minimize these problems by providing opportunities which engage students in continued reading in and outside the classroom. To this end, selecting a variety of interesting texts, using leveled tasks and ensuring success are necessary. Teachers may also need to arrange extra classes so that students can get adequate time to practise persistent independent reading.
- The findings regarding students' access to reading resources demonstrated that public school students seemed to have lower access to English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers. These students' mean score (3.0) for access to reading resources can imply that they were not aware whether English books, fictions, magazines and newspapers were available in their school libraries or not. In this case, teachers of English in public schools and the respective school personnel need to create events (e.g. school book day) in which they publicize independent reading resources available in their libraries. It also seems necessary that public schools equip their libraries with sufficient varieties of texts to provide students with the opportunity to choose what they want to read based on their reading purposes and preferences. On the other hand, non-public school students, although they come from high income families, had average access to independent reading resources. This suggests that independent reading was not their priority since

they did not use their better economic situation to equip themselves with a selection of electronic and print texts. Therefore, it can be recommended that teachers of English in non-public schools advise their students to make independent reading a priority in order to reap success in their academic and real-lives.

- Students are members of wider communities. They belong to school, local, regional and national communities. Consequently, the reading cultures of their communities exert a considerable influence on students' independent reading behaviour. Unfortunately, in the Ethiopian context, there are concerns that the reading culture of the whole nation is deteriorating from time to time. In this state of affairs, it is hard to expect students to develop interest and ability in independent EFL reading. Therefore, the reading culture of the nation, including EFL reading, should be progressively improved. To this effect, teachers of English should set themselves as models for other people as regards regular EFL reading. They could also take the initiative to create communities of EFL readers in and beyond their schools.
- The above suggestions place considerable emphasis on the role of Grade 11 English language teachers, particularly those who teach in public schools, in scaffolding independent reading. Firstly, they need to develop the expertise which enables them to improve their students' comprehension ability, attitude, motivation, strategy use and practice pertaining to independent reading by attending conferences and refresher courses. Secondly, besides taking measures to deal with weaknesses of the English textbook, they need to ensure that their students have access to a range of independent reading texts. Thirdly, they should be committed to fulfill the challenging, but eventually rewarding, duty of enabling their students to become persistent independent readers. Fourthly, apart from setting themselves models for their students concerning EFL reading, they should take the lead in efforts to create communities of EFL readers. Therefore, the Ministry of Education, regional educational offices, zonal educational bureaus and schools need to make concerted efforts to make short refresher courses available for English language teachers in general and those who teach Grade 11 English in particular.

7.7. Further Research

This study looked into independent EFL reading in Ethiopian schools focusing on Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in the city of Addis Ababa. Previous studies (e.g. Pearman 2008; Knoester 2009) focused on a single aspect or fewer aspects of independent reading mostly in English as first language contexts. However, in this study, several dimensions of independent reading such as reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English and reading texts written in this language, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to reading resources, inclusion of independent reading in reading instruction and coverage of independent reading in English textbooks were investigated. Still, further studies are crucial to address these issues in different settings and other aspects of independent reading in various contexts. Areas for future independent EFL reading studies in the Ethiopian context could include home-based support, reading attitude and reading motivation in public vs. locally owned private schools, grade and gender differences, demographic variables and the one-to-five cooperative learning scheme.

7.8. Concluding Remarks

This study investigated independent EFL reading among Grade 11 students across public and non-public schools in Ethiopia with particular focus on preparatory schools in the city of Addis Ababa. To this end, eight research sub-questions were raised and answered. These research sub-questions were related to reading comprehension ability levels, attitude towards learning English as a school subject and reading its literature, reading motivation, reading strategy use, persistence in independent reading, access to reading resources, inclusion of independent reading in classroom instruction and coverage of independent reading in English textbooks. The first six questions required quantitative data while the last two were addressed using qualitative data. To address the quantitative questions, data were collected through reading comprehension test, structured questionnaire and independent reading follow-up checklist. On the other hand, the qualitative questions were answered based on data gathered through observation schedule and content analysis checklist. The study has made new contributions by investigating independent EFL reading across public and non-public schools in the Ethiopian context and by offering new insights concerning how independent reading can be studied in EFL learning contexts.

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APPENDIX I: READING COMPREHENSION TEST
University of South Africa
College of Human Sciences
Department of English Studies
Doctor of Philosophy and Literature in English
Reading Comprehension Test

Time allowed = 50 Minutes

Dear Students,

This test is intended to collect data that will be used in a doctoral study on independent reading of materials written in English among Grade 11 students in public and non-public schools in the city of Addis Ababa. The data you provide will be kept with great confidentiality and used only for the purpose of the study. Thus, there is no need to write your name or your roll number anywhere in the test paper.

Participation in the study is highly voluntary. Therefore, if you do not want to participate, you can decide not to participate. However, since the study is hoped to contribute to endeavors being made to improve the quality of English language education in Ethiopia, your contribution to the success of the study benefits English language education in the country. This can encourage you to take part in the study by taking the test.

Thank your willingness to take the test!

Directions: *This test has been adapted from TOEFL free online practice to measure Grade 11 students' reading comprehension ability. Read through the following passage carefully and answer the questions below it.*

Our hairs have to bare a lot of stress while going through hair styling and hair coloring. **They** start looking dull and damaged as time passes by. Not only this, our hair also begins to lose **its** natural shine and color. The rate of hair fall and split ends also increase to a great extent. Apart from coloring and styling, there are a lot of other factors that decide the quality of our hair.

Continuous use of various styling tools at high temperatures such as for ironing, blow drying, etc., can greatly damage your hair and also result in split ends. Not only this, but poor, unhealthy and improper diet is also a major deciding factor about what quality of hair you will have.

But, by taking proper care you can improve the condition of your hair. With the help of proper **treatment** and use of right hair care products you can easily make your hairs look stronger and better than they were before. Here are some **tips** for improving the look and feel of your hair.

Trimming off the split ends from your hair from time to time is very essential as *it* will prevent the split ends from **hampering** the look of your hair. You can get your hairs trimmed after every 6 to 8 weeks so that they grow in a healthier manner. Avoiding this step can result in frizzy and ugly hair because as the split ends will grow further, *they* will grow upwards causing great damage and ultimately you will have to lose a very good length of your hair so that you can get them into proper and good shape and appearance. Your diet also plays a very important part in the growth of your hair. Dry and damaged hair may also indicate that you are missing some essential nutrients in your day to day diet. Hence, you need to pay a lot of attention to the food that you consume. Make sure that you include all the key nutrients in your food so that not only your body but, also your hairs receive all the vitamins and minerals which are essential for the wear and tear. You can also achieve this by including hair supplements in your diet to ensure growth of healthy hair.

Another important factor regarding good hair is water. Consumption of 10 to 12 glasses of water every day is not only beneficial for your body cells and tissues but it is also useful in keeping your hair moisturized all the day.

Apart from *this*, there are various hair care products available in the market that will help you in fulfilling your **dream** of having, healthy and shiny hair. These products majorly include shampoos and conditioners. There are again a lot of varieties for your choice according to the needs of your hair. Either you can go with the herbal products or you can also go with other products which you find suitable for your hair. Before buying these products, it is always better to get an opinion from the dermatologists so that you won't fall **prey** to the wrong products *which* damage your hair further.

A) True/False (2 Marks Each)

Directions: *In the space provided against each item, write **TRUE** if the statement is correct or **FALSE** if the statement is not correct according to the passage.*

- _____ 1. The writer believes that our hair relaxes while undergoing styling and coloring.
- _____ 2. The diet we take has an effect on the quality of our hair.
- _____ 3. The writer suggests that we use hair care products selectively.
- _____ 4. Keeping our hairs moisturized is less important than shampooing them.
- _____ 5. The writer openly argues that everyone dreams of having healthy, shiny hair.
- _____ 6. Dermatologists can give advice on which type hair care products we should use.

B) Matching (2 Marks Each)

Directions: Match each word under column A with its contextual meaning given under B and write the letters of your choice in the spaces provided. You may use an item under B once, twice or not at all.

A	B
_____ 7. treatment (para. 3, line 2)	A. damaging
_____ 8. tips (para. 3, line 3)	B. helping
_____ 9. hampering (para. 4, line 2)	C. victim
_____ 10. dream (para. 6, line 2)	D. medical action
_____ 11. prey (para. 6, line 6)	E. wish
	F. ideas/ways
	G. care

C) Multiple Choice (2 Marks Each)

Directions: Choose the most appropriate answer according to the passage and write the letter of your choice on the spaces provided.

- _____ 12. Which one of the following is not only good for hair but also for the various cells and tissues of the body?
- a. water b) air c) carbohydrates d) shampoo e) all of these
- _____ 13. Before buying hair care products, from which of the following experts should one obtain an opinion so that he/she won't fall prey to wrong products?
- a. chemist b) traditional doctor c) dentist d) dermatologist e) all of these
- _____ 14. Apart from the normal food, what can you include in your diet to improve the quality of your hair?
- a. water b) shampoo c) hair supplements d) conditioner e) none of these
- _____ 15. Dry and damaged hair may also indicate that you are missing some essential _____ in your day-to-day diet.
- a. nutrients b) factors c) foods d) vegetables e) none of the above

_____ 16. Who are likely to have dry and damaged hair?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| a) people who eat balanced diet | c) people who use much hair styling and coloring |
| b) malnourished children | d) b& c |
| | e) none of these |

_____ 17. Which one of the following titles is the most suitable title for the above passage?

- | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| a) hair care | b) tips about hair | c) how to take care of your hair |
| d. tips for good hair | e) how to grow hair | |

D) Gap-filling (2 Marks Each)

Directions: *Decide the words or groups of words the following words refer to in the passage and write your answers in the blank spaces provided. An example has been given for you to follow:*

Example: **'its'** (Para. 1, line 2) refers to **our hair's**.

18. **'they'** (para. 1, line 1) refers to _____.

19. **'it'** (para 4, line 1) refers to _____.

20. **'they'** (para. 4, line 4) refers to _____.

21. **'this'** (para. 6, line 1) refers to _____.

22. **'which'** (para. 6, line 7) refers to _____.

E) Short Answers (10 Marks)

23. List three factors that determine the quality of our hair (6 Marks).

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

24. Hair care products are available in two categories. List these categories (4 Marks).

a) _____

b) _____

F) Reasoning (6 Marks)

25. Assume that your sister gets her hair styled and colored quite frequently. What piece of advice would you give her? Why? What if she doesn't accept your advice? Your advice must be related to the information given in the passage.

Thank you again for your time and cooperation.

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE
University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Human Sciences
Department of English Studies
Doctor of Philosophy and Literature in English
Questionnaire to be filled out by Grade 11 students

Dear Students,

This questionnaire is intended to collect data that will be used in a doctoral study on independent reading of materials written in English among Grade 11 students in public and non-public schools in the city of Addis Ababa. The data you provide will be kept with great confidentiality and used only for the purpose of the study. Thus, there is no need to write your name or your roll number anywhere in the questionnaire.

Participation in the study is highly voluntary. Therefore, if you do not want to participate, you can decide not to participate. However, since the study is hoped to contribute to endeavors being made to improve the quality of English language education in Ethiopia, your contribution to the success of the study benefits English language education in the country. This can encourage you to take part in the study

Thank you for your willingness to fill out the questionnaire!

PART 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Directions: *Put a tick mark (✓) in the given box.*

Sex: 1. Male ☐ 2. Female ☐

Type of school: 1 public ☐ Non-public ☐

PART 2: ATTITUDE

Directions: *Put a tick mark (✓) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following clues.*

1=never true of me 2= sometimes true of me 3= cannot decide 4= usually true of me
 5= always true of me

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I like learning English as a school subject.					
2	I wish that another foreign language (e.g. Chinese, French or Arabic) would be the language of teaching and learning at high school.					
3	I feel happy when I read books written in English at home or in library as a pass time activity.					
4	I prefer reading fictions, newspapers or magazines written in English to playing games.					
5	I feel satisfied when I have read English fictions, magazines or newspapers.					
6	I feel that reading materials written in English is an interesting activity.					

PART 3: READING MOTIVATION

3.1. Reading Goal

Directions: Put a tick mark (✓) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following clues.

1=never true of me

2= sometimes true of me

3=cannot decide

4= usually true of me

5= always true of me

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
7	I) <u>Curiosity</u> If the English teacher discusses something interesting, I like to read more about it.					
8	I read works written in English (fictions, newspapers and magazines) to learn new information about topics that interest me.					
9	I like to read materials written in English to learn about the English speaking community.					
10	If I am reading about an interesting topic in a material written in English, I sometimes lose track of time.					
11	I enjoy reading books about people in different countries.					
12	II) <u>Involvement</u> I read English stories to learn about the lives of the characters.					
13	I like reading mysterious stories written in English.					
14	I enjoy reading a long, involved story or fiction book written in English.					
15	I read a lot of adventure stories written in English.					
16	III) <u>Importance</u> I believe that it is very important to me to be a good English reader.					

17	I believe that reading in English makes me successful in my life.					
18	I believe that extensive reading of materials written in English makes me gives me a better awareness of the world.					
19	IV) Grades I read materials written in English because I learn most subjects through English.					
20	I believe that grades are a good way to make students read English texts.					
21	I need to improve my reading skills in English because I want to score good grades on the subjects I learn through English.					
22	I tend to read English books, fictions, newspapers or magazines when the English teacher gives reading assignments.					
23	V) Recognition Getting compliments for my reading is one of the things that make me happy.					
24	It makes me happy when my English teacher tells me that I am a good reader.					
25	I like it when my friends tell me that I am a good reader.					
26	I want my parents to tell me that I am progressing in my reading.					
27	I am happy when someone, whoever, recognizes that I am a good reader.					
28	VI) Competition During reading lessons, I try to get more answers right than my friends can get.					
29	I like to finish my reading before other students finish.					
30	I like being the only one who knows the answer to a reading comprehension question.					
31	It is important for me to see my name on a list of good readers.					
32	I usually work hard to read better than my friends.					
33	VII) Social Purpose I visit the library with my friends.					
34	I like to read English texts in groups with my friends.					
35	I like to talk to my friends about the English texts I have read.					
36	I like to help my friends with their English reading assignments.					
37	I like to tell my family about my English reading.					

38	I am happy when the English teacher requires us to do reading comprehension exercises in pairs or in groups.					
39	I believe that I can learn a lot if I read English texts with other people.					

3.2: Reading Self-Efficacy

Directions: Put a tick mark (✓) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following clues.

1=never true of me 2= sometimes true of me 3=cannot decide 4= usually true of me
5= always true of me

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
40	I) Perceived Reading Ability I believe that I will do well in reading in the absence of the English teacher.					
41	I feel that I am a good reader in the English language.					
42	In comparison to other skills I practise in English lessons, I am best at reading comprehension.					
43	I think that the best way to develop my reading skills is to work under the guidance of my English teacher.					
44	II) Challenge/Risk-taking I like reading hard, challenging English books or stories.					
45	I like it when reading comprehension questions in English books make me think hard.					
46	If the project is interesting, I can read difficult materials written in English.					
47	If the material written in English is interesting, I don't care how hard it is to comprehend.					

PART 4: Reading Strategy Use

Directions: Put a tick mark (✓) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following clues.

1=never true of me 2= sometimes true of me 3=cannot decide 4= usually true of me
5= always true of me

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
48	I) Metacognitive Strategy Use I set goals for my reading of English texts.					
49	I make my own decisions regarding when and where I read English texts.					
50	I vary my reading strategies based on my reading purpose and the type of text I am reading.					
51	I try to evaluate my own English reading progress.					
52	I plan corrective actions when I feel I failed to develop my English reading ability.					
53	II) Cognitive Strategy Use When I read English texts, I write down the main points in note form.					
54	When I read English texts, I guess meanings of new words from their context in the text.					
55	When I read English texts, I use bold writings, underlinings, illustrations, figures, etc. as clues to understand the text.					
56	When I read materials written in English, I try to relate the information in the text with my previous knowledge or experience.					
57	While reading English texts, I make pictures of scenes, events, processes, etc. in my mind.					
58	When I read English texts, I try to evaluate the writer's purpose carefully.					
59	I make a critical evaluation of the contents of the English text I am reading.					
60	III) Socio-affective Strategies I discuss with my English teacher about the English texts I have read.					
61	I discuss with my friends about the English texts I have read.					
62	When our English teacher gives us reading assignment, I do it with my friends.					
63	I seek comments from my classmates on my English reading comprehension work.					
64	I give comments on my classmates' English reading comprehension work.					

PART 5: Persistence in Independent Reading of English Texts

Directions: Put a tick mark (✓) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following clues.

1=never true of me
5= always true of me

2= sometimes true of me

3=cannot decide

4= usually true of me

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
65	I read works such as English fictions, newspapers or magazines every day.					
66	I read English fictions, newspapers or magazines every week.					
67	I read English fictions, newspapers or magazines every month.					
68	I read English fictions, newspapers or magazines during my vacations when schools close.					
69	I read English fictions, newspapers or magazines when my English teacher orders me to read.					
70	I read English fictions, newspapers or magazines just when I find them.					

PART 6: Access to Reading Resources

Directions: Put a tick mark (✓) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following clues.

1=strongly disagree

2= disagree

3=cannot decide

4= agree

5= strongly agree

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
71	I can obtain enough English books, fictions, newspapers or magazines in our school library.					
72	I can obtain enough English books, fictions, newspapers or magazines in public libraries.					
73	I can afford to buy English books, fictions, newspapers or magazines I want to read.					
74	I can read English texts of my interest on the internet.					
75	I have the possibility to download English reading materials of my choice from my mobile phone.					
76	It is difficult to find books, fictions, newspapers or magazines for out-of-class reading.					
77	For my English reading, I depend on the Grade 11 English textbook.					

Thank you again for your time and cooperation

APPENDIX III: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

University of South Africa (UNISA)

College of Human Sciences

Department of English Studies

Doctor of Philosophy and Literature in English

Observation on Selected Grade 11 Classes in Addis Ababa

1. **Date** _____
2. **Class/section** _____
3. **Teacher observed (Use code)** _____
4. **Lesson overview**
 - 4.1. Unit _____
 - 4.2. Title of the passage _____
 - 4.3. Page in the textbook (if passage taken from the textbook) _____
 - 4.4. Sources (if passage taken from sources other than the textbook) _____
 - 4.5. Objective(s) of the lesson (if stated in the passage or explained by the teacher, list them briefly):

5. Specific features of the reading lesson

5.1. How does the lesson begin?

a) Teacher's activities:

b) Students' activities:

c) Points to note:

5.2. How does the lesson proceed?

a) Teacher's activities:

I)

II)

III) _____

b) Students' activities:

i) _____

ii) _____

iii) _____

c) Points to note:

5.3. How does the lesson end?

a)Teacher's activities:

b) Students' activities:

c) Points to note:

APPENDIX IV: CONTENT ANALYSIS CHECKLIST
University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Human Sciences
Department of English Studies
Doctor of Philosophy and Literature in English
Content Analysis Checklist

**1. Title of the Grade 11 English
Textbook**_____

2. Unit analyzed _____

3. Title of the passage _____

4. Page in the textbook_____

5. Objective(s) of the lesson (if stated in the passage, list them briefly):

5. Specific features of the reading lesson as presented in the textbook

5.1.Lesson Beginning

a) Instruction(s):

b) Activity details (how the lesson beginning unfolds):

C) Points to note:

5.2.Lesson progression

Instructions and activities (Details of the lesson)

a) Instruction 1:

b) Activity 1:

a) Instruction 2:

b) Activity 2:

a) Instruction 3:

b) Activity 3:

5.3.Lesson ending (how the lesson is concluded)

a) Instructions:

b) Activities:

**APPENDIX VI: READING ATTITUDE SURVEY PROPOSED BY MCKENNA AND
KEAR (1990)**

ELEMENTARY READING ATTITUDE SURVEY (ERAS) ITEMS

Recreational attitude subscale

1. How do you feel when you read a book on a rainy Saturday?
2. How do you feel when you read a book in school during free time?
3. How do you feel about reading for fun at home?
4. How do you feel about getting a book for a present?
5. How do you feel about spending free time reading?
6. How do you feel about starting a new book?
7. How do you feel about reading during summer vacation?
8. How do you feel about reading instead of playing?
9. How do you feel about going to a bookstore?
10. How do you feel about reading different kinds of books?

Academic attitude subscale

11. How do you feel when the teacher asks you questions about what you read?
12. How do you feel about doing reading workbook pages and worksheets?
13. How do you feel about reading in school?
14. How do you feel about reading your school books?
15. How do you feel about learning from a book?
16. How do you feel when it's time for reading class?
17. How do you feel about the stories you read in reading class?
18. How do you feel when you read out loud in class?
19. How do you feel about using a dictionary?
20. How do you feel about taking a reading test?

APPENDIX VII: GROUPED SUMMARY OF OBSERVATION RESULTS

Reading Lesson 1.1

Cognitive strategy components

- explicit instruction on the three phases of reading, the SQ3R reading technique and the three bad reading habits devoid of focus on their applications in subsequent reading activities
- guessing meaning from contextual clues-not effective enough
- possibly, scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, analyzing details into important and less important and summarizing key points of a text
- no evaluative reading involved

Socio-affective strategy components

- some students' attempts to work in pairs and small groups to mitigate problems related to scarcity of textbook not because the teacher facilitated cooperative reading

Metacognitive strategy components

- think-aloud, self-assessment of one's reading progress and reading goal setting missing

Involved reading

- noise, inattention and off-task behaviour characteristic features of the lesson
- learner active involvement in the reading tasks not observed (students' demonstrating poor reading comprehension abilities)

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- not observed; lesson ended without the teacher giving homework or reading assignment

Availability of resources

- only textbook that was scarce in class utilized

Reading Lesson 1.2

Cognitive strategy components

- surveying strategy and its application included in the textbook but unfortunately skipped during instruction
- possibly, scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, analyzing details into important and less important and making notes of or summarizing a text
- no critical and evaluative reading not emphasized

Socio-affective strategy components

- most students seen working in small groups not because the teacher facilitated cooperative reading but possibly because of scarcity of textbooks in class
- teacher's attempt to encourage students to ask questions observed to be ineffective due end of class time

Metacognitive strategy components

- reflective reading, think-aloud, self-assessment of one's reading progress and reading goal setting omitted

Involved reading

- noise, inattention and off-task behaviour characteristic features of this lesson, too

- learner active involvement in the reading tasks not observed (students suffering from poor meaning guessing abilities)

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- not observed; lesson ended with the teacher giving homework but without encouraging out-of-class independent reading

Availability of resources

- only textbook that was scarce in class utilized

Reading Lesson 1.3

Cognitive strategy components

- Teacher failed to relate the reading techniques in mind map with the reading speed exercise
- possibly, scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, analyzing details into important and less important and making notes of or summarizing a text
- no critical and evaluative reading not emphasized

Socio-affective strategy components

- teacher's failure to encourage students to work in systematically formed cooperative groups limiting chance of applying socio-affective strategies

Metacognitive strategy components

- reflective reading, think-aloud, self-assessment of one's reading progress and reading goal setting not given attention

Involved reading

- noise, inattention, off-task behaviour and sleepy behaviour observed affecting negatively students involvement in the reading activities

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- although textbook presented for speed-reading appropriate to engage students in extensive reading, teacher's failure to utilize this possibility to link classroom reading with out-side class independent reading observed

Availability of resources

- only textbook that was scarce in class utilized

Reading Lesson 1.4

Cognitive strategy components

- skimming aimed to be implemented but not done adequately
- guessing meanings of new words and expressions from their contexts of use in reading texts
- discussion questions designed partly to involve students in evaluative reading skipped
- teacher's failure to utilize effectively texts deemed appropriate to use images in text comprehension

Socio-affective strategy components

- lesson constrained with loud noise, off-task and idle behaviours and scarcity of textbooks

- noise subsided later and the class went silent not because of involved reading but possibly due to task difficulty

Metacognitive strategy components

- discussion questions designed partly to involve students in reflective reading jumped
- think-aloud, self-assessment, reading goal setting overlooked

Involved reading

- noise, inattention, off-task behaviour and sleepy behaviour observed affecting negatively students involvement in the reading activities

Linkage between on-class and out-of-class reading

- overlooked like in the previous lessons

Availability of resources

- only textbook that was scarce in class utilized

Reading Lesson 2.1

Cognitive strategy components

- using schematic knowledge or previous experience in text comprehension
- asking questions and/or forming expectations and reading a text to get them answered or confirmed
- guessing meanings from contextual clues
- utilizing footnotes to make sense of a text
- reading a text critically/evaluative reading
- possibly, scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, analyzing details into important and less important and making notes of or summarizing a text

Socio-affective strategy components

- no explicit attention given to cooperative reading
- pair and group work not utilized

Metacognitive strategy components

- no think-aloud activities, self-assessment and reading goal setting
- components of metacognitive reading not evidently observed

Involved reading

- quite prevalent-each student actively engaging in reading the text and answering questions
- reinforced through teacher's probing questions and positive feedback

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- implemented via discussion about the life and works of the author called Petrakis
- extended reading activity in the end of the lesson possibly aimed to achieve this purpose

Resource availability

- hand out of text for each student

Reading Lesson 2.2

Cognitive strategy components

- competitive and evaluative reading
- asking questions and/or forming expectations and reading a text to get these answered or confirmed
- exploiting textual clues and text parts in reading comprehension work
- reading a text critically for deeper and broader meanings
- possibly, scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas, guessing meanings from contextual clues, making notes of or summarizing key points, analyzing details into important and less important

Socio-affective strategy components

- cooperative reading not explicitly focused on
- pair and group work not utilized

Metacognitive strategy components

- think-aloud implemented as teacher asked students to explain where and how they got answers
- evaluating one's reading progress and setting one's own reading goals not explicitly emphasized

Involved reading

- open-ended questions involving students in reflective reading
- T₂'s supervision and follow-up questions actively engaging students in the reading comprehension task

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- implemented through silent reflection followed by extended reading

Resource availability

- hand out of text for each student

Reading Lesson 2.3

Cognitive strategy components

- guessing meanings of new expressions based on textual clues
- exploiting textual clues and text parts in dealing with vocabulary task

Socio-affective strategy components

- cooperative reading not explicitly focused on
- pair and group work not utilized

Metacognitive strategy components

- might have come into play as students took varying levels of risk as they read
- possibly, Meta-cognitive strategy use in reflective writing
- think-aloud possibly coming into effect with T₂ requiring students to explain how they worked out answers

Involved reading

- occurred as students were absorbed in the task and read the text with high concentration

- T₂'s probing questions and insistence for further explanations contributing to students' high involvement in the task

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- not the focus of this lesson which centered on vocabulary work and reflective writing

Resource availability

- hand out of text for each student

Reading Lesson 2.4

Cognitive strategy components

- reading to get questions answered and/or expectations confirmed
- scanning for specific details and identifying text structure
- skimming to work out main idea and reading beyond the lines
- guessing meaning from context
- using prior knowledge in text comprehension
- inferential and interpretative reading
- summarizing texts in written form

Socio-affective strategy components

- cooperative reading not explicitly focused on
- pair and group work not utilized

Metacognitive strategy components

- reflective reading serving to encourage Meta-cognitive strategy use
- self-assessment and reading goal setting hardly included in the lesson
- reflective writing possibly involved use of Meta-cognitive strategy

Linkage between in-class and out-of-class reading

- possibly happened as teacher promised to come with another literary text in the next

Resource availability

- hand out of text for each student

APPENDIX VIII: GROUPED SUMMARY OF CONTENT ANALYSIS

A: English Textbook Used In Public Schools

Unit 1: Reading Lesson 1

Components of cognitive strategy

- Using schematic knowledge or prior experience to comprehend a text
- Using graphic organizers in text comprehension
- Establishing expectations of a text and reading a text to get questions answered
- Guessing meaning based on contextual clues
- Scanning a text to locate specific details and skimming it to work out its gist
- Making notes of important ideas or summarizing a text
- Drawing inferences based on available information
- Discriminating important from less important information

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Appears overlooked
- Selective attention and using prior knowledge practised in the lesson inadequate unless regularly encountered in subsequent lessons

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Collaborative reading according to given instruction
- Likely to be followed by teacher-led whole-class discussion

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Seems neglected also source of text indicated
- Only informed, sensitive and committed teachers strive to make students find the source of the text and read it

Unit 1: Reading Lesson 2

Components of cognitive strategy

- Using prior knowledge or experience in text comprehension
- Establishing expectation of what to come across in a text
- Reading to get question answered
- Guessing meaning on contextual clues
- Skimming a text for its main idea
- Note-making/summarizing skills

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Receives no explicit attention
- Students not encouraged to monitor their reading

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Overlooked
- All activities to be done individually unless teachers change the mode of interaction

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Lacking because lesson does not create opportunities for students to engage in out-of-class independent reading

Unit 3: Reading Lesson 1***Components of cognitive strategy***

- Using background knowledge or prior experience in text comprehension
- Forming expectations about a text and reading to check one's answers to a pre-reading activity
- Using graphic organizers to make sense of a text
- Scanning for specific details and skimming for main ideas
- Note-making or summarizing
- Evaluative and reflective reading skills
- Inferencing and prioritizing information according to importance possible to come into effect as students read through the text

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Metacognitive strategies of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting are not evidently emphasized in this lesson

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Collaborative reading that can be followed by teacher-lead whole-class discussion

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- classroom reading not linked with out-of-class independent reading in this lesson

Unit 3: Reading Lesson 2***Components of cognitive strategy***

- Using graphic organizer (picture of a scorpion) to make sense of a text
- scanning for specific details, skimming for main ideas and guessing meaning based on contextual clues
- note-making, making inferences and prioritizing information according to importance also likely to come into effect
- evaluative and reflective reading techniques which are amenable to independent reading

Components of metacognitive strategy

Lacking; Metacognitive components of think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal-setting strategies neglected

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Collaborative reading as a socio-affective strategy not emphasized

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Lacking; although the text potentially appropriate to lead students to out-of-class reading, no explicit attention given to this aspect of independent reading

Unit 3: Lesson 4

Components of cognitive strategy

- Using schematic knowledge in text comprehension
- Read with certain expectations and to check answers
- Using graphic organizer (picture of mosquito)
- Summarizing information and evaluating text quality.

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Lacking; think-aloud, reading goal setting, self-assessment overlooked

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Cooperative reading skim in which students support each other, share and negotiate understanding, give and receive feedback, involve in reciprocal thinking and take mutual responsibility

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Neglected; linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class reading not applied

Unit 5: Lesson 1

Components of cognitive strategy

- Using prior knowledge and textual clues in text comprehension
- Possible practice of scanning, skimming, note-making, inferencing, discriminating between important and less important messages and summarizing
- Evaluative reading (evaluating the effectiveness of the text)

Components of metacognitive strategy

- reflection on personal experience in relation to the text but, reading techniques of reflection on strategy application, self-assessment and reading goal setting overlooked

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Collaborative reading; students working together likely to compare answers, re-read parts of the extract jointly, discuss and negotiate answers and exchange feedback
- That is, students engaging in meaning negotiation, reciprocal thinking, peer feedback and shared responsibility

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Neglected; linkage between classroom reading and out-of-class reading not emphasized

Unit 5: Reading Lesson 2

Components of cognitive strategy

- Bringing background knowledge into the text and relate the text to none's experiences
- Scanning to locate specific details and skimming to work out main ideas
- Guessing meanings of new words based on the contexts in which they occur
- Possibly applying the techniques of making inferences based on given information, distinguishing important details from less important ones, making notes of useful points and summarizing key ideas

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Lacking; skills of reflecting on strategic choice, evaluating the contents of the text or the writer's purpose, assessing one's success in reading and setting reading goals neglected

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Collaborative reading; students working in collaborative pairs

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Neglected; classroom reading not extended to out-of-class independent reading

Unit 7: Reading Lesson 1***Components of cognitive strategy***

- Scanning for specific details useful to answer post-reading questions
- Use graphic organizers (pictures) in text comprehension
- Possible applying the techniques of scanning, skimming, making inferences, prioritizing details, guessing meaning from context and making notes

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Components of Metacognitive strategy such as think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting not included

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Not emphasized; no collaborative reading required explicitly

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Lacking; in-class reading not linked with out-of-class independent reading

Unit 7: Reading Lesson 2***Components of cognitive strategy***

- Skim-reading for main ideas
- Possibly using the techniques of note-making or summarizing, making inferences based on given information and analyzing information in terms of priority as in the struggle to comprehend the text

Components of metacognitive strategy

- The strategies of think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment, reading goal setting neglected

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected in this lesson too; no collaborative reading included directly

Link between in-class reading and out-of class independent reading

- Like in the previous lessons, no link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

Unit 9: Reading Lesson 1

Components of cognitive strategy

- Reading with anticipation of what to encounter in the text
- scanning to locate specific details and skimming to grasp main ideas
- Using imagery (graphic organizers via pictures, photographs and visualization)
- Guessing meanings of new words and expressions from their context of use
- Comparing texts (evaluative reading)
- Possibly note-making, inferencing and analyzing information according to importance

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Reading beyond the lines to making decisions and reflecting on one's experience in relation to the contents of a given text (not in the strictest sense)
- Think-aloud, self-evaluation and reading goal setting neglected

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Seems overlooked; no activity clearly devoted for this purpose

Linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading

- Neglected; no linkage between in-class reading and outside class independent reading

Unit 9: Reading Lesson 2

Components of cognitive strategy

- Skim-reading for main ideas
- Evaluating the contents of a given text
- Possibly for scanning specific details, guessing meanings from contextual clues, making notes, making inferences based on available details, sorting details into important and less important

Components of metacognitive strategy

- **Lacking**, think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting neglected

Components of socio-affective strategy

- Collaborative reading

Linkage between in-class reading and out-of-class reading

- **Lacking**; the issue of linking in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading not receiving attention

Unit 9: Reading Lesson 3

Components of cognitive strategy

- Skim-reading a to-be given text to grasp the main ideas of the different sections
- Possibly scanning to locate specific details, guessing meaning from context, note-making or summarizing, inferencing and discriminating between important and less important

Components of metacognitive strategy

- Neglected; think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given open attention

Components of socio-affective reading

- collaborative reading lacking focus

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class reading

- Not emphasized; link between in-class reading and outside class independent reading lacking

Unit 11: Reading Lesson 1***Components of cognitive strategy***

- Using a map and a picture (graphic organizers) to make sense of a text
- applying prior knowledge and applying prior knowledge in text comprehension
- Working collaboratively in comprehending a text.
- Skimming a text to grasp main ideas, making notes of key points and guessing meanings of new words or expressions from context

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Reflect on their views and justify them (the skills of reasoning, reflective reading, defending one's position and evaluating arguments)
- However, think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting overlooked

Socio-affective strategy

- Practised in the form of collaborative reading
- Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading
- Neglected; no link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading

Unit 11: Reading Lesson 2***Aspects of cognitive strategy***

- Using background knowledge or prior experience in text comprehension
- Read texts to get questions answered or answers confirmed
- Scan-reading texts to identify specific details and making notes
- Possibly skimming for main ideas, guessing meanings using contextual clues, making inferences and analyzing details into important and less important

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Neglected: think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting not included

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected in this lesson unlike in the first lesson in the same unit

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Like in the previous lessons, no link classroom reading with out-of-class independent reading

B. English Textbook Used in a Non-Public School**Unit 1.1: Reading Lesson 1.1*****Aspects of cognitive strategy***

- Reading texts to get expectations confirmed or questions answered
- Using schematic knowledge in text comprehension
- Using contextual clues to deal with keywords
- Scanning texts for specific details and skimming them for general ideas
- Reading texts critically (evaluative reading)
- Making inferences and analyzing details into important and less important
- Making notes of or summarizing key points

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Reading reflectively but think-aloud, evaluative reading, self-assessment and reading goal setting addressed implicitly

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; collaborative reading not openly emphasized

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Encouraging students to involve in out-of-class independent reading through emphasis on real-life texts such as magazines, graffiti, poetry, political speeches, personal letters and Tweets
- Encouraging students to self-select texts to enrich classroom library
- Provision of further resources

Unit 1.1: Reading Lesson 1.2***Aspects of cognitive strategy***

- Reading texts to get expectations confirmed or questions answered
- Using schematic knowledge in text comprehension
- Dealing with new terms using contextual clues
- Scanning texts for specific details (to answer questions) and skimming them for general ideas
- Evaluating the context of reading and the writers purpose
- Making inferences based on available information
- Analyzing details into important and less important
- Making notes of or summarizing key points
- Writing notes or summaries of important details
- Using graphic organizers to make sense of a text

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given cogent attention

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; collaborative reading not explicitly emphasized

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Encouraging out-of-class reading through provision of a further resource, a film
- Referring students to the Internet which is an important independent learning resource

Unit 1.1: Reading Lesson 1.3***Aspects of cognitive strategy***

- Scanning for specific details and skimming for main ideas
- Making notes of or summarizing key details
- Discriminating between important and less important information
- Making inferences based on available information
- Using graphic organizers in text comprehension

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Engaging students in reflective reading in the form of arguments and counter arguments
- Think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given cogent attention

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; collaborative reading not explicitly emphasized

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Encouraging out-of-class reading through provision of a further resource

Unit 1.2: Reading Lesson 1.4***Aspects of cognitive strategy***

- Reading with specific purpose in mind
- Focusing on key words and analyzing the contexts in which the terms are used
- Scanning for specific details and skimming for main ideas
- Making notes of or summarizing key points
- Guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues
- Analyzing details into important and less important
- Making inferences based on available information
- Using graphic organizers in text comprehension
- Exercising evaluative reading

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Reflecting on one's reading (expressing agreement and disagreement with the author)
- Think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given explicit focus

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; cooperative reading not clearly emphasized

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Not given cogent focus in this lesson

Unit 1.2: Reading Lesson 1.5

Aspects of cognitive strategy

- Reading with specific purpose in mind
- Scanning for specific details and skimming for main ideas
- Making notes of or summarizing key points
- Guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from contextual clues
- Analyzing details into important and less important
- Making inferences based on available information
- Using graphic organizers in text comprehension
- Practising evaluative reading

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Reflecting on one's reading (comparing/contrasting views and taking their own stance)
- Think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given explicit focus

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; cooperative reading appears to be overlooked

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Addressed by inspiring students to read George Orwell's novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four* and his novella *Animal Farm*

Unit 1.2: Reading Lesson 1.6

Aspects of cognitive strategy

- Reading to get expectations confirmed or questions answered
- Use graphic organizers to make sense of the text
- Scanning for specific details and skimming for main ideas
- Making notes of or summaries of key points
- Guessing meanings of unfamiliar words from context
- Discriminating details into important and less important
- Making inferences based on available information
- exercising evaluative reading

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Reflecting on one's reading; reflecting on one's views in response to arguments forwarded in a text
- Think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given explicit focus

Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; cooperative reading appears to be overlooked

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- cogently attention not given to link in-class reading with out-of-class independent reading

Unit 1.2: Reading Lessons 1.7 and 1.8***Aspects of cognitive strategy***

- Using graphic organizers in text comprehension and
- Scanning, skimming and contextual guessing
- Note-making or summarizing
- Discrimination information into important and less important
- Reading analytical (evaluative reading)

Aspects of metacognitive strategy

- Reflecting on one's reading
- Think-aloud, self-assessment and reading goal setting not given explicit focus


Aspects of socio-affective strategy

- Neglected; cooperative reading seems overlooked

Link between in-class reading and out-of-class independent reading

- Taken care of by introducing students to Yap, a poet, and his works and to a further resource-*Language Magazine* to initiate them to read and know more

APPENDIX IX: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE AND SUPPORT LETTERS



COLLEGE OF HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

23 November 2015

2015 CHS 024
 TF Metaferia
 Student: 50879480

Dear Mr TF Metaferia,

Decision: Ethics Approval

Name: Mr TF Metaferia
 Department of English Studies
 tekle.ferede2014@gmail.com
 +251 917500896

Proposal: A Study of Independent Reading in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Ethiopian Schools


Qualification: Postgraduate Degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Human Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee. Final approval is granted for the duration of the research period as indicated in your application.

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the College of Human Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee on 13 October 2015.

The proposed research may 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 (Name of unit/sub-unit) Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the 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.*

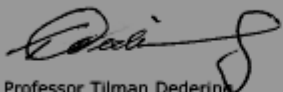


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Note:

The reference number [top right corner of this communiqué] 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 Human Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee.

Kind regards,




Professor Tilman Dederichs
Chair: CHS Ethics Review Committee
Department of History
Tel: +27 12 429 6869
Fax: +27 12 429 3221
Cell: 082 331 5608



Professor RMH Moeketsi
Executive Dean: College of Human Sciences



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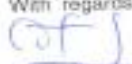

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 የቀመጠበት ቦታ: ADDIS ABABA - ETHIO

International Community School
 Greek Community School
 Benham Academy
 Andinet International School
 Nejash Ethio-Turkish International School
 British International School
 Bright Side International School
 Addis Ababa

Subject:- Request for Co-operation

Mr. Tekla Ferede Metafaria is a doctoral student with the University of South Africa (UNISA). Currently, he is conducting his doctoral research on Independent Reading Among Grade 11 Students in government, private and community schools. Therefore, the Ministry would like to request your school to allow him to collect data from Grade 11 students and kindly assist him in the process.

With regards,

 Mitika Beracha Hunde
 Head, Foreign Relations & Scholarship Office



CC:

- Foreign Relations & Scholarship Office
Ministry of Education

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 (The content of this document is for information only.)

Jimma University
College of Social Sciences and Humanities
Research and Graduate Studies Coordinating Office

Ref No. CSSH/RPG/6/5/08
Date: 13/03/2008

To:- Ayer Tena Preparatory School
Dejach Balcha Preparatory School
Menelik II Preparatory School
Dejazmach Wondirad Preparatory School
Yekatit 23 Preparatory School
Addis Ababa

Re: Request for Cooperation

Mr. Tekle Ferede, a member of the Department of English Language and Literature at Jimma University, is a doctoral student with the University of South Africa (UNISA). Currently, he is conducting his doctoral research on the practice of independent reading among Grade 11 students with particular focus on preparatory schools in Addis Ababa. The data collection methods include reading comprehension test, questionnaire, classroom observation and library reading follow-up. Since your schools have been chosen for the study, the project cannot be successful without your cooperation. Therefore, I request your office to kindly support Mr. Tekle Ferede in the process of data collection.

Yours Sincerely,

Tekle Gebreyehu (PhD)
College of Science and Humanities
Coordinating Research and
Graduate Studies Office



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APPENDIX X: LIBRARY RESOURCES IN A PUBLIC SCHOOL

APPENDIX XI: LIBRARY RESOURCES IN A NON-PUBLIC SCHOOL

