



**EXPLORING THE RELATION BETWEEN READING STRATEGY USE
AND READING COMPREHENSION AMONG FIRST YEAR WOLLO
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

BY: MUSEMA AMAN

MAY, 2024

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ADVISOR: GEREMEW LEMU

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN
LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN FULFILLMENT OF THE
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IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

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SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

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Approved by Board of Examiners

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External Examiner: _____ **Signature:** _____ **Date:** _____

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this dissertation is my work and that all sources of material used for the dissertation have been duly acknowledged. Moreover, it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

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Date of Submission May 2024

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to gain insights into exploring the relationship between high and low achievers' reading test scores and their use of reading strategies. In addition, the study was to probe the frequency, type and range of reading strategies used by EFL first year university students during academic reading.

The study employed mixed method. And it is descriptive correlational in design. The participants of the study were first year Wollo University Social Science Students. Using random sampling technique 135 students enrolled in the Communicative Skills course were selected.

Data were collected using questionnaire, reading test and interview. A questionnaire known as Survey of Reading Strategies by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) was used to gauge Participants' use of reading strategies. Additionally, reading Comprehension Test was utilized to assess students' overall reading proficiency. Thus, the survey with thirty items and the test with fifty reading comprehension questions were administered to all selected students. On the other hand, interviews with 12 students—six high achievers and six low achievers—were conducted to find out how they actually use and perceive reading strategies when reading academic materials.

The numerical data were computed and statistically analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequency counting, mean, and standard deviation), Independent sample t-test, Pearson Product Moment correlation and regression. Nonetheless, the qualitative data were thematically analyzed.

The findings of the study revealed that Wollo University first year social science students are categorized as medium strategy users. The frequency at which participants adopted reading strategies in academic texts was highest for problem-solving strategies, medium for support and for global reading strategies. On the other hand, in all of the use of three strategy categories, high achievers adopted higher frequency compared to low achieving students. The difference was significant.

The result also showed that there was a relationship between reading strategies use and reading achievement among students. High achieving students' use of GLOB and PROB strategies were significantly correlated to their reading scores. And, their use of SUP was not significantly correlated to their reading scores. Low achieving students' use of GLOB and SUP strategies, on the other hand, were significantly correlated to their reading scores. And their use of PROB strategies were not significantly correlated to their reading scores.

Moreover, global and problem-solving reading strategies proved to be a more powerful predictor of reading comprehension scores ($R^2 = 0.89$ and $r^2=0.80$) respectively. It means the two category of reading strategy more strongly influenced students' achievement in reading score.

The qualitative data result validated that low achievers and high achievers are different in terms of their reading strategy use.

Based on the findings, it was recommended that awareness raising should be made to enhance students' use of various strategies at higher frequency and low achievers in particular must be encouraged to employ the reading strategies more frequently in general and global reading strategies in particular.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AAU:	Addis Ababa University
CSs:	Cognitive Strategies
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ESL:	English as a Second Language
GLOB:	Global Reading Strategies
GLL:	Good Language Learning
L2:	Second Language
LLS:	Language Learning Strategies
MARSI:	Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory
MRS:	Metacognitive Reading Strategies
PROB:	Problem-solving Strategies
RCS:	Reading Comprehension Strategies
SD:	Standard Deviation
SILL:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
SORS:	Survey of Reading Strategies
SUP:	Support Reading Strategies.
TEFL:	Teaching of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL:	Test of English as a Foreign Language
ZPD:	Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter first presents the background of the study. It then explains the problem statement, the research objective, the research questions, the significance, the scope and limitation of the study. The last section outlines the reminding chapters and then presents definition of key terms of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Since English was first introduced in Ethiopia as a language of instruction in the 1940s, it has grown in importance as a teaching and communication tool (Gessesse, 1999; Kitaw, 2017). As stated in education and training policy of our country Ethiopia, English is selected to be the medium of instruction for secondary and higher education (MOE, 1994; MOE, 1918). Moreover, it is also one of the subjects that students are taking starting from KG to higher levels of education. Interestingly, this language has attracted an excessive amount of interest in Ethiopia in other contexts, including commerce, government, international organizations, and internet-based international interactions. Therefore, it may be claimed that Ethiopian students ought to at the very least be proficient in English in order to respond to academic demands and to the expanding needs of their emerging nation (MoE, 2018).

However, during the last 40 years, many researchers including university EFL instructors in Ethiopia have bitterly complained about poor English language performance of university students. They argue that even the most highly selected students registered in universities have severe problems while communicating with their English instructors (Belilew, 2015; Kitaw, 2017). As to why this happened, Gessesse (1999: 25) explained, “The language proficiency of many of the students who come to the Universities is low perhaps because of the poor language background that they bring from the primary and secondary schools”. Gessesse’s reasoning coincides with the finding of road map of MOE (2018) which states that even students who managed to join in any Ethiopian universities struggled to read and write in English language. This denotes that university students have still continued to experience a substantial difficulty in utilizing English language for academic and communication purposes. As a result, many

educators pondered English language as a barrier for students' learning (Getnet, 2016, p. 13, cited in Kitaw, 2017).

In order to mitigate this problem, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front formed a new Ministry of Education (MOE) and formulated a new educational policy in 1994. As per guidelines of the policy document, the MOE has taken several steps to develop students' communication skills in English. Even more recently, in January 2016, Education Strategy Centre developed a concept note to reform the education sector in accordance with the national vision and national development goals. Despite the fact that visible gains are not observed, many efforts have been made to improve students as well as teacher's English language skills. Frequent trainings had been given for English language teachers, improvement programs like ELIC are designed and implemented, and English language clubs (reading clubs) are established in schools and educational institutions.

In a country like Ethiopia where English is taught as a foreign language, and where there is no sufficient exposure to practice the language, reading is an essential tool in providing the students with input for their English language development (Dallagi, 2021; Nezami, 2012; cited in Al-Jarrah & Ismail, 2018). Researchers who studied L2 reading earlier emphasized on demonstrating that reading was in some way beneficial to enhance language learning. Through their studies, they viewed that learners' overall linguistic deficiencies are usually determined by their level of reading ability (Hudson, 2007). In other words, when reading gets a problem, it usually results in students' overall language poor performance. This is because reading is used as an asset for the development of other language skills: listening, speaking and writing (Alfassi, 2004; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010). Substantiating this, Gorsuch and Taguchi (2010) stated that there will not be much language learning if there is little reading.

Reading is also vital to acquire knowledge in all disciplines. It is the most important skill to master in many nations, including Ethiopia. Stronger reading abilities will help ESL/EFL readers advance and develop more in their current and future academic and professional careers. Reading provides Ethiopian students with more access to information than any other English language skill, as they, like many ESL/EFL readers, have greater access to electronic databases via the Internet. Thus, students require reading skills to analyze and comprehend an excess of knowledge and facts available through the Internet and other media. Yamashita (2013) asserts,

“the more text L2 learners read, the more input they obtain” (p. 249). Hence, without reading, it is terribly difficult for the students to gain content knowledge and learn other academic subjects (Al-Jarrah & Ismail, 2018; Dallagi, 2021; Yenus, 2017).

Reading comprehension, because regarded by many of the researchers as a finished product of reading process, is equated to reading. Goodman and Goodman (2009), for instance, assert that reading means reading comprehension, and “the study of reading is the study of reading comprehension” (p. 92). Nonetheless, Alderson and Urquhart argued that “knowing the product does not, of itself, tell us what actually happens when a reader interacts with a text.” (1984, p. Xix). Quite the opposite, Rice (2009: 2) argues that reading comprehension is not an end product of reading. It is rather a process over which a reader constructs meaning interacting with the written text. In any case, viewing reading as a simple end result ignores the reading processes or steps a reader takes to arrive to a specific interpretation. Likewise, viewing reading comprehension as mere process of reading ignores what the reader gets out of the text. Because reading is both a process involving all the mental activities and mechanisms that occur during the course of action and a set of products of comprehension and newly acquired knowledge (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984).

According to Block (1986), teachers adhere the process not the product because “Knowledge about the process, not just the product of reading is needed if we are to move from head-scratching to designing programs which truly meet the needs of our students.” (p. 463). However, many teachers’ practical evidences in Ethiopia exhibit the other way round. They considered reading as a finished product as a result of the situation of the classroom, where various reading teaching methods have for many years overlooked the process of understanding written text in favor of focusing on its results (Yenus, 2017). For instance, teachers who regularly give reading comprehension tests may classify readers as high or low achievers based on the test results and the knowledge of their students' prior learning. Yet, these results do not reveal enough about the reading processes that these students underwent. This was because reading comprehension was thought of as a passive skill that required the learner to read a text and provide answers. This approach did not give pupils advice on how to proceed in the event that they encountered difficulties and treated reading comprehension as a product (interpretation)

rather than a process (creating meaning). Yet, as a large body of recent studies revealed, reading is an active process that should not be taught that way (Ibid).

Reading strategies are the cognitive related factor that readers choose and apply consciously to monitor, repair or comprehend what they read (Anderson, 2005; Bernhardt, 2011; Grabe, 2009). The use of these reading strategies upholds students retain new vocabulary from the text as well as absorb general information in the reading text at extremely quick speeds. This is important because it is frequently thought that reading strategy is the main factor influencing students' disparities in how quickly and successfully they master reading skills in a second or foreign language. As noted by Alderson (2000), proficient readers have adaptable personal reading methods, and their comprehension of the texts depends largely on those skills. Skilled readers employ a variety of reading strategies more flexibly than untrained readers do, which results in more effective reading comprehension (Pressley, 2006; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). Therefore, investigations into readers' reading strategies do, in fact, shed light on ways to support readers in becoming more competent and effective readers.

Although known for sure that reading a lot of academic content quickly, efficiently, and effectively is a crucial skill for university students, most of them still struggle with it; consequently, they read slowly and do not comprehend what they're reading (Dallagi, 2021; Trudell, 2019). Likewise, most Ethiopian university students' abilities to comprehend what they read and make meaningful notes seem to be inadequate (Belilew, 2015). Many instructors including the present researcher at Wollo University where this study was carried out complained that almost all of their students are unable to understand even concise and clear written instructions of the reading tasks. In fact, reading problems are the main reason for student failure. Without the ability to read, students will have a difficult time, not only in their academic, but also in the world of work. This happened because reading is one of the most difficult and tedious subjects owing to many skills in reading that have to be mastered by students. As a result of this, all learners, especially those learning a second language, need to have strategies for making reading easy and interesting to get the most out of their reading.

Several earlier studies have gathered information about learners' reading techniques. In these studies, many university students were found to be underprepared to handle the demands of academic reading. The two common issues mentioned in the earlier studies were the learners'

lack of awareness of their own cognitive processes to control their reading ability (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), and lack of effective reading strategy use that affects reading comprehension efficiency (Koda, 2007). Thus, identifying the reading techniques that students employ when they read academic texts in connection to FL proficiency was highlighted as a research paradigm that requires attention (Singhal, 2001; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). However, studies on the awareness of cognitive process (metacognition) in the field of reading were relatively under-researched (Ahmadi et al., 2013; Singhal, 2001). Only few have been conducted with the interest of determining what influences the reading comprehension process. These studies take into consideration readers' performance on specific comprehension tasks as well as the cognitive processes involved in reading which are generally impossible to be detected using conventional reading exams.

Different researchers examined the relationship between strategy use and reading comprehension based on various definitions and categorizations of reading strategies. These studies provide insight into the connections between reading proficiency and the use of strategies from various perspectives. Some studies (such as Alderson, 2000; Noli and Sabariah, 2011) investigate whether students who performed better in reading reported using strategies more frequently, while other studies (such as Hong-Nam, 2014) investigate whether using strategies more frequently was a factor in better reading performance.

Other researchers, Liu and Zhang (2008), Phakiti (2003) and Y. Wang and Liu (2010) also explored the relationships between strategy use and reading performance. They found that there is a positive relationship between the two variables. In contrast to these studies, Shang (2010) and Zuweldi et al. (2018) found that there is no relation between reading strategies and reading performance. These researchers claim that performance did not always improve with the use of a strategy to a greater extent.

From the above explanation, there appears to exist disagreement the relations between reading techniques and proficiency in a language. This is at least in part a result of the use of various strategy definitions, categorizations, and measurement methods as well as the existence of various theories regarding what constitutes proficiency in language performance. Another significant factor that contributes to these differences is that these studies were carried out in

various cultural contexts, and participants' backgrounds and educational levels varied (See the detail in 2.6).

Therefore, since there is dearth of consensus concerning the relationship between reading strategy use and reading performance among researchers, there is room to go further in this field. In order to yield comprehensive solutions for enhanced reading performance of foreign language learners in the Ethiopian context, the researcher of this study aims to make a contribution to this field by supplying data about reading strategy use among first-year social science of Wollo University students.

As a whole, Ethiopian university students require a high level of reading proficiency in order to cope with the educational demands of their academic studies. The students are required to understand reading materials, to read widely, to combine a variety of resources, to analyze, discuss, evaluate, reflect and relate parts to a whole, and to apply knowledge in real world situations. That is, they are required to deeply process information as one of the general objectives of the Education Policy is to promote deep (or critical) thinking, creativity, problem-solving capacity, and independent learning (ETP, April 1994; MOE, 2018). Content area modules for tertiary level are also developed based on this objective. However, in reality, the university students were not actively engaged in reading; they were trained to read mechanically through memorization and to passively receive information on the page. Together with poor reading background that students would bring, the approach used to teach reading was adversely affecting the performance and reading strategy use of students.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Since research on the qualities of reading and the approach to teaching reading resumed in the early 1970s, L2 reading has received "unprecedented research attention" (Koda, 2005, p. Vi). The rationale to bestow due attention to reading was mainly because in the contemporary world of science and technology, reading comprehension is widely regarded as one of the most important school achievements since it serves as the basis for both learning and academic success (Abebe, 2012). It is actually a difficult task, perhaps the most complex mental exercise we will ever perform in our lifetimes. It requires patience, practice, and a lot of effort. It's a challenging and slow process. Naturally, the more practice we get, the more proficient readers

we become (Julian, 2009). It is also a challenging cognitive task requiring a high degree of maturity and integration of several different talents and skills (Solomon, 2000).

For different reasons, it is common to observe many Ethiopian students struggle to comprehend written texts. In our classroom today, a sizable portion of students find it a struggle to succeed in the reading comprehension that they need to do as they lack the necessary skills required to understand the passages given to them. These learners are unable to read and comprehend lessons found in textbooks and other materials provided by the teacher. They do not act as though they are in control of their reading. They may realize when they come across unfamiliar concepts that they are not getting the meaning of what is being read, but they do not know how to go about helping themselves to understand the text better. Lacking in reading skills can result in being inefficient in that language and cause getting poor grades from reading tests and also from other courses as well since without comprehending efficiently what you read can result in unsuccessfulness in the academic field.

Students who consistently perform poorly in any subjects may experience low self-esteem, little motivation for their learning, and subpar academic performance. Especially, when the failure is in their reading, it becomes very disappointing because it definitely constitutes serious difficulty to the overall teaching and learning process. The problem is more acute at tertiary level because reading is required in about 90% of the work done in college courses (Nutall, 1996). Given that reading is more crucial to passing all university courses and that students acquire knowledge of both the English language and content-area subjects through reading (Abiy, 2006), the issue may even be taken more seriously or have a greater negative impact on language teaching/learning than the other language skills at the tertiary level.

Fully cognizant of this critical issue, local researchers such as (Gessesse, 1999; Solomon, 2000; Belilew, 2015 and Yenus, 2017) have so far carried out different studies on reading of tertiary students. In their findings, nearly all of them noted that the students' proficiency in reading in the English language and their application of reading techniques appeared to be below the standard and level of reading that their courses and course materials required.

Even though these research results enlightened the people the severity of students' reading problems as well as recent developments and trends that had not been widely known for long, the reality at present suggests that more research in the area is still required to adequately address the issues with academic reading. This is due to the fact that EFL instructors still have a high level of discontent with the way reading is now taught and dissatisfied with the reading abilities of their students (Belilew, 2015; Yenus, 2017).

In addition to these findings, the current researcher's teaching experience in various higher institutions gave him insights that students at university level lack the required reading competence. Many of his students have been observed facing difficulties in performing reading tasks and activities. They struggle to deduce and understand the implied and sometimes stated meaning of a sentence. Moreover, despite knowing the meanings of the words separately, they find it difficult to connect them in a meaningful and accurate way. The deeper meanings of sentences in particular, as well as the meanings of paragraphs and text in general, are difficult for them to understand even though they can decode the words. Some other students may not have the prior knowledge necessary to understand the text readily, or they may have that knowledge but be unable to apply it. Furthermore, many students struggle to identify main ideas and supporting details, and they cannot recognize relationships and determine the sequence of events. They cannot differentiate facts from opinions, and they cannot make their own evaluations and judgements.

The situation of other Ethiopian university students is quite similar in that a large number of tertiary students still lack a required reading competence and have still difficulty in constructing accurate comprehension of their course module or reference materials (Belilew, 2015; Yenus, 2017). This leads the present researcher to believe that many Ethiopian university students do not possess a reasonable degree of mastery of reading skill to successfully respond to their academic demands.

The poor reading performance of tertiary students may be due to various reasons. However, the present researcher feels that students' lack of capability of how to apply reading strategies and awareness about them could be the possible factors that affect their reading comprehension. This feeling was not, however, arisen from a mere conjecture of the researcher. Instead, his long experience as an English instructor in various higher institutions allowed him to observe that

many EFL university students, as mentioned earlier, experience difficulty in performing reading tasks and activities. The researcher at Wollo University, where he currently works, has noticed that these university regular and extension program students frequently perform reading tasks poorly and receive low scores on given reading tests and examinations. Many of them were uncertain of what reading strategies are, when to use them and how to use them. That is, they did not know what methods were efficient for academic reading, nor did they know how to enhance their reading ability. Consequently, they lacked the ability to organize, oversee, and assess their own reading abilities.

The use of reading strategy during reading is, therefore, considered one of the best ways to help learners solve many reading problems and thereby develop their abilities in all basic reading skills (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). So, understanding the various reading strategies employed by students is worthwhile. This is because, at the very least, success is guaranteed if one is aware of the reading strategies that underpin the learning task—conscious readers are more driven and have control over their education than unconscious readers (Grabe, 2009; Li, 2010). Additionally, it encourages students to develop into good strategic readers who are more aware of when and how to use reading techniques (Ahmadi & Pourhossein, 2012, quoted in Pourhose in Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). Conversely, those who are less self-aware appear to employ tactics less successfully. These students usually struggle with learning on their own, making it difficult for them to fully benefit from classroom activities and apply them in meaningful ways outside of the classroom (Grabe, 2009).

Given this, it is conceivable that Wollo University students are unaware of and do not use the full spectrum of reading techniques that can be used as tools to address reading challenges and promote efficient reading comprehension. This practical experience, puts the current researcher in a position to have the solid opinion that students' reading performance has to be addressed immediately. He thus decided to investigate students' awareness of reading strategies and how they apply them in their academic reading.

In Ethiopia, a few studies have looked into EFL reading strategies, but most of them have not included university students as subjects. As far as the researcher knowledge goes, only related few local studies by Solomon (2000), and Belilew (2015) were undertaken emphasizing on tertiary students reading skills and their strategy use.

Solomon (2000) conducted a qualitative study on a sample of Mekele undergraduate students' reading techniques at high and low levels of language proficiency. In this study, the data were gathered through guided interviews. His research shows that neither the kind of techniques utilized nor their frequency among the participants varied noticeably. The finding further revealed that “success in reading is related to a combination of an awareness of appropriate and effective strategy use and language ability” (Solomon, 2000, p. 273).

The research conducted by Belilew (2015) on the relationship between the reading strategies of Dila 2nd year university students use and their reading comprehension was, however, quantitative in type, and data were gathered via questionnaire and reading comprehension test. The data were then analyzed through descriptive statistics and Pearson coefficient correlation. His findings indicate that Ethiopian EFL learners fall into the category of medium strategy users and are below the required level of reading competency. Furthermore, the application of reading strategies did not exhibit a positive or negative correlation with the reading achievement.

The current study is quite similar to many other previous studies in terms of the research framework and procedures used to examine the different variables. But it differs from the previous studies in several aspects. This study (a) focused on the relationship between students' reading comprehension abilities and reading strategy use; (b) made use of the reading-specific survey of Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002),)that is, unlike the aforementioned local studies which mainly utilized Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a kind of instrument used to measure students' overall language learning strategy use); (c) used a mixed methods and (d) came up with different results in the setting of the study.

Apart from these, studies in Ethiopian EFL context on FL reading strategies in general are scant, implying that the issue has not received adequate attention. Particularly, to the best knowledge of the researcher, there is no empirical study on the relationship between reading strategies used by students and their reading test scores in Ethiopia. That is why Belilew (2015) pinpoints the critical need for additional research to shed light on how Ethiopian EFL students use FL reading strategies. To bridge this gap, identifying the students' reading strategy use and its relation with reading performance is important. The present study is, therefore, borne out of meeting this purpose.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective of the Study

The general objective of this study was to gain a comprehensive understanding about relation between the adoption of high and low achieving first-year Wollo University social science students' reading strategies and their reading achievements. The study was also to look into the metacognitive awareness and perceived reading techniques used by the students when reading in English.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives of the Study

To help attain the above main objective of the study, this research specifically aimed to:

1. Determine the frequency and variety of reading strategies used by Wollo University first-year social science students during reading academic materials.
2. Explore the type and frequency of reading strategy used by high and low achiever students.
3. Determine the differences (if any) in reading strategy use between high and low achievers.
4. Find out the extent reading strategies predict reading comprehension of first-year Wollo University students
5. Identify whether the reading strategy used by high and low achievers correlate significantly with their reading achievement.
6. Examine if there were any reading strategies believed by researchers to be ineffective that the subjects of the study would say they used.

1.4. Research Questions of the Study

In relation to the aforementioned objectives, the research questions set below served to answer:

1. What type and frequency of reading strategy do Wollo University first-year social science students use in their academic reading processes?
2. What type and frequency of reading strategy do high and low achiever students use in their academic reading process?
3. Is there any significant difference between high and low achievers in reading strategy use?
4. To what extent do reading strategies predict students' performance in reading comprehension test?
5. Does the reading strategy used by high and low achievers correlate significantly with their reading achievement?
6. What do learners with high and low FL reading achievement say about their use of FL reading strategies while reading academic materials?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The present reading research result might be significant for various bodies. Firstly, it may be beneficial to university students to raise their awareness about how to employ reading strategies and encourage them to find out what strategies work best for them as individual learners. Increasing students' awareness of their own cognitive processes helps them acquire and enhance their comprehension skills in reading (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Additionally, insights derived from the research may enlighten students to practice strategy training activities so that students can become not only more efficient in their reading but also take greater responsibilities in their learning approaches. Furthermore, the finding of this study is a useful tool for comprehending how EFL reading strategies are used at the university level by both high and low achievers.

The study may also raise teachers' awareness about the relation between reading strategies and reading proficiency of their students. It also presents the language teaching field with additional information that contributes to an explanation of reading acquisition difficulties and provides

Ethiopian educators with a sample of reading strategies profile. In addition, the study may help teachers to obtain more insights into how students read.

Finally, this descriptive study is thought to have a contribution to the literature in reading strategy by giving a good picture of language learners. That is, since Wollo University is a relatively new institution of higher education, no studies on students' use of reading strategies have been conducted. Thus, interested researchers may use the result of the study as a guidance and source of information for their future academic research work. Hence, the study will serve as a starting point and a basis for future research in Ethiopia in this area, and it also highlights the need for additional research to supplement the current findings in the area of reading comprehension.

1.6. Scope of the Study

The study concentrates on Wollo University wherein the researcher teaches English as a foreign language. Since the study set out to mainly explore the relationship between reading strategy used by high and low achieving students and their reading scores, the study confined itself to Wollo University first year, social science regular students enrolled for the course of Communicative English Skills-I (FLEn 1011).

Selecting just one English skill is the focus of the second scope area. Although many first-year students lack the four major language skills, it might not be feasible to look into every one of these skills in a single study. Therefore, the emphasis of the study is further reduced to one of receptive language skills (reading). Consequently, results might not offer enough support for other language skills and may not be transferable to even other receptive language skills (i.e., listening).

The third area of focus is the selection of particular variables. There are many intricate factors involved in both reading comprehension and reading strategy. Nonetheless, this study is confined to learners' reading skills and to the three reading strategies of Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002): problem-solving (cognitive), global (metacognitive) and support reading strategies. As a result, findings for variables other than those listed above might not be conclusive.

1.7. Limitation of the Study

Although the data gathering and analyses were accomplished cautiously to guarantee the validity and reliability of the research, the research has encountered certain limitations which constrained the study to be far from being perfect in many respects.

First, owing to financial and time limitations, the research site was limited to a single university. As a result, care is needed when trying to make generalizations of the results to larger populations in Ethiopian context.

Second, the research was not longitudinal; rather, it was cross-sectional. It is, therefore, possible that covariate factors influenced the participants' perception. And because the data are cross-sectional, this limits how the results can be interpreted.

Third, the SORS, which is based on a 5-point Likert-scale system, was the primary instrument used to evaluate students' reading strategies. The study is, therefore, restricted only with those reading strategies that are reported by the subjects themselves. Such features of a retrospective self-reported survey may, to a certain extent, affect its reliability and the validity of the data in the study.

Fourth, a correlation study can only indicate the strength or direction of a relationship between two variables. It does not imply causation. Thus, it is not possible for the researcher to determine whether students who have higher reading scores are aware of metacognitive strategies.

1.8. Organization of the Paper

This study is composed of six chapters. The first chapter of the dissertation is an introduction where it discusses historical background of learning strategies as well as reading strategies. Following this, it entertains statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitation of the study and definition of key-terms consecutively. Chapter two is devoted to a review of related literature where it deals with reading in various learning theories and teaching methods, the theoretical framework of the study, definition of reading, models of reading, classification of reading, local and foreign studies and reading instruction. Chapter three describes design, setting, samples and sampling techniques,

data collection instruments, data collection procedures and data analyses methods of the study. Chapter four deals with purposes, setting, data collection procedures of the pilot study and lessons gained from the pilot study. In chapter five, the findings, analyses and discussions of the study are reported. Finally, chapter six presents the summary of the study, conclusion of the study, implications and recommendations of the study.

1.9. Definitions of Key Terms

Numerous technical terms used in reading research may have different meanings for different individuals. In order to mitigate the possibility of misunderstandings regarding specific terminology within the present study, the definitions of key terms are presented as follows:

Bottom-up reading strategy: is the decoding of the letter, sound, word, structures and sentence meaning (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

Global or Metacognitive Reading Strategies: are strategies involving how learners read to the reading text, and which strategies they use to plan, monitor and evaluate their reading comprehension (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

Interactive reading strategy: refers to amalgamating the bottom up and the top-down strategy to obtain meaning of the text.

Metacognitive awareness: is a study participant's consciousness of their reasoning and choice of reading-related tactics, such as structuring textual data to improve comprehension (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

Metacognitive monitoring: is participants' conscious or active text processing levels, including their ability to spot contradictions and make assumptions about the text's meaning or potential applications in the future in reading (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

Metacognitive reading strategies: are methods for learners to coordinate their own reading process and help them to control their reading process from beginning of reading, while reading and after reading.

Problem-solving or cognitive reading strategies: are Strategies which help students think about and comprehend reading skills, and used to solve their problem when students encounter difficulties while reading (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

Reading achievement test: is measuring how successful students are in achieving course or curriculum objectives.

Reading strategies: are the type of reading tactics use by students. In this research, the students' reading strategy use was one or more specific strategies (out of three) 1. Global reading strategies, 2. Problem- solving reading strategies 3. Support reading strategies owned by each student. Their reading strategy uses were identified from the questionnaire they answered.

Supporting reading strategies: are strategies used by students to support them overcome knowledge limitation in reading skills (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

Survey of reading strategy: refers to the adaptation of the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), which were developed and categorized into three sub groups based on the suggestion by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002).

Top-down strategy: employing non-linguistic knowledge to "predict" the meaning of the text to be read aloud and comprehend it through a constructive and inferential reading process.

The next chapter attempts to review the related literature regarding conceptions and approaches to reading and the theoretical foundation of reading strategies.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

The present chapter comprises eight separate sections, with the first section providing a background to the subsequent sections. The first part of this section deals with the reading skill in light of various learning theories and language teaching methods. The second section, on the other hand, endeavors to provide reading models (bottom up, top down and interactive) whereas the third section concerns itself with providing definitions of reading strategies and the classifications of reading strategies. Following this, the fifth, sixth and seventh sections present the type of reading strategies, local and abroad studies, and reading instruction respectively. The last section makes an attempt to present a theoretical framework (Model) and conceptual framework of the study. Next is the detail.

2.2. Reading in Various Learning Theories and in Teaching Methods

Owing to the influences of the development of numerous disciplines, such as learning theories, research in reading has made reading to be viewed differently, moving from being seen as a receptive process to interactive one (Ellis, 2008). The structuralists' (behaviorists') period in the 1950s and the psychologists' (cognitivists, constructivists, and social theorists') period from 1960 onwards were the two major different periods during which this view difference was experienced in transformational phases (Alexander & Fox, 2008; Fan, 2010). These learning theories, in addition to explaining how people process information and ultimately learn reading skills, have adjusted several pedagogical decisions and inspired many instructional approaches to be tried out.

In 1950s, as has been said by Omaggio (1993), behaviorist psychology emerged viewing language as not a mental phenomenon, it is rather behavior. It is, like any other forms of human behavior, learnt by a process of “habit formation brought about by the repeated association of a stimulus with a response” (Omaggio, 1993, p. 45).

In the context of reading, behaviorists elucidated reading skill as a decoding skill, and learners' reading skills were only limited to deciphering printed words. Readers are, thus, assumed as actors who sequentially progress in text processing beginning with the written symbol and ending with a semantic output (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Reading, therefore, was thought as a process wherein the reader receives all of the decoded messages without reacting to it cognitively (Ibid). This environmentalist perspective made language research and teaching practice to be concerned on the link between stimuli, such as word, and responses, such as word recognition or decoding (Alexander & Fox, 2008).

In the behaviorists reading instruction (especially, in the Audiolingual method), teachers bestow an emphasis on teaching students to read starting from lower- level processes or basic language units through stage-by-stage process, for they believe that any learner cannot read printed pages unless he/she studies beginning from the code or the writing system (Boyle & Scanlon, 2010). As a result of the influence of the audio-lingual method, teaching reading was predominantly focused on using reading as a tool to study vocabulary and grammar or as a means of honing pronunciation (Silberstein, 1987, cited in Abebe, 2012). This occurred when the typical feature of linguistic analyses of audiolingualism period, which was mainly at the sound and word level, was carried over to the realm of reading. Consequently, reading was regarded to be drills of isolated skills, and phonics-based instruction were presented in class to teach reading (Alexander & Fox, 2008). Fluent reading has, however, been a rare outcome of the audio-lingual approach because reading was considered secondary. Moreover, in audio-lingual teaching and learning procedures, students' motivation, beliefs, anxiety, and self-confidence were not taken into account (Stern, 1983).

As a result, the Audiolingual method was criticized as it disregards the learner's ability to process information and give text meaning. As noted by Samuels and Kamil (1988), in behaviorist approach “little attempt was made to explain what went on within the recesses of the mind that allowed the human to make sense of the printed page” (p. 25). This perspective on reading is the result of significant adjustments related to shifting theories about reading. Therefore, learning without the active role of the learner was taken as basic limitation of the behaviorism, and which, according to Larsen-Freeman (2000) cause for the emergence of cognitive skill learning theory.

Consequently, constructivist learning theory became a recognized school of thought for second-language acquisition in the 1970s (Brown, 2007, p. 9). As to this theory, knowledge is created by the learner rather than being directly acquired from the environment. Accordingly, the theory focuses on how students build their own conceptualizations of the world they live in using both prior knowledge and new information (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010, p. 8). It incorporates both the social and cognitive aspects of learning.

Owing to the influence of constructivist learning theory particularly cognitive constructivism, research in reading and instruction commenced to stress on meaningful reading rather than memorization. The emphasis on meaning eventually brought to L2 reading the idea that learning occurs when learners are actively involved in a process of meaning and knowledge construction as opposed to merely receiving information. Thus, the cognitive theory posits that reading is a conscious process that calls for text-based and schematic comprehension abilities that entail information analysis and interpretation (Alexander & Fox, 2008). Because of this, reader's role shifted from decoder to the text participant, to the text user and the text analyst that made reader a very important variable in the reading process and hence got a necessary attention in reading research and instruction (Ibid). Consequently, reading instruction was focused on meaning rather than on text structure.

Therefore, the period was marked by a wide variety of instructional methods and exercises that placed an emphasis on the learner's background knowledge and experience, which were later recognized as essential components of learning to read (Tierney & Pearson, 1994). Teaching reading strategies became one of the major teaching activities, which helped students learn the knowledge and skills they needed to read more effectively. These techniques involved defining expectations, identifying main ideas, interpreting and inferring ideas from a text necessary to deal with complex academic challenges, skimming ahead to fill in the context, and others. Teachers started teaching their students these techniques to help them read the entire text because teaching students to read by speaking out loud each word makes their understanding transient and liable to loss (Ausubel, 1968, cited in Abebe, 2012). The ultimate aim of this instruction was to give students a variety of useful approaches to reading texts, including aiding them in the definition of reading goals and strategies, using pre-reading activities to improve conceptual readiness, and teaching them how to deal with challenging syntax, vocabulary, and

organizational structure. Teachers used these reading strategies in the classroom with these goals in mind to help students overcome linguistic barriers, increase their awareness of how they are understanding and learning, and develop autonomy in language learning (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Oxford, 1990).

In 1980s, the socio-cognitive paradigm of research in reading took both the cognitive and the socio-cultural factors into account in the study of reading. The impact of Social constructivism's during that time led to group orientation becoming useful in reading. The zone of proximal development (ZPD), a concept developed by well-known social interactionist Lev Vygotsky in 1978, served as the foundation for this learning theory. According to Vygotsky (1978), Zone of proximal development is "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p.86). It is, in short, the gap between what learners can do on their own and what they are able to do with assistance from others. Such interaction held between adults and children in their ZPD is more important for the cognitive development than those who learn by themselves (Ibid).

Social constructivism theorizes that "children are born into a social world, and learning occurs through interaction with other people" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 39). Humanistic and constructivist ideas are combined in social interactionism, which holds that social context has an impact on learning. The premise of this method is that learning occurs through interaction between two or more people who have varying levels of skills and knowledge (Gunduz & Hursen, 2015; Williams & Burden, 1997).

Reading instruction is seen as a social process in which social interactions and interpersonal connections have a big impact on how well students read. The ability to derive meaning, which is frequently co-constructed via interaction of teacher and student, indicates how effectively you read. In line with this, Vygotsky (1978) said that reading is best practiced socially in the classroom, where teachers encourage students to work at a higher level and develop more independence. In order to make students become fully effective learners, teachers, as more knowledgeable people, should play a significant role in supplying them with the strategies, skills, concepts, language, and vocabulary they need.

However, reading is currently thought of as a multi-level cognitive process, and in order to understand a written text, a reader must engage in productive interactions with it. Because of the socio-cognitive paradigm of reading research, this method considers both cognitive and sociocultural elements while studying reading. As a result, reading and learning to read are both private activities and social, collaborative processes.

2.3. Concept of Reading

2.3.1. Definition of Reading

2.3.1.1 Difficulty to Define

As a result of the explosion of research into the nature of reading in the early 1970s, reading has become liable to the number of views, explanations and theories, which made it possess numerous definitions. Consequently, it becomes very difficult to find a widely accepted definition of the term reading in literature. Perhaps the challenge in coming up with a definition of reading that everyone can agree on has been the concept of reading itself. According to Maxwell (1974:7), "The root of the difficulty is that the one term reading is not adequate to devote the different components involved in it" (as cited in Gessesse, 1999). Hence, concocting reading definition that entertains the whole elements of the term reading, which is an 'omnibus' skill that involves lower and higher order skills and comprises educational, psychological, sociological, theoretical and applied linguistics became very difficult (Nassaji, 2003; Barnett, 1989). Another reason to define reading differently was the misunderstanding and confusion among researchers themselves on the term. This was supported by the statement made by Aebersold and Field (1997:5) which says, "The act of reading is not completely understood nor easily described". Therefore, it is deemed important to discuss and denote the meaning of reading as viewed by various scholars in the section that follows.

2.3.1.2. The Meaning of Reading

Reading is an active cognitive process that readers engage in to create meaning (Goodman, 1973; Rumelhart, 1977; Nuttall, 1982 and Fatemi et al., 2014). Nevertheless, they disagree on how to accomplish this meaning. Based on their perceptions of the reading process, authors define reading. As a result, the definitions of reading fall into one of two categories: reading's lower

processing level or its higher processing level. Because of this, other experts have developed contrasting theories about what reading actually is.

Reading was once thought to as a passive skill, and people thought that if a text's vocabulary and grammar are within a reader's grasp, they can understand it. Williams (1984), for instance, described reading as a process of symbol decoding (i.e., symbol identification and association with suitable meaning). In a similar spirit, structural linguists like Bloomfield and Fries have a tendency to see decoding and linguistic comprehension as two separate parts of reading; the former is the process of recognizing how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language and the latter is the interpretation of sentences, paragraphs, and/or entire texts based on word-level meanings (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Reading is, thus, decoding, which involves being able to recognize the letters (graphemes) as symbols for sounds in spoken language and combining them into words, which again create sentences with meaning. These accounts imply that the capacity to decode has a significant impact on one's ability to read. However, decoding without understanding is just verbal abuse (Duke et al., 2011).

As has been noted time and again in literature, L2 reading is not as simple as it might seem. Rather, it is a highly complex cognitive and linguistic process that requires a wide range of hierarchically related skills and abilities involving from the ability to recognize symbols and word meanings to evaluation skills (Alfassi, 2004; Nassaji, 2003; Pressley, 2000). Nuttall (1996) elucidated these hierarchically related reading skills at word level as: decoding, deciphering, recognizing, articulating, pronouncing, understanding and responding.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) on their part identified various elements and knowledge domains in the reading process. They divided the processes of skilled readers into two categories: lower-level processes in which readers confer a high attention to vocabulary and grammar recognition while reading, and higher-level processes in which readers focus on comprehension, schemata, and interpretation of a text. These authors contend that in order for a fluent reader to be as effective and reliable as they should be, a combination of lower and higher-level processes may be necessary. Similarly, Nunan (2006) and Birsch (2011) cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri (2016), defined reading as a set of abilities that involves extrapolating meaning and making sense of written materials.

Reading is also perceived as process that involves a reader, a text and an author. The act of reading starts with the thoughts and opinions of the writer and ends with the understanding of readers. Nutall (1982) explains this as follows:

... While reading the reader will always have to draw on his interpretative skills to reconstruct the writer's assumptions. He has to read with enough skill and care to make the right inferences about what the writer means and has to remain objective enough to recognize differences in viewpoint between himself and the writer (Nutall, 1982, p. 10).

Three methods reading the lines, reading between the lines, and reading beyond the lines can help readers develop their interpretation skills. Thomas (2001) explained these methods as follows:

‘Reading the lines’ involves decoding the words to reconstruct the author’s basic message. ‘Reading between the lines’ involves making inferences to reconstruct the author’s implied messages. ‘Reading beyond the lines’ involves judging the significance of the author’s message and constructively applying it to other areas of knowledge and experience (p. 1).

This suggests that readers must comprehend what they read as well as its implications and constructive application to other experiences to fully benefit from reading.

Thus, reading is the process of closely aligning what you take away from the text with what the author intended. Reconstructing the writer’s assumption is not, however, a simple operation, for it requires for readers to have the competence to comprehend the ideas in a text and their connections. In line with this, in his psycholinguistics view that blends language and thought, Goodman (1973) stated that reading is a multifaceted process by which a reader makes text meaning using both visual and non-visual information. The visual information comes from the text or any form of writing that can be seen in it, while non-visual information originates in the reader's mind and represents prior knowledge about language, reading, and the world at large. The output of the two combination constitutes reading which is a skill whose main goal is to achieve comprehension. In reality, reading cannot be acknowledged in the truest sense if there is no comprehension (Duke et al., 2011; Grabe, 2009).

Summing up, readers may learn more about the subject if the definition and nature of reading skill are made clear. In order to fully comprehend the cognitive, linguistic, and complicated nature of reading comprehension, it is necessary to have clarity on the reading process and its crucial components of it. To this effect, it is good to see how researchers posited various models to describe the reading process. These are often categorized as bottom-up, top-down and interactive models of reading. As a result, the section that follows looks at both the philosophy guiding these various reading models and the fundamental nature of the reading processes involved.

2.3.2. Models of Reading

Models of reading (reading theories) can be explained as “a set of assumptions about what happens when a reader approaches a text i.e., the way in which a reader derives meaning from presented material,” (Mitchell, 1982, cited in Gessesse, 1999). In other words, the models account for the actual reading process, how reading comprehension occurs and what processes are involved in attaining comprehension. In classroom, the reading models or Theories are the tools that teachers can use to help students with their reading activities and instruction. This primarily depends on what is required in terms of instructional materials, teaching and learning context, and teacher-student capabilities.

Therefore, discussing how readers comprehend printed pages here may help readers to visualize and realize theories that have a potential to explain components of reading and their roles in the process of reading (Alvermann et al., 2013). It also supports to further learners’ understanding on the nature of reading and reading comprehension (Grabe, 2009), which ultimately fosters them to promote reading at any level of education (Alvermann et al., 2013). Again, it assists in marking reading difficulties and providing indispensable instructional help based on theories and guidance for learning and teaching reading. Owing to this, many psychologists proposed three reading models to explain the workings of brain during text processing namely the bottom-up, top-down and interactive models.

2.3.2.1. Bottom-up Reading Model

According to Hudson (2007), the bottom-up reading process was proposed by Gough (1972). Then, it gained much popularity in the field. In fact, most of early research on second language reading was predicated on a bottom-up, passive understanding of the skill (Carrell, 1988).

Bottom-up approach is referred as (data- driven, text-driven and word- driven) because, as the name “bottom up” indicates, the reading process commences and emphasizes at the bottom of the reading with decoding small units such as letters and words and progresses to large units of the text or moves to a higher-level of encoding in the quests for making sense of the text (McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Nunan, 2005; Simensen, 2007; Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Similarly, Hedgcock and Ferris (2009) stated that the model, being linguistically oriented, deems reading “is initiated at the “bottom” level of text structure, from discrete, visual units, such as graphemes, morphemes, and words” (p. 17). They went on saying that in order to derive meaning from written text, the reader must progress to higher level units like sentences, paragraphs, and chunks of written discourse.

Simply put, in the bottom-up reading model, reading is envisioned as a strictly sequential process where meaning begins by identifying each small unit in the text, such as a letter, and then sounds are attached. From there, word meaning is built up into words, words into sentences, and sentences into text. The overall meaning of the text is only realized at the end of the process (Alvermann et al., 2013; Bernhardt, 2011; Ellis, 2008; Fatemi et al., 2014 and Harris, 2005). The process follows one single direction, that is, from the part- to- the whole processing of text or text to the reader. Once a reader has gone through the processing steps and mastered these various skills, meaning would be acquired typically using lower-level reading processes. It is therefore impossible to comprehend any reading material effectively without sufficient decoding skills.

Bottom-up reading proponents assert that this model's key characteristic is its emphasis on the purpose of the actual physical text. The model sees the text as a “chain of isolated words, each of which is to be described individually” (Martinez-Lage, 1995, p. 70, as cited in Alahirsh, 2014). In other words, the text in this model is considered to be information that is presented as a purely linear arrangement of letters and words. Text in this model is, therefore, solitarily important to

attain comprehension, for it is regarded as a sole site to carry the meaning of the text from which the reader takes it (Moskovsky et al., 2015). Readers are thus viewed as passive recipients who simply ingest the information contained in the text alone (Fatemi et al., 2014; Gough, 1977, cited in Davies, 1995; Nassaji, 2003), and thus, the meaning that one reader acquires from a text is expected to be identical with that of other readers reading the same text.

In bottom-up models of the reading process, reading is basically a translating, decoding, or encoding process, and readers must employ their linguistic skills to decipher the text's meaning. These linguistic skills are restricted to lexes and syntax of the text which, according to Gascoigne (2005), are the sources of textual meaning. Reading tasks in EFL classes that target these two linguistic skills include finding or underlining examples of tenses or grammar structures, scanning a text for relevant information, looking up synonyms or definitions for words in bold, paraphrasing, and breaking words down into syllables (Abott, 2006; Munoz, 2010). During this process, a teacher typically uses vocabulary and grammar rules to help students concentrate on the lesson. The words are the foundation of the entire reading process, and by identifying each word, students derive meaning from context. In this model, words are stressed individually, and quick word comprehension is crucial.

Therefore, teachers in this model are usually found checking on literal comprehension to make sure that their students have understood the basic or surface meaning of the text, which is in fact the lowest level of understanding. Understanding and obtaining explicit information—such as facts, vocabulary, dates, locations, and times presented in the form of questions in the text are necessary for this kind of comprehension. Questions of this nature have clear, direct answers in the text. And students are urged to exploit the bottom-up reading strategies and exercise these reading tasks to be proficient decoders and good text interpreters. They learn the meaning by making sense of words from their context, using what is known to comprehend and learn the unfamiliar (Smith, 2004). Thus, it seemed that the ultimate goal of this model creation was to enable readers achieve their final goal, which is to make them memorize and recite a text. This was what has been taking place in the traditional churches and Quranic schools in most part of Ethiopia (Abiy, 2006; Gessesse, 1999).

Despite enlightening to our linguistic understanding in the process of reading, the bottom-up paradigm view of reading has undergone criticism. As argued by Carrell (1988), Eskey (1988) and Gascoigne (2005), the bottom-up model, which emphasizes phonological processing or the capacity to decipher letters and words, is crucial but insufficient for proficient reading, for the reasons listed below:

First, it is text bounded in that readers obtain meaning through exclusively linguistic decoding process underestimating the role of the reader's background knowledge and experience; and the text is also usually separated into isolated parts (individual words and sentences) to which readers usually give too much emphasis, and this prevents readers from getting a complete meaning. Second, the reader is not given any guidance regarding how to interpret sentences or how to deduce a text's meaning from its letters and sentences (Samuels & Kamil, 1988). Another drawback mentioned by Hedgcock and Ferris (2009) concerns with the model's failure to provide a well-described means of how information is processed at various stages. Even another is that Bottom-up processing takes a lot of work and places a tremendous strain on working memory (Smith, 1971, cited in Davies, 1995). A burden like this could be "counter-productive, forcing the reader to focus on lower-level sources of information such as letter-sound correspondences at the expense of other sources of information" (Davis, 1995, p. 60). When reading comes to an end, this emphasis causes readers to read text slowly and easily forget what they have read. Yet again, it "does not really deal with how higher- order comprehension processes (such as integrating sentences and propositions together) takes place" (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989, p. 467). Due to these limitations, the bottom - up view of reading became less popular. Consequently, reading has transformed in to another important phase.

2.3.2.2. Top-Down Reading Model

According to Clapham (1996), the focus on mental processes since the 1970s has led researchers to view reading from the perspective of top-down theory. This theory is a comprehension-driven theory as opposed to the idea that decoding serves as a foundation for comprehension and that learning occurs when students are engaged in a process of meaning and knowledge construction. The model has gained popularity as a result of the increased significance of the learner in SLA research. The reader's cognitive and language competence were then recognized as they played the vital role in the making of text meaning. In the view of this model, in order to comprehend a

text, students rely on their knowledge and background, and their mind is where the text processing starts.

Reading is, therefore, viewed as a skill that involves both the ability to extract meaning from a text and the ability to contribute knowledge to a text (Alderson, 2000; Ellis, 2008). Put it simply, reading is an active cognitive activity in which a reader makes an effort to understand a text by using prior knowledge or background information (Ellis, 2008; Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; Harris, 2005; Tracey & Morrow, 2006).

A top-down (reader-driven or conceptually driven) processing approach is predicated on the idea that proficient readers use their own knowledge and background to anticipate, decipher, and draw conclusions (Carrell, 1988; Mikulecky, 2008, cited in Mehdi, 2017). Proponents of the model view that a reader's ability to understand a text depends almost always on their prior knowledge of the subject matter. People who read were thought to start the process of deriving meaning from the text in their minds by drawing on prior knowledge. This perspective therefore held that the interaction between the text and the readers' prior knowledge was crucial for meaning-making (Carrell, 1988; Gascoigne, 2005; Harris, 2005).

In addition, readers bring expectations to the text to make predictions about its content and discard sections of the text they deem unnecessary to support those predictions (Farrell, 2009; Nuttal, 1996). Put another way, when readers' predictions seem inaccurate, they will carefully reread the text to adjust or replace their initial guess (Carrell, 1988; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

Therefore, a good reader in this model is viewed as one who simplifies word recognition by using prior knowledge and prediction abilities (top-down processing) and simultaneously uses word recognition knowledge (bottom-up processing) to enable higher level text interpretation (Eskey, 1988; Barnett, 1989; Gascoigne, 2005). Similarly, Grabe & Stoller (2002) stated that using their prior knowledge, experiences, and understanding of how language functions, readers predict what they will come across. Because of this, readers approach the reading process with some preconceived notions about the world, which they then draw upon to interpret a text; for instance, students' preexisting knowledge and expectations aid in the meaning-building process when they read a text (Brown, 2001).

To illustrate the model further and make it clear, Nuttall (1996) describes the top-down processing approach using the metaphor of an eagle's eye view of the landscape. She suggests that when the eagle is at a great height, it can see a large area spread out below. "Understanding the nature of the whole terrain, its general pattern and the relationship between various parts of it, far better than an observer on the ground," the eagle can see from its elevated position (1996, p. 16).

Readers in the eyes of this model select only relevant information which fits their purpose for reading. Thus, relying on the theoretical postulation which the model principally operates (i.e., selectivity in reading), a reader, based on his/her anticipations, selects only the most plausible interpretations from available cues in the linguistic input (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). This selectivity enables students to focus on particular input elements while minimizing the quantity of information they need to retain in short-term memory. Therefore, the model defined good readers as individuals who interpret what they read by looking beyond the literal meaning of the page and filtering concepts in the text through their past knowledge. These interpretations also involve a judgment of the value of the ideas in the text. Particularly, in this digital world, reading by selection becomes a necessity.

The reader and the text have distinct characteristics in this paradigm. Both are the two physical entities which are important to perform the reading process (Aebersold & Field, 1997). By itself, a text cannot convey meaning; rather, it only provides readers with instructions on how to reassemble the text's meaning (Koda, 2007). That is to say, text elements like italics and bold font make it easier for readers to find key information in a document. As the model says, texts are the things that writers have written down and that readers are expected to read, look for, and interpret based on what they take from the text and what it means to them. As comprehension increases, the reader contributes different information to the text, but the text itself remains constant. Since the reader is thought to possess meaning rather than the text itself, the process of producing meaning essentially moves from the whole to its parts rather than from parts to whole. Accordingly, readers in this paradigm are those who anticipate meaning, read lengthy passages at once, and pay no attention to individual letters. Instead, they compare what they already know to the meaning they infer from the text (Bycina & Dubin, 1991; Carrell, 1988; Mikulecky, 2008

cited in Mehdi, 2017). The implication is that in comparison to a printed page, the reader actively participates and provides more information.

Considering reader as an important variable in the process of reading came from the work of Goodman (1967), a pioneer to explicate reading as playing a psycholinguistic guessing game where language and thought interact, or, to put it another way, a dialogue between the text and the reader. As to his model, meaning does not come from the printed letters alone. It entails a conversation between language and thought. While reading, readers formulate theories, make educated guesses about what might happen next, and then verify and test their hypotheses (Ibid). Therefore, a reader “interacts with a message encoded by the writer concentrating on his/her total prior experience and concepts he/she has attained, and the language competence he/she has achieved” (Goodman, 1973, p. 162). This denotes that reading is more than just taking in information from a text passively. It is an active process that leverages the interaction between the text and the reader's prior knowledge. Semantics, syntax, grammar, and the general world are all included in this knowledge.

Therefore, the reader, rather than the text, being at the heart of the reading process, reconstructs a writer-coded message presented as a graphic display. Graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic language levels within the text serve as the three levels of language that represent the three sign systems that Goodman has proposed as a top-down reading model. This model is based on the idea that readers reconstruct text meaning by using their prior knowledge of these sign systems. As a result, readers first make use of their understanding of the visual and phonetic aspects of English, then they apply their understanding of syntactic restrictions, and at last they are aware of the semantic restrictions associated with their understanding of the meanings of words (Ibid). Hence, Goodman (1967:13) contends that proficient readers use their understanding of syntax and semantics to lessen their dependency on the text's visual cues.

Hence, grapheme-phoneme knowledge is not regarded as the most important source of knowledge in this model (Goodman, 1967), as the model held that readers need less graphic information on the reading text to understand it, the more familiar they are with the topic and text of their reading. Therefore, to infer what the writer means and what information is intended in the text, readers must be proficient in "syntactic and semantic systems of the language to reduce their dependence on the print and phonics of the text" (Goodman, 1967, p. 60). According to

Vacca et al. (2006, p. 23), the syntactic system of language is readers' understanding of how language functions, while the semantic system of language is the schemata readers carry over to a text in the form of prior knowledge, experiences, conceptual understandings, attitudes, beliefs, and values. Once readers have these two pieces of information, they can utilize them to check or correct, confirm, and construct new hypotheses while reading (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Carrell, 1988).

In reading classes, as the top-down model offers a greater attention to some reading skills, such as skimming and locating main ideas, integration of information, prediction, inferences and content guessing which concentrate on the meaning of the word or text rather than decoding (Hashem, 2009), teachers quite often employ various techniques (top-down reading strategies) to enable students to construct meaning of the text (Nuttall, 1996). One of these strategies is the use of pre-reading strategies. The use of pre-reading strategies in class is uphold students' interest in the topic and motivate them, help them to predict or guess the meaning, and support students prepare for the context of the reading (Saricoban, 2002).

Students' use of their own knowledge and experience to make predictions, interpret, and draw conclusions (top-down strategies) is something that reading instruction can assist them with when their reading moves from top "higher level" mental stages, and moves through several steps down to the "lower level" stages (Barnett, 1989; Fatemi et al., 2014; Gascoigne, 2005). To this effect, students possess a skill of overall guesses about the text and then try to find the author's message. As an initiator, a teacher can thus provide some thoughts for making generalizations about the subject. The next step is for the students to analyze the text's content. Therefore, teaching reading through top-down approach in classroom is beneficial to enhance students' use of reading techniques and reading comprehension. For instance, Salataci and Akyel (2002) who taught reading strategies through top-down approach to university students for four weeks found that these strategy knowledge increased participants' reading comprehension test results as well as their awareness of metacognitive strategies.

Despite their contribution to our understanding of how reading is processed, Top-down models have a number of shortcomings. Davis (1995), for instance, claims that a top-down approach places a heavy emphasis on high-level abilities aimed at emphasizing the significance of

prediction, inference, guesswork, and going for the gist. The model achieves this at the expense of paying attention to letters, words, or even details; he feels that doing so implies that the model cannot account for beginning readers who may prefer paying attention to more bottom-up features (Ibid). Readers will consequently read very slowly, which will have an impact on their understanding. Again, readers who are unfamiliar with the subject matter of the text being read may find it challenging to come up with theories about what will happen next (Eskey, 1988; Samuels & Kamil, 1988). Unfamiliarity can also make it challenging for L2 readers to perform reading comprehension without giving the text's words and sentences much thought. Yet again, the model does not explain the processes used in hypothesis making (Grabe, 2009). So that readers are not aware how they comprehend the text meaning. Still another is that the model ponders readers as the main source of information (reader's hypothesis and background knowledge) and fails to explain the results (comprehension and learning) of the reading experience itself (Grabe, 2009, p. 89). The final weakness of the model relates to the idea that mature readers are more proficient than less-skilled readers in their guessing and dependence on context (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). However, Dennis (2008 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani and Sabouri 2016) refuted that students who possess an adequate vocabulary are able to explain the meaning of passages more quickly than those who must infer the meaning of unknown words from context cues. As has also been provided evidence in their studies by Briggs et al. (1984), top-down approach did not help readers who had attained automaticity in their word recognition abilities (cited in Solomon, 2000).

Consequently, research had begun showing that both the aforementioned models were equally important. The importance of the text in reading cannot be neglected altogether because it is along with the text that the reader matches his/her background knowledge. Similarly, the role of reader in reading cannot be disregarded because it is the reader who uses the clues in the text to interpret based on his/her knowledge of language and the world. Both models, therefore, were recognized as they had certain purposes to serve in particular situations. As a result, an interactive approach to which two authors were accredited namely Rumelhart (1977) and Stanovich (1980) came to stage as a new model.

2.3.2.3. Interactive Model

The interactive model, which amalgamates background knowledge and textual information and provides a more thorough description of the reading process that has become popular as a substitute for top-down and bottom-up models due to the significance of the reader and the text to the process came to light (Davis, 1995; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). The notion that "language is processed simultaneously at different levels" led to the development of the interactive processing paradigm (Flowerdew & Miller, 2010:167-8). As to this model, to improve reading ability, bottom-up and top-down processing must be coordinated in an interactive manner. Thus, the model became one of the most promising methods to the theory of reading since it was formed by trying to eliminate the weakness of the two models. And hence, it is the most effective model (Anderson, 1999), which has received more support when compared to the previous two (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

Therefore, many researchers were compelled to show less desire to favor one of the two models, for they could realize that both models have equal and crucial importance. One of them was Kintsch who contends:

Without sensory input (bottom-up) we could neither perceive, nor comprehend, nor think. However, perception, comprehension, and thought would be equally impossible without a memory or knowledge component (top-down). It makes no sense to ask whether one is more important than the other: Nothing happens without both. So, the question for the theorist is not top-down or bottom-up, but how do these processes interact to produce fluent comprehension? (Kintsch, 2005, p. 2).

Similarly, Nuttall (2005:16) writes that top-down and bottom-up processing are "complementary ways of processing a text. They are both used whenever we read; sometimes one predominates, sometimes the other, but both are needed." Bycina and Dubin (1991) also stated that fluent comprehension cannot be achieved without a thorough knowledge of a significant number of the details learned through some bottom-up processing as well as without a thorough understanding of the overall topic of the text learned through some top-down processing.

The interactive model basically describes how aspects of both top-down and bottom-up reading processes operate by interacting with one another to translate printed or written text to meaning

(Anderson, 1999; Bernhardt, 2011; Bycina & Dubin, 1991; Grabe, 2009 and Stanovitch, 1980). Unlike 'bottom-up theories of reading,' which describe how each reading stage comes after the other in a sequential order, 'interactive theories' do not recognize this sequential order. As noted by Eskey (1988), an interactive model is "interaction between information obtained by means of bottom-up decoding and information provided by means of top-down analysis, both of which depend on certain kinds of prior knowledge and certain kinds of information-processing skills." (, p. 96). Thus, with the use of both top-down and bottom-up techniques, the interactive model emphasizes both what is written on the page and what the reader adds to it. It sees reading as a conversation between the reader and the text (Rumelhart 1977; Stanovich 1980).

The model was first formulated by Rumelhart in 1977. Urquhart and Weir (1998) summarized Rumelhart's model saying "... once a Feature Extraction Device has operated on the individual Information Store, it passes the data to a Pattern Synthesizer which receives input from Syntactical, Semantic, Lexical and Orthographic Knowledge, all potentially operating at the same point" (p. 45). This notion refers to two distinct ideas: the reader's general interaction with the text, where the reader reconstructs the text's content using information from past knowledge; and the interaction of multiple component skills, which vary from rapid lower-level automatic skills to higher-level strategic comprehension skills and work together simultaneously in the process (Alderson, 2000). Comprehending arises from these interactive variables functioning concurrently, instead of sequentially, as these two levels of interaction are complementary to aid readers in understanding the meaning of a text and how it relates to other texts (Grabe, 2009; Kintsch, 2005; Koda, 2007; Tracey & Morrow, 2006).

The text's meaning in this paradigm is not, therefore, restricted to the reader's mind or the printed page. It rather came about as a result of reading synergy, which is an interaction between the reader's knowledge that is already stored in their mind and the information included in written language. In order to create the meaning of the text being read, readers are to be actively and interactively involved (Babashamsi et al., 2013; McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Readers are thought to be actively and interactively engaged in the sense that, as has been repeatedly stated, they must rely on both the text and their prior knowledge to construct meaning (Nassaji, 2003, p. 268). They also extract information by simultaneously integrating information from different sources, such as word-level knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and various kinds of schemata that

they have stored (Rumelhart, 1977). Therefore, readers who work to perfect both their bottom-up recognition skills and their top-down interpretation skills achieve fluent and accurate reading (Babashamsi et al., 2013; Eskey, 1988).

Such a reader uses effective reading techniques that, in general, reflects two types of knowledge: language skill and background knowledge. The former refers to the reader's linguistic capacity for meaningfully interpreting written or printed symbols, and the latter is his or her familiarity with the outside world (Hedge, 2000; Rumelhart, 1980). Missing either of the two skills can jeopardize Comprehension (Rumelhart, 1977). However, Stanovitch (1980) contends that in such a situation, the expert reader makes up for it by deciphering a word by using knowledge from another source, such as contextual cues or prior knowledge. So that the reader can understand the writer's intentions simply. He goes on to say that information processing and cognition are not just intertwined, but that "a process at any level can compensate for deficiencies at any other level" (Stanovitch, 1980, p. 36). That is, readers, who are temporarily weak on a certain reading component, counterbalance with another component for effective reading processes.

In fact, it is crucial for university students learning in English in FL context to have a strong foundation in both higher level and lower-level information processing skills. Scholars defined an efficient reader, as the one who is able to master fundamental bottom-up and top-down strategies; as well as an appropriate contents and formal schemata. Therefore, it is necessary for EFL instructors to tie each reading theory to reading teaching by drawing out its practical applications.

To get the most out of every student in the area of reading comprehension, however, requires teachers who can adapt their responses to each circumstance and each student's abilities within a particular text because Ethiopian university classrooms entertain sociocultural diversity. Therefore, teachers should examine the linguistic proficiency of their students as well as the depth of their cultural and content schema. In addition, it is recommended that EFL teachers place a focus on teaching reading strategies that encourage students to use their prior knowledge when approaching any reading task. At the same time, linguistic knowledge should be developed to help students get past any textual obstacles they may encounter while engaging in their

reading (Bycina & Dubin, 1991). As a result of the application of such reading strategies, students' memory and comprehension will be improved (Ibid).

Interactive reading theories, like other reading model types, have also drawn criticism. Rayner and Pollatsek (1989) for example, showed his firm conviction against considering Rumelhart's (1977) model as a comprehensive model of reading, owing to its failure to explain the ground upon which different kinds of hypotheses are produced. Again, as argued by Gessesse (1999), the model is inadequate to represent the process of reading. As to him, reading is complex in its nature and not a case of solely utilizing different skills or sub-processes; it is influenced by factors such as purpose, cognitive level of the reader, and by affective variables such as attitude, interest and motivation which interactive model could not address. Another is that interactive model like other models, as noted by Vacca et al. (2006), is not directed towards reading as communication; it does not account for the text's communicative functions and the surroundings in which it is to be read; instead, the interactive including other models is concerned with the sole interactions of skills and processes. Still another is that the interactive model like other models did not give an account for how meaning is constructed, nor did it explain the extent to which different sources of knowledge are important in the interaction process. Yet again, owing to excessive emphasis on the individual reader, the interactive model does not seem to offer ample considerations for the role that social and cultural factors play in the reading experience (Vacca et al., 2006).

After examining various reading theories and their consequences for reading in a second language, we will now shift our attention to one of the factors affecting reading which may have an impact on learners' target language reading ability. This factor is known as efficient and inefficient reading strategies. Since reading strategies consist of one forms of LLS, the next section discusses the concepts related to language learning strategies (LLS).

2.4. Language Learning Strategies

2.4.1. An Overview of Language Learning Strategies Research

In the process of learning, it is common to see some students learn things very fast and well, and some other students may have difficulties with understanding things quickly. Some of the

variations in how pupils learn language in general and reading in particular can be attributed to a wide range of circumstances. The usage and acquisition of techniques must take into account the individual variations of many learners.

Numerous researchers have made an effort to understand how learners acquire knowledge, what constitutes successful learning, and why some learners learn more efficiently than others. By looking into the learners' methods of learning, these questions might be resolved (William & Burden, 1997). Hence, it would be most helpful to give a brief overview of language acquisition strategies in the part that follows prior to dealing with a specific type of strategy (i.e., reading strategies).

Over the last two score years, the field of language teaching and learning has seen a significant paradigm shift, with a focus now more on students and their learning than on teachers and their instruction. This was the result of unsuccessful research endeavors to find out a single teaching method, classroom management method, and instructional material that work consistently, across all classes, with all students, to promote language learning (Brown, 2007; Oxford, 1990). The shift started to take shape when linguists' view on language changed. According to Nunan (2013:51), prior to the 1970s, language was thought of as a set of forms that students or their teachers needed to understand. The ultimate goal of language instruction of the period was to assist students own a set of good language habits that they could put into practice by memorizing dialogue and pattern drills (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 10). From the 1970s onward, however, due to the development of the information-processing model of language learning in cognitive psychology, researchers commenced to view language as a vehicle for conveying meaning (Ibid). As a result, language pedagogy shifted towards considering how learners' actions could impact their language learning outcomes (Kazi & Iqbal, 2011; Wenden, 1987).

Alongside this recent change in focus within which learners were given greater consideration and prominence in studies on the acquisition of second languages, the idea that aptitude did not determine one's success in learning a language was becoming more and more prevalent. This signifies that language success depended quite heavily on the individual learner's endeavors. Success in second or foreign language learning had, then, been relied upon how each individual student approached and managed their own learning of language (Dornyei, 2005; Griffiths, 2013;

Fung & Macaro, 2019). As a result, the issue of learners' varied success has grown to be “one of the major conundrums in the SLA field” (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1994, p. 153), which, according to William and Burden (1997), can solely be addressed by examining learners' ways of learning.

The factors that contribute to success in acquiring a second or foreign language were therefore of interest to researchers in the field of SLA. So, a number of researches on why and how people acquire a new language with different degrees of success came into being. The ability to use language learning strategies was chief among these factors that may greatly affect a learner's variability in the rate of foreign language acquisition and in the final level of achievement. Thus, how learners absorb new information and the kinds of tactics they use to understand, learn, or retain it became the main focus of academics' work (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Fung & Macaro, 2019).

Research on second language learning strategies (LLS), according to Grenfell and Macaro (2007), dates back to the year 1975 when researchers such as Rubin (1975), Stern (1975) embarked on looking into successful language acquisition, the practice of ‘good language learners’ (GLL) and their use of learning strategies, and when, according to Dornyei (2005), “information processing theories were applied in the area of memory strategies to be used in educational settings” (p. 188). Given that learning an L2 involves a variety of uncontrollable influencing factors, many scholars have embraced LLSs as an efficient and practical part of the language learning process (Dornyei, 2005). As a result, particular focus has been placed on language learning strategies (Anderson, 1991/2003; Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2007; Macaro, 2001; Oxford, 2002/2003). This emphasis was justified by the fact that numerous language learning strategies studies have consistently shown that they (LLS) have the potential to be “an extremely powerful learning tool” (O'Malley et al., 1985, p. 43) that can lead to “better proficiency and better self-confidence” (Oxford, 1990, p. 9).

A major focus over 40 years of research on LLS has been to identify learners who can learn and/or use a foreign or second language better than others (Fung & Macaro, 2019). In earlier times, in the area of L2 acquisition research, studies on language learning emphasized on describing and identifying externally observable behaviors of language learners. In a number of

such earlier researches, as Wenden and Rubin (1987) noted, much emphasis has been on “identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or, in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language” (p. 19). These good language learners were described in terms of personality traits, learning styles, and strategies by earlier researchers like Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975). According to Rubin (1975), a list of characteristics shared by 'good language learners' has received widespread recognition from L2 researchers and classroom practitioners; these characteristics include the willingness and accuracy of their guesses, the desire to communicate, being unafraid of making mistakes, focusing on both structure and meaning, taking advantage of all practice opportunities, and monitoring one's own and other's' speech. These traits (LLSs) that were typical of successful language learners and they used them consistently in their learning (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). This prompted earlier researchers to compile a long list of essential GLL characteristics.

As these specific traits of good language learners were identified, they were made available to unsuccessful learners. In relation to this, Rubin (1975) stated, "if we knew more about what the "successful learners" did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success record" (p. 42). Therefore, research on GLLs' coping mechanisms may show us how to improve our English proficiency. Additionally, it has great value for L2 learning because it happened at the same time as the development of the cognitive literature on the thought processes of the successful learner.

Researches on language learning were then focusing on identifying strategic behaviors learners use when learning a language. This was because scholars commenced seeing learning strategies in light of information-processing model. As a result, much more “works in the area of learning strategies has shown as that conscious use of strategies can significantly enhance learning” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 10). At this moment, the main concern of Researchers was to understand the ways in which students absorb new information and the tactics they use to absorb, learn, or retain it (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Thus, as opposed to the 1970s, researchers made strenuous effort to distinguish between the various groups of learners' strategies and to classify strategies into categories rather than just a list.

Following this, the crucial research question became why some people appear to learn a foreign language or a second language more successfully than others. According to Rubin (1987: 15), despite all other characteristics being comparable, some learners succeed more than others because of differences in cognition and metacognition. The recommendation urges the use of a variety of successful strategies and their scientific examination. This made most reading strategy research to concentrate on the techniques used by good readers.

Consequently, studies conducted after the 1980s paid close attention to how strategy training affected different types of learners and tasks, particularly reading comprehension and problem-solving (Chipman, Segal, & Glaser, 1985). As a result, Oxford and Larsen-Freeman in 1990 and 1991 respectively discovered that language learning strategies can be taught and that students can gain from coaching in learning strategies. Following this, teaching strategies were seen in classrooms where language teachers allotted a sizable amount of time to instruct students on how to successfully learn new material.

Studies from the mid-seventies such as those by Rubin and Stern were generally considered to be the foundational studies in the field of second language acquisition (Oxford, 1989; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Ellis, 1994) at least for the ensuing reasons. First, second language learners were found to be using language learning strategies in their learning, and second, that these strategies could be described and classified (O'Malley et al., 1985). Third, these studies paved the way for later studies on language learning strategies and learner differences in the SLA field (Ellis, 1994).

However, there were some serious criticisms of those early studies. First off, Sewell (2003 as cited in Grenfell and Macaro 2007) claims that it is unclear how to identify a good language learner and what criteria to use. One or two of the four language skills, for instance, are all that is required to be considered a good language learner (Ibid). Additionally, Cohen (1998) points out that Rubin's list of appropriate behavior for language learners does not take into account the differences among students and is not theoretically supported. Grenfell and Macaro (2007) also criticize Stern's lists of effective language learners, saying that "the list is conceptual and speculative (rather than being based on empirical investigation) in that Stern's main source for these strategies was his own experience as a teacher, as well as a review of pertinent literature"

(p. 12). To put it another way, studies conducted by Rubin and Stern were exploratory in nature and as such did not rely on empirical data but rather on the researchers' observations and intuitions. As a result, the lists of learning strategies they generated were largely lists of common sense. Later research also revealed that successful language learners did not always employ the same set of techniques (Oxford, 1990). Furthermore, rather than concentrating on categorizing the strategies into specific categories, they were very involved in compiling inventories of observed strategy use (Ellis, 1994).

2.4.2. Language Learning Strategy: Terminology and Definition

The history of L2 research witnessed that the most important and fundamental question in LLS research is what exactly is meant by LLS. Scholars disagreed about coming up with a single, palatable definition of language learning strategies (Cohen, 2007; Oxford, 2017). This occurred as a result of theorists emphasizing learners' ways of learning and exerting strenuous effort to formulate their own LLS definition beginning in the 1970s (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007). However, their definitions appeared to hold “conflicting views” (Cohen, 1998, p. 3) and in consistent, elusive or hazy (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003). This is largely because of shifting theoretical viewpoints regarding L2 learning processes (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007). Due to this, the term language learning strategies cannot be defined in a way that is unique, dependable, and widely accepted (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Dornyei, 2005).

The most frequent explanation for this discrepancy is that LLS definitions "are highly influenced by the researcher's or author's main sphere of interest" (Macaro, 2001, p. 19). As a result, they define the term in different ways. For instance, there is disagreement over the nature of behaviors, assuming that language learning strategies are behaviors. Stern (1983) cited in Ellis (1994:531) asserts, "strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving the term "techniques" to refer to specific forms of observable learning behavior." Here, Stern describes the nature of strategy as being general and comprehensive, whereas Wenden (1987a: 7) conflates the two by referring to "strategies" as specific actions or techniques and stating that they do not refer to a learner's general approach such as reflecting or taking risks.

Another is the ambiguity surrounding the term "strategy" itself, which has made it difficult for scholars to agree on what precisely constitutes a strategy and how it should be defined (Oxford, 1990, p. 17). Substantiating this, Ellis (1994) argues that the notion of strategy is an obscure one and is not easy to tie down owing to its loose, non-specific meaning; thus, "Definitions of learning strategies have tended to be ad hoc and a theoretical" (p. 533).

The further reason is that the word "strategy" itself is fuzzy and can be interpreted differently by different authors (Swan, 2008). This results in an increase in the number of terms used to refer to the same construct. In literature, as noted by Wenden (1987, cited in Abebe 1997), the term "strategy" is thus variously referred to as tactics, techniques, conscious plans, consciously used operations, learning skills, fundamental skills, functional skills, cognitive abilities, language processing strategies, and problem-solving techniques. This suggests that there is a semantic issue with the word "Strategy" when it comes to terms and words that are used synonymously and interchangeably (Macaro, 2001). As a result, Griffiths (2008) and Swan (2008) concluded that it was extremely difficult to define the term "strategy". This appears to be true today. In the subsequent section, based on the ensuing three basic area of concern, various researchers' definitions of the term language learning strategies are presented.

First, some researchers consider strategies as conscious or subconscious, which, too, are referred by Griffiths (2013) as "deliberate and automatic" (p. 9). Researchers such as Anderson (1991), Cohen (1998), Stern (1992), Griffiths (2008), and Oxford (2017) defined learning strategies as deliberate actions or conscious and intentional activities that learners engage in to manage their own learning. This may be made clearer by the definitions provided by Griffiths as well as Oxford, which state that LLS are "activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning." (Griffiths, 2008, p. 87). And Oxford (2017) on her part stated that strategies are "selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves for the purpose of accomplishing [reading] tasks" (p. 48).

As opposed to these, Seliger (1984) cited in Ellis (1994:531) calls these abstract cognitive categories of processing information unconsciously or subconsciously "strategies." In fact, many researchers avoid drawing a distinct line between conscious and unconscious processes, arguing

that learners deal with new information by using conscious coping mechanisms, which eventually become subconscious through repetition and self-adaptation. For example, Wenden (1987) defined strategies as "the various operations that learners use to make sense of their learning" and noted that these operations frequently "can become automated and remain below consciousness" (p. 8).

From the definitions provided, numerous researchers' tendencies toward the concept of consciousness were evident. The choice of consciousness in their definition may have been motivated by Williams and Burden's (1997) observation that the conscious use of strategies can significantly improve learning. In this study, strategies are regarded as conscious mental processes as well.

Second, others view LLSs as mental or behavioral processes, or perhaps both. Wenden (1987) and Oxford (1989) were the first researchers to define language learning strategies in terms of behavior rather than mental processes. For instance, Wenden (1987) defined LLS as "language learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language... what they know about the strategies they use" (p. 6). However, this definition excludes thought from the definition of LLS.

On the other hand, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) explicitly included both behavior and thought in their definition of a strategy. According to them, LLS refers to "the particular thoughts or behaviors that people use to understand, learn, or retain new information." (p. 1). Indications from this definition include two. First of all, it demonstrates that language acquisition techniques can either be observable (behavior) or unobservable (thoughts). Second, it states the objectives in clear terms (i.e., how the strategies will aid students in understanding and picking up new information). So, we can infer from this that earlier description of learning strategies focused more on learning outcomes and behaviors that revealed unobservable cognitive processes, while definitions eventually gave clearer understanding of what language learners think and do while learning a language.

Oxford (1990), a recognized expert in the field, contends that although the common definitions of 1980s were worthwhile, they were too vague to really be considered as a sufficient definition, for they did not fully convey the richness of language learning strategies and did not encapsulate

the most important characteristics of language learning strategies which are helpful for our purposes here. Hence, she refined the definition which later became the most frequently cited and applicable definition in the field of LLS. As to her, language Learning Strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation” (p. 8). Surprisingly enough, the spirit of this definition exists even in her most recent definition of the term. In her work of 2011, Oxford describes strategies as they are problem-solving techniques and actions applied to achieve comprehension.

The degree to which Oxford's (1990) definition reflects the breadth and depth of language learning strategies sets it apart from definitions provided by the researchers mentioned above. To put it another way, the definition provided by Oxford includes elements of actions and movement toward the attainment of a goal. It also covers the role that context plays in language learning. The definition also takes into account the learner's behavior and thought processes. The behavioral aspect is reflected in how language learning strategies that support the overarching objective of communicative competence motivate students to actively engage in their learning (Oxford, 1990). In a similar way, the cognitive component of LLS can help students develop self-reliance, take ownership of their education, monitor their behavior, and seek out every opportunity to learn in both formal and informal settings (Oxford, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997).

In sum, despite years of research on this specific subject, the definitions that are currently in use suggest that the work on the term "learning strategies" is incomplete (Dornyei, 2005). Therefore, in order to create a shared understanding of LLS, scholars focused on a number of characteristics of LLS, such as the role of strategies as actions and their goal-orientations, which recurred frequently in language learning strategy research (Ibid). According to Ellis (1994), listing the LLS's distinguishing characteristics is a more effective way to define the term. As a result, many researchers have compiled a list of important LLS features whose functions promote better language learning comprehension. The difficulty to define LLS is also manifested in the skill-based strategies such as reading strategies about which a cursory discussion is presented in the proceeding section.

2.5. The Concept of Reading Strategies

2.5.1. Importance of Reading Strategies

For years, researchers have been trying to figure out why students with ESL/EFL reading comprehension struggle so much (Oxford, 2013). As a result, there has been an increase in interest in reading research over time that aims to look at reading from linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives, with the emphasis shifting more and more towards the reading process and the significance of using efficient FL reading strategies to better understand FL texts and succeed in target language reading (Dodeen, 2015; Koda, 2005). Many researchers have, therefore, made great efforts to find a better way to read well. Ultimately, most educators could arrive at agreement that using reading strategies is of utmost importance in the process of effective L2 comprehension (Bernhardt, 2011; Grabe, 2009; Ketworrachai and Sappapan 2022). Consequently, analysis of students' reading skills and reading strategy use has gained more prominence in the context of ESL/EFL reading due to the fact that such study's result support students' reading comprehension and their performance (Pressley, 2006; Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

As reiterated in literature, one of the most crucial abilities that university students studying English as a second language or as a foreign language need to develop is the ability to read academic texts, for it plays a critical role for their language performance and academic success. Yet, this necessitates an ample use of Reading techniques. The reading strategies are the one thing that makes a difference in reading out of the four variables that affect reading comprehension: the reader, the text, the strategies, and the goal or fluent reading (Anderson, 2003). And the use of reading strategies is generally thought to be a sign of how readers approach a task, how they interpret what they read, and what they do when they are unable to understand. Janzen (2002) makes the following statements in regard to the significance of reading strategy use. 1) Using strategies can increase both reading speed and comprehension. 2) Students will read like expert readers do by employing strategies. 3) Reading comprehension is monitored, connections are made between what is being read and prior knowledge and other parts of the text are made, and active processing of the text is aided by strategies. The section that follows makes an effort to examine the concept of reading strategies in light of various researcher viewpoints.

2.5.2. Definitions of Reading Strategies

Scholars variedly explicate the term reading strategy. According to Paris et al. (1991), the primary causes of this diversity are the four issues that arise when defining reading strategies. First, many researchers seem to have trouble separating reading strategies from other cognitive processes related to thinking, reasoning, studying, or motivational strategies. Second, there is disagreement among scholars as to whether the reading strategies' scope is broad or narrow. Third, there is debate among academics about whether employing strategies with or without awareness increases their effectiveness. Fourth, despite the fact that strategies and skills have generally been distinguished, some people use them interchangeably because they refer to essentially the same processes. Others like, Ellis (1994), Cohen (1988 cited in Khonamri and Salimi 2010) also associate researchers' definition difference with the potential of the term reading strategy to be used in variety of context such as First, second and foreign language learning.

As a result, based on a variety of approaches/perspectives to reading strategies, scholars formulated different definitions in the literature. Presenting them all in here is, however, beyond the purview of this study. Therefore, only a few definitions from academics that considered consciousness or intentional act to be a distinctive quality of the term "reading strategy" are highlighted below.

Many researchers have recognized the differences between reading skills with automaticity and unawareness and reading strategies as intentional and conscious attempts to understand the text (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). They considered reading strategies as cognitive related act and associated it with mental processes. It is perhaps for this ground that the term reading strategy is described by different researchers as mental operations or comprehension processes (Pani, 2004; Abbott, 2006), mental activities (Aebersold & Field, 1997), mental processes (Cohen, 1990), conscious mental action or series of actions (Choo et al., 2012; Gardner, 1987), intentional actions (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; Li, 2010). This demonstrates the propensity of scholars towards the attribute of consciousness of reading strategies.

As a result of this, various researchers among whom Garner (1987) cited in Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) emphasized on intentional nature of the term reading strategy and defined as it is “Generally deliberate, playful activities undertaken by active learners, many times to remedy perceived cognitive failure” (p. 50). This definition signifies that in addition to promoting reading comprehension, readers use various strategies as problem solving mechanism to overcome their difficulties. Others such as Anderson (1991) described a reading strategy as a deliberate process that facilitates understanding and knowledge acquisition. To this effect, readers improve their comprehension skills, fix their comprehension issues, and become more strategic readers. Erler and Finkbeiner (2007) and Pani (2004) have also viewed reading strategies as mental operations that involve readers’ intentional approach to a text to make sense of what they are reading. Coinciding with this idea, Li (2010) and Choo et al. (2012) described the term as specific, deliberate, conscious techniques that readers employ to enhance their comprehension or retention of the textual inform. Accordingly, reading strategies are the reader’s purposeful, goal-directed efforts to interpret the text and decode it (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008). They are managed procedures that need to be orchestrated, modified, and deployed with awareness.

It is, therefore, possible to say that using reading techniques necessitates conscious, purposeful actions that are based on the reader's awareness of their comprehension state cognitively. This is consistent with the definition of learning strategies, which are ‘selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves... for the purpose of accomplishing reading tasks’ (Oxford, 2017, p.48).

To wind up, there appears to be a general agreement in the current literature that reading strategies are conscious actions carried out with a specific goal (Choo et al., 2012). Thus, reading strategy is mostly understood as it is the deliberate action which enables readers' comprehension or that can be improved by making use of deliberate or automatic strategies or actions that are employed to address comprehension issues. The definitions as a whole show how crucial it is for readers to understand reading strategies in order to comprehend what they are reading. When readers are conscious of their reading strategies, they develop into "Good Readers," who "apply more strategies more frequently and more effectively than poor readers" (Pani, 2004:4). Along with consciousness, the following elements of reading strategies were indicated in the definitions

given: they fluctuate moment to moment; they are thought of as strategies (for tackling a problem); their application is dependent upon the particular reading tasks; Context is a key factor; it influences performance and compensates for comprehension breakdowns.

2.5.3. Classification of Reading Strategies

Another point of contention among researchers studying reading comprehension strategies (RCS) is the classification of reading strategies. Reading researchers typically categorized reading strategies in different ways based on various criteria. This made classification terribly difficult for researchers to have a uniform, systematic classification of reading strategies. As a result, different categorizations were posited and a variety of types of reading strategies were identified. The section below examines some of these classifications with the goal of highlighting their characteristics without necessarily delving deeply into a discussion of them.

In literature, reading strategies have been categorized in a wide range of ways, each with its own name. Some of the classifications are made based on the various reading stages (such as before, during, and after reading). Others are classified according to the methodology they use, such as bottom-up reading process and top-down reading process (including cognitive and metacognitive reading process).

Using the various stages of reading process as criteria, Paris, Wasik, and Turner (1996) classified reading strategies into reading techniques for before, during, and after reading. They expressed that good readers utilize specific techniques prior to starting to read, such as setting reading purposes, accessing prior knowledge, as well as guessing what might be read, etc. Good readers employ a few strategies to help them with their reading comprehension as they read. For instance, they reread, deduce, identify the text's specific and main idea, etc. In the post-reading phase, good readers continue to value the text and author, apply new knowledge to their current tasks, relate the text to their personal experiences, or even critique it (Paris et al., 1996).

It is important to note that Paris et al. (1996) classification of reading strategies offers reading researchers a way to pinpoint reading strategies according to the time and stage. The literature that is currently available on reading strategy use does, however, suggest that there are instances where the same strategy is applied at various stages. A good example in this regard is Baker and

Boonkit's (2004) survey. According to their categorization, the survey's items were divided into three sections: pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading, in each of which more than one type of strategy is included and some of them are observed repeatedly. As a result, many reading research studies continue to focus on the complex nature of effective strategy use (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002; Chou, 2013).

Other researchers mainly categorized reading strategies into bottom-up strategies and top-down strategies. Among these researchers, Goodman (1970) and Carrell (1989) grouped SL/FL reading strategies into two types of processing: bottom-up strategies and top-down strategies. Different scholars refer to bottom-up and top-down strategies by various names, such as local linguistic and general comprehension strategies (Block, 1986), word-level and text-level strategies (Barnett, 1988), and local and global strategies (Carrell, 1989). According to Carrell, bottom-up strategies or Local strategies are "those having to do with sound- letter, word meaning, sentence syntax, and text details" (1989, p. 126), while top-down strategies or global strategies' are those that refer to background knowledge, textual organization, and text gist (Ibid). Similarly, Barnett (1988:150) described Word-level strategies as techniques which readers use to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words or phrases with in a sentence; these techniques, which involve making educated guesses based on context, classifying words according to their grammatical categories, and employing word families and word formation to deduce the meaning of unknown words, are employed to comprehend smaller portions of the reading text in order to interpret it analytically rather than holistically. Text-level strategies, on the other hand, are those which the reader exploit to comprehend the whole passage (or text) or a part of it. These strategies involve strategies such as relating the text to one's prior knowledge, predicting, and reading for meaning, reading with a purpose, skimming and scanning (Barnett, 1988).

Other group of researchers also classified LLS and developed various taxonomies from which classification of reading strategies originated. Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classifications of learning strategies are the two most common taxonomies seen in many languages learning strategy research.

Oxford (1990) provides a long list of tactics that, in her opinion, have been positively correlated with language learners who use reading as a successful method of language acquisition. She includes the following reading techniques among them: repeating, or “saying or doing something over and over;” “formally practicing with sounds (pronunciation, intonation, register, etc.) in a variety of ways, but not yet in naturalistic communicative practice;” “using resources for receiving and sending messages,” which she says includes “using print or non-print resources to understand incoming messages or produce outgoing messages;” and “placing new words into a context,” which includes “placing a word or phrase in a meaningful sentence” in order to remember it. Here, it is worth noting that Oxford's (1989) general reading strategies served as the original source for the reading comprehension strategy items in the English reading strategies survey. Researchers, such as Baker and Boonkit (2004), altered Oxford's items to align with EFL/ESL reading process theories.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) on their part classified learning strategies into two main categories, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies are localized and specified; they entail working with the content that has to be learned or using a particular method on the learning task. Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, are more universal and worldwide. By considering the learning process, planning, observing, and assessing learning, they supervise, guide, and control it. Cognitive reading strategies target particular reading tasks when used in reading. They are employed to handle the reading material, process information that is received, or carry out particular tasks. These activities are supervised by metacognitive reading strategies.

Following this, others like Anderson (1999) and Salataci (2002), emphasizing on the main characteristics of reading strategies classified them into two main categories: cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategy is divided as Bottom-up and Top-down strategies; the former is again subdivided into three strategies: individual word focus, intra-sentential features and restatement; the later, on the other hand, is classified into nine strategies such as predicting, making inferences, using prior knowledge... (Salataci, 2002). Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, are strategies that function to monitor or regulate cognitive strategies. They include commenting on task and commenting on behavior (Ibid).

Based upon an in-depth review of research findings, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001:1) grouped reading strategies into metacognitive, (i.e. advanced planning and comprehension monitoring techniques), cognitive (i.e., deliberate actions taken by readers when comprehension issues arise), and/or support strategies (i.e. tools used by readers to help understanding).

A year later, in 2002 they renamed the first as: global reading strategies and the second as problem-solving reading strategies with the last remain in the same naming support reading strategies. They grouped three categories of reading strategies in an attempt to create inventories that gauge the perceived application of reading strategies and metacognitive awareness of EFL readers. Their classifications of reading strategies were predicated on the roles that the techniques perform during reading. A cursory explanation over each categorization follows: First, metacognitive (global) strategies, according to Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002), are generalized techniques that set the stage for the reading act. They are intentionally and carefully planned techniques used by learners to monitor or manage their academic reading (Ibid). Thus, readers who apply global reading strategies while reading English academic texts usually have a purpose for reading, try to find ways to fulfill their reading purposes, activate their prior knowledge... which in general deal with preparation for reading.

Second, cognitive (problem-solving) strategies are specific actions and procedures used by learners while working directly with the text; they are strategies or techniques adopted by readers to address issues which come to the surface when the part of a text becomes difficult to comprehend (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). With the help of these techniques, readers can proficiently move through the text by having well-thought-out action plans and thereby mitigate their comprehension difficulty. To this effect, by regularly practicing useful techniques that enable them to get past these obstacles, students should be aware of what to do when they do not understand what they are reading.

Third, support strategies described how readers used resources to understand the text, like a dictionary, notes, or text underlining or highlighting (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). These strategies arise when readers seek for an outside help/aid or individual practical techniques while reading English academic texts to enhance their reading comprehension.

It is worth noting that researchers found nearly identical recurring tactics but categorized them differently. While O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Flavell (1979) characterize note-taking as a cognitive strategy, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002) identifies it as a support strategy.

Despite the diversity of these techniques, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) contend that the three sets of strategies complement one another and work together to construct meaning. But in addition to being driven by various goals, reading processes and strategies may also be influenced by various factors. This is meant that although these strategies are believed to be useful to students in many respects, there is no guarantee that all students will make use of them advantageously. The use of these strategies may be determined by factors such as knowledge or awareness of these strategies and how they are used, having a reason to use them (that is, strategies must be effective to be used by a learner) and having nothing to prevent their use (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). Moreover, the use of any given strategy is likely to depend on other factors such as gender, cultural background or prior educational experiences, intelligence, aptitude and exposure to the language, and affective attributes. Regardless this, the current study used reading strategies classification applied by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002) because it is the most comprehensive classification among others.

Before wrapping up, it is worth noting that the framework developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) differs from frameworks developed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Paris et al. (1996), and Rubin (1981) in that it focuses exclusively on reading strategies which readers utilized to comprehend academic materials. The framework is not meant to be generalized to other language skills than reading, whereas the strategy types mentioned in the other taxonomies are, for the most part, described in a way that allows them to be used with all four language skills. Moreover, the fact that FL reading strategies incorporate metacognitive control, such as planning and monitoring one's own understanding, as well as the deliberate execution of some actions to achieve a specific goal while reading in EFL/ESL, sets them apart from language learning strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). In addition, in contrast to the criteria of classification of reading strategies of Paris et al. (1996), Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002) did not take into account the time as a criterion that their classification of reading techniques are applied. Instead, they gave more weight to the reasons for using the strategies or the roles they perform during the reading process. To put in a nutshell, Mokhtari and Sheorey's framework is

more specific and detailed than the other frameworks because the strategies found in the framework gave greater emphasis to the sole reading. Moreover, their classification is more clear and easier to understand than the others. The framework grouped the reading strategies into three sub-categories, whereas the other taxonomies like Oxford groups LLS into six overlapping and conflicting subcategories. Thus, Sheorey and Mokhtari's categorization is preferred by researchers who want to focus on the use frequency of the identified reading strategies. It also gained popularity among EFL/ESL researchers because of its particularity, clarity and simplicity. For this reason, the current researcher prefers this classification over others.

The other point we can infer from the above classification is that the two types of reading strategies that are most commonly discussed in the literature are cognitive and metacognitive. As many studies on reading uncovered that cognitive and metacognitive strategies are the two fundamental strategies which readers use to translate written text to meaning using the lower level and higher-level skills (Chou, 2013), they seem to be most relevant to reading. The concept of cognitive strategy is further explained in the next section, and the concept of metacognitive strategy is explained in the section that follows.

2.5.4. Cognitive Strategies

The ability to construct meaning from text and complete a task is made possible by cognitive strategies (CSs) which are closely connected to the target language and prior knowledge of the learners (Phakiti, 2003, p. 651). CSs, according to O'Malley and Chamot, "operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning" (1990, p. 44). As CSs are thought as appropriate strategies to enhance students' ability of extracting and constructing meaning from texts, increase their knowledge or learning and develop their vocabulary to be effective and efficient, they are most popular in reading.

Rereading, previewing, guessing meaning, restating, analyzing, synthesizing and using context clues are some examples of CSs that SL/FL learners employ to transform or manipulate the language, operate either apply a particular strategy to the learning task or the material that needs to be learned (Pressley & Hilden, 2006; Singhal, 2001). CSs entail particular contexts and reading or learning exercises that "assist the learner in putting together, consolidating, elaborating, and transforming knowledge of the language and culture" (Oxford, 2011, p. 46). As

a result, they are frequently used to quicken the cognitive development that may be possible when students use these techniques to ease comprehension difficulties (Ibid). In other words, CSs are “deliberate actions readers take when comprehension problems develop” (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001, p. 431) that involve straightforward actions like underlining specific passages of a text and slowing down reading speed in situations where comprehension is at risk

In order to obtain knowledge via reading, readers require to pass through various phases and in each of which they need to use various strategies. Declarative, associative, and procedural knowledge are the three stages of information processing that are involved in this intellectual process (Anderson, 1985; Oxford, 2011). According to Chou (2013:176), the declarative stage is "conscious, effortful, halting, and nonhabitual." Whereas the procedural stage is beyond the learner's conscious control, and now deployable with less effort to the extent of becoming an unconsciously ingrained habit (Chou, 2013; Oxford, 2011).

During declarative phase, the majority of language learners commence learning skills which enable them to encode the information required. For instance, students should begin learning the alphabetic letters and consciously decode words letter by letter in order to learn how to read. Learners will then be able to describe how to read in the second language using this knowledge. The performance at this stage usually has a high error rate, so this knowledge alone is insufficient for skilled performance.

In the associative stage, learners gradually identify and correct errors that occurred during the encoding stage. They also translate information into procedures that they can practice using a variety of strategies or that they can apply to a learning task. Additionally, the connections between the various components of the skill are strengthened. Thus, as they develop the ability to automatically recognize words, reading learners no longer need to decode words letter by letter (Anderson, 1985; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

In the procedural stage, learner starts to gain expertise through practicing their skills and develop their reading comprehension skills because errors that hamper successful performance of the skill are eliminated. The working memory or consciousness of the learner rarely becomes busy at this stage, for the skill is learned without much effort.

The three phases in which readers are supposed to pass through to get reading skill suggests that it takes effort to be able to understand the reading material well. Hence, university students, the concern of the study, are required to get used to reading variety of books to be successful students. This could not, however, as persistently expressed, be attained without their practice and effort. Julian (2009) asserts that reading skills are acquired through regular practice and constant reading. That is, as long as students persistently practice reading, they improve their ability of understanding text and own the skills of interpreting or analyzing the sentences of the text. Practicing and repetition are the common instance of cognitive strategies.

To wind up, the mental processes involved in processing information for learning are referred to as cognitive strategies in reading. Readers use to understand, acquire, store, retrieve or use of the linguistic input, get stronger schema (knowledge structure) and create the reader's skill of consistency between the current text being read and the previous text read for reading comprehension (Williams & Burden, 1997). This cognitive process is not effective without metacognition, the "manager" of a students' learning. That is, if knowledge is strategically applied to achieve the cognitive goal, it can be metacognitive (Flavell, 1979). Suppose reading presented a word-related challenge for EFL students. In these situations, they could use their knowledge to strategize how to approach the foreign word. If they are aware that they struggle with vocabulary, they may employ a variety of techniques to overcome their difficulties, such as checking the text for clues to the meaning, using a dictionary, or seeking assistance. Simply put, reading comprehension is a cognitive technique. The processes that lead to acquisition, however, are metacognitive techniques. The next topic deals about this.

2.5.5. Metacognition

2.5.5.1. The Notion of Metacognition

Metacognition has been defined most simply as thinking about thinking. It is the process of using one's own cognition (knowledge) to understand information and unlock the potential of one's own mind. It is higher order intellectual activity with which readers direct and improve their thinking and learning process. Flavell's explanation about the term that follows is enlightening; the term metacognition refers:

among other things to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive object or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective (Flavell, 1976, P. 232).

As to this perspective, metacognition is a learner's awareness of and consideration for their cognitive process, i.e., to understand, monitor, and regulate to achieve maximum learning, which are the unique qualities of human beings. The term's subsequent definitions seem to be derived from Flavell's original meaning. Anderson (2008), for instance, viewed metacognition as the capacity of the human mind to reflect on and exert control over information as it relates to thought and cognitive processes. The other, Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) regard metacognition as awareness and monitoring processes that are described as "the knowledge of readers' cognition about reading and self-control mechanism" (p. 10). Even to other researchers, Kuhn and Dean (2004), metacognition is awareness and control over one's own thought. It is what allows a student to realize a particular strategy in a specific issue context to locate and apply that tactic in a related but different setting (Ibid). Metacognition is, therefore, the secret to reading comprehension since it is necessary for the growth of a number of linguistic, cognitive, and social abilities (Iwai, 2011).

The above three definitions of the term in general indicate that Metacognition entails knowledge and knowing when and how to employ specific strategies for learning or problem solving. This idea is directly transplanted in reading, and metacognitive reading strategies came into existence. Metacognitive reading strategies explains "metacognitive awareness" that readers recognize their reading responsibilities and the importance of "metacognitive regulation of control," or knowing when and how to use reading strategies while reading texts. Readers may, for example, have reading goals, scan texts to see if they meet those goals, decide what to read and what to ignore (metacognitive awareness), infer meaning from texts or make predictions, consult dictionaries, reread (metacognitive regulation or control), and use other reading strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). The term "metacognitive reading strategies" is, therefore, composed of two components: metacognitive knowledge, also known as metacognitive awareness (knowledge about knowledge) and metacognitive regulation (learning how to learn). Each is discussed in detail in the section that follows.

2.5.5.2. Metacognitive Knowledge (Awareness)

Metacognitive awareness (in the context of reading) is the understanding of readers' cognitive processes in relation to reading and the self-control strategies they employ to check and improve comprehension (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Metacognitive awareness is beneficial to take actions to better meet the demands of reading conditions if a reader is aware of what is necessary to do so. Thus, it is unrealistic to expect the reader to take action to overcome challenges if they are unaware of their own reading limitations or the difficulty of the task at hand (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002).

Metacognitive awareness can be described as consciousness of your own thoughts, knowing what you know and what you do not know and how you learn. Metacognitive awareness of reading strategies can help learners in three major varieties of knowledge: declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge which in general refer to as what we know about our own cognitive processes (Brown, 1987; Ahmadi et al., 2013). A brief account on each follow.

Declarative knowledge (know what) refers to the understanding that a specific strategy can be used to achieve a specific learning goal (for example, as a specific reading technique, a learner might be familiar with paraphrasing; it also includes the learner's knowledge of how they learn and the factors that affect their learning (Ahmadi et al., 2013).

A procedural knowledge is understanding of "how/when/where" to apply a strategy in a learning task, or learner's knowledge of the strategies and procedures that are most effective for him/her (Ahmadi et al., 2013). A good example is how students use various reading strategies to solve issues like knowing how to paraphrase of a certain text or figuring out the meaning of unfamiliar words using various contextual cues. Hence, "knowing that (declarative knowledge) is different from knowing what (procedural knowledge), and that a particular strategy is useful (awareness) precedes its routine use..." (Baker & Brown, 1984, in Carrell, 1989 p. 122).

Conditional knowledge (knowing why) is knowing the rationale behind and the selection of a strategy. It is the understanding that students have of the circumstances in which they can use different cognitive strategies. So, a reader would say "I need to choose to paraphrase to increase my comprehension of the text and learning" (Ahmadi et al., 2013).

Others like Baker and Brown (1984), Brown (1987) and Flavell (1979) on their part stated that metacognitive knowledge included three specific constructs. The first one is person's awareness of his/her own cognitive capacities. It is information about the proficiency levels of the individual learner (e.g., a person may state, "I have trouble remembering people's names, I am really bad at memorizing words, and I am not good at recalling dates"). The second is the learner's knowledge of the nature of particular tasks. This could involve knowledge of the information and resources needed to complete a task, or knowledge of the task's level of difficulty. For instance, a reader will frequently claim that because of the unfamiliar subject matter covered in the text, it is difficult for them to comprehend the ideas contained therein. Thus, s/he asserts that the concepts in this article are sophisticated. The third is the learner's knowledge of different strategies. This includes being aware of methods that are probably effective for completing tasks and reaching goals (for instance, if I break down phone numbers into smaller chunks, I will remember them). Learners may also be aware that predicting article content based on titles improves comprehension, or that guessing unknown words increases their word power.

Therefore, metacognitive awareness entails being aware of whether comprehension is taking place and actively using one or more strategies to improve comprehension. Carrell (1998) summarized the concept of metacognitive knowledge as reacting to these questions; "know what", "know how", "know why". This makes the concept important to understand because students who use their knowledge of "when," "what," "how," and "why" responses only rarely are less likely to improve their reading performance (Baker, 2013).

2.5.5.3. Metacognitive Regulation

Metacognitive regulation or the use of metacognitive strategy owns the capacity to consciously choose how and what to think about and how to direct your attention (Phakiti, 2003). They, (metacognitive reading strategies), entail awareness, reasoning, and deliberate thought processes regarding the text read and the understanding gleaned from it (Davies, 1995). Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) described metacognitive strategies as "intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading" (p. 436). Ahmadi et al. (2013) also elucidated the use of metacognitive strategies as The ability of learners to take necessary actions, plan appropriate strategies for solving the problems they encounter, assess consequences and

outcomes, and modify the approach as necessary, based on the use of their prior knowledge. Through metacognitive strategies, a reader allocated significant attention to regulating, overseeing, and assessing the reading process (Pressley, 2000). Hence, planning, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating the strategies readers use for successful reading comprehension are all part of metacognitive regulation or strategies (Anderson, 2008; Chou, 2013; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2011; Phakiti, 2003).

The ability for students to coordinate their own learning processes is made possible by the fact that the metacognitive strategies "provide a mechanism for individuals to coordinate their own learning processes" (Oxford, 1990, p. 136). This empowers students to become independent learners who comprehend why, how, and when to use reading strategies (Ibid). In fact, utilizing metacognitive strategies while reading encourages independent reading, which ultimately enhances comprehension. In agreement with this, Ahmadi et al. (2013) claimed that without the use of metacognitive reading strategies, it is very difficult for readers to successfully understand the explicit and implicit meanings of the text. Hence, students require to be encouraged to apply the strategies in various situations by being aware of how they are used. One of these situations is the classroom, where students are encouraged to employ metacognitive techniques to organize, monitor, and evaluate their own learning while reading and solving reading problems. To this effect, students will be better able to master metacognitive reading techniques which have been proven to increase reading comprehension (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Koda, 2007).

Therefore, a student must have both knowledge of strategies and the ability to use them effectively (Anderson, 1991), which is also one of the notable traits that set successful readers apart from those who fail to read. As research on reading strategies indicated, most efficient readers' comprehension activities occur at the metacognitive level (Hudson, 2007). This is the level at which students can effectively use metacognitive strategies and have successful reading comprehension (Singhal, 2001). More specifically, reading with metacognitive strategies enables readers to develop the habit of paying attention, using correction techniques like rereading, slowing down, or looking up word meanings when comprehension problems arise, and evaluating what they have read; and hence skilled readers have a tendency to be better at controlling their use of these strategies while reading (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001, p. 445). They

constantly keep an eye on their learning environments, which helps them know when, where, and why to use strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002; Cohen & Macaro, 2007).

Earlier researches on the metacognitive elements of reading strategy use in learners had shown that proficient readers typically exhibited a greater level of metacognitive awareness, allowing them to apply reading strategies more skillfully and effectively than their less successful counterparts (Ahmadi et al., 2013; Carrell, 1988; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2001). Carrell (1988) argued that the use of a strategy depended on whether it was done so metacognitively. This helped to explain why struggling readers frequently possessed cognitive strategies but were unable to access them metacognitively. Substantiating this, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) contends, "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning directions" (p. 8).

Metacognitive reading strategies are categorized into three components of metacognitive regulation: reading prior to activities (planning), controlling during reading process (monitoring), and reflecting on the strategy in post reading (evaluating) (Anderson, 2008; Chou, 2013; Iwai, 2011; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Next is a cursory discussion on each.

Planning strategies are used to organize the learning process by choosing the best strategies and cognitive resources prior to completing a cognitive task (Iwai, 2011). That is, even before reading, students can begin to make sense of texts by mentally preparing themselves to grasp the text as fully as possible. This approach is very similar to the use of metacognitive strategies, as mentioned by Iwai (2011), where planning is seen as a crucial step prior to reading, other than monitoring and evaluating. Wenden (1991) proposes two categories of choices that students made as they planned to complete an academic language activity. They choose in advance to (1) focus on a learning activity and block out unimportant distractions (directed attention) and (2) selectively attend to specific input-related elements. With the aid of these techniques, students understand the difficult texts by taking conscious steps to reach the goal and they are also encouraged to reflect before embarking on a task (Anderson, 2008). For instance, students preview through skimming the general information in the text and its structure. So that they can

reflect whether their reading material has a certain text structure, such as cause and effect, question and answer, compare and contrast (Iwai, 2011).

Monitoring strategy is cognitive task that allows learners to track their progress and measure their performance. It occurs when students engage in reading activities and actively monitor the text by asking questions and self-evaluating their understanding, having group discussions, identifying any misunderstandings, and confirming understanding when presented with ambiguous information; in self-questioning situations (reflecting on whether they understood what they had read so far); Choosing which reading passages to focus on and applying the right strategy at the right time, as well as determining which parts of the passage can be emphasized or ignored based on the task at hand (Iwai, 2011). During monitoring, Wenden (1991:27) asserts, a learner asks himself/herself “How am I doing?”, “Am I proceeding through this learning activity smoothly without obstacles?” and so forth. So, the best method for determining whether a reader is on the right path to learning is monitoring. In order to clarify their understanding in the target language, readers check to see if an idea they have in their heads leads to the right conclusions. When comprehension falters, readers become aware of it and reorient themselves. They are able to decide how to move forward and what information is crucial to retain as a result (Anderson, 2008).

Evaluating strategy is determining the effectiveness and outcomes of the learning process as well as whether the learning outcome corresponds to the learners' learning objectives and whether the regulation process they employed were effective (Anderson, 2008; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991). In other words, by assessing or classifying their strengths and weaknesses, students determine how well they can perform in specific tasks. After the learning activities, these strategies are used to give learners an evaluation and assessment of the learning task. For instance, after completing a post-reading activity, students evaluate how well the activity went. They may also reflect on the knowledge they gained from the reading and consider how they can use what they learned in other contexts (Anderson, 2008; Iwai, 2011). They can assess how well a strategy works and whether their plans are carried out through this process. In order to achieve this, students learn how well they have understood what they have read; evaluate any problems they encounter; and determine how to fix them the next time (Anderson, 2008). Readers then change strategies as needed to determine whether the purpose has been attained or not.

Metacognitive strategies are, therefore, high order executive skills that make use of cognitive process knowledge to try and control learning through planning, monitoring, and evaluating (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Students' effective use of metacognitive strategies leads to successful reading comprehension (Singhal, 2001). So, they need to be encouraged to employ metacognitive strategies in their reading. To this end, unskilled readers can become proficient readers who regularly use metacognitive techniques to address their reading challenges. Therefore, teachers must make their students conscious on the importance of using metacognitive techniques to become proficient readers (Baker, 2008). Students who realize the importance of these strategies and who pay close attention to these strategies and regularly practice them embed them into their reading habits (McNamara, 2007).

Summing up, cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies are the two major type of reading strategies which many researchers agree on. Thus, trying to separate cognitive from metacognitive strategies would give us an incomplete picture because they are mutually exclusive. To illustrate this, L2 learners often have a difficulty with vocabulary in reading. Students can make plans based on their knowledge of how to approach the new vocabulary. If they are aware that they struggle with vocabulary, they may employ a variety of techniques, including looking for hints in the text to determine the meaning, consulting a dictionary, or asking for assistance. They might go back and reread the passage in order to understand it until their objectives are met. Additionally, reading comprehension is a cognitive technique. However, the processes that result in acquisition are metacognitive methods. Thus, assessing text knowledge would be a metacognitive strategy that would guarantee understanding of the information obtained. The first helps you to achieve a particular objective (cognitive), while the second helps you comprehend the steps involved in getting there (metacognitive) (Anderson, 2008). So, to be a successful reader, s/he must have both knowledge of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and the ability to use them effectively.

2.5.6. Types of Reading Strategies Used in the Current Study

Based on a variety of criteria, researchers in the field of language learning strategies developed various inventories. The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSI), created by Mokhtari and Reichard in 2002, was designed to measure what readers do when they

read academic materials. This framework was founded on the ideas that "constructing meaning from a text is an intentional, deliberate, and purposeful act" (p. 250) and that a text's meaning is jointly constructed by the text's contents and the text's reader. In view of this, implementing reading strategies necessitates deliberate, conscious action that is guided by the reader's awareness of their cognitive level of comprehension.

This inventory was, however, "originally designed for students who are native English speakers, it was inappropriate for use with non-native speakers" (Mokhtari & Sheory, 2002, p. 3). In order to create an inventory that would be more appropriate for ESL/EFL learners, they created another one called the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). Using this inventory, they assess the reading strategies reported by adult students when they read academic materials. In the view of Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), students who perform well on general reading performance tests may not always employ efficient reading strategies when reading academic materials. SORS is being discussed right now for this rationale and, for it is a reading-specific assessment that helps ESL/EFL students identify their reading strengths and weaknesses or helps to teachers distinguish between skilled and unskilled readers. The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) was used in this study as a result.

SORS is a self-reported instrument used to examine one's awareness and use of metacognitive reading strategies because it was suggested that "the reader's metacognitive knowledge about reading includes an awareness of a variety of reading strategies and that the cognitive enterprise of reading is influenced by this metacognitive awareness of the reading strategies used" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2008, p. 44). SORS were divided into three subcategories by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002): support reading strategies (SUP), problem-solving reading strategies (PROB), and global reading strategies (GLOB). These three categories of reading strategies are used in the SORS questionnaire as the instrument to collect data from the respondents. When used in the process of creating meaning from text, these three categories of reading strategies interact with and support one another.

The SORS is a 30-item survey that assesses a reader's global strategies (what they do to get ready to read a text), problem-solving strategies (what they do when trying to understand a text), and support strategies (how they support comprehension). The use of reading strategies is a prerequisite for metacognition in the SORS. Thus, the use of reading strategies is preceded by

metacognition, which as a result includes all reading strategies. All reading techniques listed in SORS are metacognitive techniques. Detail about SORS classification comes next.

2.5.6.1. Global Reading Strategies

Global reading strategies (GLOB) are the deliberate, meticulously planned methods used by students to control and manage their reading (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). These reading techniques are a group of reading techniques geared toward a comprehensive analysis of the text and can be viewed as generalized, deliberate reading techniques used to prepare the reader for the act of reading. Thus, “Global reading strategies include general strategies aimed at setting the stage for reading” (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002, p. 252). These techniques are frequently applied when organizing the reading assignment before beginning to read. Consequently, when readers read academic texts, they typically have a purpose for reading, and look for ways to achieve that purpose and so on.

In the SORS, GLOB strategy consists of 13 items. All these techniques are “a set of reading strategies oriented toward a global analysis of text” (Mokhtari, & Reichard, 2002, p. 252). Following is a brief explanation on eight of them whereby an attempt was made to clarify how ELT literature sees them (See the list in the Appendix B):

Setting purpose before reading: is a strategy readers require to set if they are very clear about exactly what they are looking for. The wide range of reading activities that students engage in before, during, and after reading a text are all influenced by their reading purpose, including the questions they answer in the text, the knowledge they seek to acquire (specific or general), the area they concentrate on, the speed they use, and the strategies they choose (Grelette, 1981; Janzen, 2002). Such focused reading can aid readers in reading more quickly, selectively, intently, and with greater ability to retain information. In addition, students with various reading objectives approach texts using various strategies (Grelette, 1981). That is, bottom-up strategies are appropriate if students' primary goal of the reading activity is to learn the lexical meaning of the text. Top-down strategies, on the other hand, will be much more effective for the students to use if a deeper understanding and analysis of the text is their goal. In short, understanding why students should read helps them focus their energies appropriately (Oxford, 1990: 158).

Background Knowledge: is the most important strategy for reading comprehension. In line with this, Erler and Finkbeiner (2007) stated that a number of factors can influence readers' proficiency with text comprehension, the most important of which is having prior knowledge of the text. Activating prior knowledge is exploiting the expanded prior knowledge that has already been acquired through reading newspapers, magazines, and books. Background knowledge is the process of connecting what we read about the world around us to the ideas, plans, and expectations we already have (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; Smith, 2004). It either influences readers' comprehension of what they read or aids in the acquisition of new knowledge (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; Tracey & Morrow, 2006). That is, the more knowledge readers have on a subject, the more likely for them to be able to understand what is written about it. According to Anderson and Pearson (1984), prior knowledge influences comprehension in three ways: 1) it supports students' inferences about what they read; 2) it draws attention to pertinent information within a knowledge domain; and 3) it offers a recall strategy.

All types of prior knowledges are not equally important to understand the text. For instance, when readers use their background linguistic knowledge such as vocabulary mastery in understanding text, it means they successfully applied their linguistic schema, which is understanding about phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary. Nonetheless, knowing words' meaning or structure could not be a guarantee to comprehend the text they are reading.

According to Rumelhart (1980), prior knowledge is more important than newly learned words and structures in reading comprehension. Therefore, for reading material to be understood, the passage's contents must align with the reader's prior experiences, which are integral to the reader's schema (Nuttall, 1982). Readers can, in general, make connection in three ways: text to text connection (i.e., connecting ideas what is being read with what has been read), text to self-connection (relating ideas of the text with the readers' own experience) and text to world connections (connecting the idea of the text with the world situation) (Keene & Zimmermann, 1997). Therefore, students who lack prior knowledge are going to have a difficult time through school careers. Yet, students with high prior knowledge will recall information easily.

Previewing is one type of Pre-Reading Strategy. It describes actions taken prior to reading in order to give readers the background information they need to comprehend the choice they will read next (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). The use of previewing supports readers to look into the

introductory material before they read specific texts. Important background information, such as definitions of challenging words, translations of foreign expressions, and explanations of challenging concepts, may be included in this type of introductory content. So, its benefits are allowing students to formulate theories about text. The goal of previewing is to facilitate readers' ability to anticipate or speculate about what will be in the text, which will activate efficient top-down processing for reading comprehension (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). Mostly, a text's title, images, captions, and other stimuli are typically closely related to the ideas and content of the text written by the author.

Skimming: is looking for the main ideas the reader wants to get across, predict the purpose of the passage, and possibly some of the developing or supporting ideas (Brown, 2001: 308). The main idea is usually located in a sentence, it is usually the first sentence but it can be in the middle or in the last sentence. This can make the main idea more difficult to locate.

Scanning: is searching for specific details of interest to the reader by ignoring the rest (Brown, 2001: 308). This strategy supports readers pick up what they have read instantly and check their ability to understand material that is directly stated in the text.

The use of context clues: is a technique used when the readers do not understand the unfamiliar words in the text. When readers struggle to understand new words in the text, they can use context clues. Using context clues like the definition, synonym or restatement, antonym or contrast, comparison, offering example/explanation, cause and effect, list or series, inference, or general context, students try to decipher what they are reading. Students who use the context clues in their reading can quickly determine the meaning of a passage and comprehend it without having to stop and look up each new word in a dictionary (Sharpe, 2005). A contextual clue can also be used to refer to a pronoun's antecedent which is the word or phrase it refers to (Ibid). The purpose of the pronouns in the sentences, such as those used to denote people, places, or situations, is expected of the students using this technique.

Guessing what the text's content is about: When drawing an inference, students must pinpoint meaning that is implied but not expressly stated in the text. This entails fusing information from sources with insights and firsthand knowledge. It also entails using information in the text to make educated guesses about new linguistics terms, predict outcomes, or fill in blanks such as

the strategy of inferencing from the title (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Inferences are made by making predictions, spotting underlying themes, using information to extrapolate meaning from the text, and interpreting images.

Analyzing and evaluating what is read: is applying rules to understand or produce a second language or making up rules based on language analysis. This approach follows a top-down, general to specific path. Reading each paragraph's opening line, for instance, can help you comprehend the entire text. classifying or reclassifying the content read into meaningful groupings in order to decrease the quantity of unrelated elements. Organizing the text's words based on their grammatical categories, for instance.

Determining whether or not assumptions about the text are accurate (Prediction): refers to the ability to guess what might occur next in the text's progression. Readers are expected to apply both their comprehension of the text and their own prior knowledge to accomplish this. Predicting reading comprehension is assessed by the reader using their knowledge of the subject matter, the text type and purpose, and the author. The reader also uses their knowledge of the author to make predictions about the author's writing style, vocabulary, and content. Furthermore, by examining the text's illustrations prior to reading the entire text, the reader will be better able to anticipate the topics the text will cover (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002).

2.5.6.2. Problem-Solving Reading Strategies

Problem-solving reading strategies (PROB) are actions, procedures or strategies employed by readers to better process difficult texts which come to the surface when the part of a text becomes terribly difficult to read and comprehend (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). Since these techniques seem to be focused on problem-solving approaches for when the text gets tough to understand, so they give readers well-thought-out plans that enable them to skillfully navigate the text, and thereby mitigate their comprehension problems. To this effect, by regularly practicing useful techniques that enable them to get past these obstacles, readers who wish to employ these strategies should be aware of what to do when they do not understand what they are reading. Readers are, therefore, more attentive to what they are reading, pause to verify their understanding, read again and again until they get the meaning, visualize the information, read out loud, or use their guessing skill when they do not know the vocabularies. In the SORS,

PROB comprise 8 items. Only Four of the PROB strategies which, the present researcher thinks, are not self-explanatory are presented and described briefly hereunder.

Pausing from time to time to think about reading: is the way of reading at times when a reader can focus and stay focused by taking frequent, brief breaks, maybe every five or ten minutes.

Visualizing information (imagery): is the process of comprehending or remembering newly written information through the use of visual images, either created or real (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Reading comprehension skills are enhanced through visualization, which is the mental picture that readers create in their minds while they read a text. To visualize, a reader must first deconstruct the text and then reconstruct it. It involves imagining what is being read and daydreaming with purpose. This is a greater way to make the meaning stick in brain and helps readers improve their reading comprehension skill. Likewise, Oxford (1990) regards this strategy as a good strategy to remember what has been read in the new language, for it enables readers to promptly use the text to create mental images of what they are reading.

Rereading (Repetition or rehearsal): is repeating the names of items or objects and sentences of text to be remembered (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Reading a passage more than once is done to understand it more completely or to increase understanding (Oxford, 1990). Rereading enables readers to go over the text more than once in order to fully understand its meaning. It is a profitable strategy to read a passage multiple times, with varying goals in mind. Some of the goals could be to grasp the main ideas or general flow of the passage, make predictions, read the passage in detail, make notes on questions, and so on (Oxford, 1990: 70). She contends that reading material aloud helps second language learners retain key information. To correct mistakes, the students might, for instance, reread a passage or a text.

Guessing the meaning of words or phrases that are unknown to you: involves using a wide variety of clues (including linguistic and nonlinguistic) to guess the meaning when the learner is not familiar to most of the words in the text (Oxford, 1990). This helps readers to overcome knowledge limitation in reading and make them independent in their reading. When a reader is not certain about the meaning of words, s/he usually uses this strategy. As a result, students who properly adopt guessing strategy expand their knowledge of vocabulary while they are reading any passage (Oxford, 1990, p. 90).

2.5.6.3. Support Reading Strategies

Support reading strategies (SUP) can be described as “basic support mechanism intended to aid the readers to comprehend the texts” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). These strategies occur when readers look for outside assistance or specific useful tips while reading scholarly English texts in order to increase their reading comprehension. Hence, they primarily involve additional physical activities and use of devices and techniques outside resources (reading aloud, underlining, taking notes, using dictionaries, etc.) and also post-reading activities (such as rereading the text to look for connections, having discussions with others about it, and other useful techniques) These tactics offer the kind of assistance meant to maintain reading-related reactions. Out of nine items of SUP, five of them are mentioned below as examples:

Taking notes while reading: is a technique of jotting down important terms and ideas as you read in brief oral, visual, or numerical form (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Students who take notes become more engaged learners who can better organize ideas, retain knowledge, and use notes as a study tool (Ibid).

Reading aloud: is saying simple words and sentence structures out loud. Readers employ this strategy to help them understand what they read and to remember it for long (Oxford, 1990). Although many scholars believed that reading aloud is beneficial in the early stages of reading development that aimed to improve learners' reading fluency, accuracy, and pronunciation, it could be adopted to enhance learners' visual memory and the ability to see images in their minds as well as training them in proper punctuation (Ibid). However, as Grabe (2009), Nuttall (2005) suggest, reading aloud weakens the mind and makes it difficult to focus and comprehend what is being read.

Using dictionary or reference materials (resourcing): is using the target language reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks to help readers understand difficult concepts and important vocabularies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Going back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas (elaboration): linking concepts found in new information or fusing new ideas with previously learned material is what O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define as elaboration.

The use of Translation technique: is a strategy that permits students to comprehend what they read using their native tongue, even though word-for-word translation can occasionally lead to incorrect interpretations. The readers' vocabulary can grow through translation. And having a strong vocabulary is essential for confident reading.

Summing up, as the current study is on students' type and frequency of reading strategy use as well as the relationship between their reading strategy and their reading performance, the researcher adopted Mokhtari and Sheorey's framework to easily and specifically explore students' reading strategy use. And the item of these strategies which merely involve Metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies used by the students are used as reference when designing the questionnaire for them, for they are much closely related to reading comprehension.

2.6. Local and Abroad Studies on the Relationship Between Reading Strategy Use and Reading Test Performance

Among researchers, there has long been an agreement on the idea that reading strategies could enhance reading comprehension. Thus, several studies In the field of reading research have been carried out to look into the relationship between reading test performance and reading strategy use at tertiary level both locally and abroad. Although a few studies claimed there was no relationship between the two constructs, the majority of research findings revealed a positive relationship between them. Here, a few of these conclusions are discussed.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, only two locally focused studies on tertiary students' reading abilities and strategy use in Ethiopia were conducted by Girma (1994) and Belilew (2015).

The main purpose of Girma's study was to investigate the reading strategies AAU 1st year students say they use frequently, less frequently and not at all and thereby to try to assess the students' awareness of a wide range of reading strategies that are believed by researchers to facilitate effective reading.

The data for Girma's (1994) study on the reading habits of students were mainly collected through a questionnaire. Follow-up interview questions were also used with a subset of the target population to verify and validate the replies obtained through the questionnaire. Many participants, according to Girma's research finding, were not only unaware of reading techniques but also infrequently used several of them, valued them highly, and were perceived as both acceptable and likely to obstruct the reading process (p. II).

However, the study of Belilew (2015) was quantitative in type, and information was gathered through a questionnaire and a reading comprehension test. The study focused on the connection between the reading strategies used by Dila 2nd year EFL university students and their reading comprehension. Following that, the data were examined using descriptive statistics and Pearson coefficient correlation. According to his research result, Ethiopian EFL students use medium strategies and perform at a lower level of reading proficiency than is necessary. Additionally, there was no positive or negative correlation between the application of reading strategies and reading test scores.

On the other hand, various studies on relationship between university students' reading strategy use and their reading test achievement were performed in abroad. For example, Phakiti (2003) looked into how 384 EFL Thai university students enrolled in a basic English course used their reading strategies in relation to how well they performed on reading tests. The students completed a questionnaire about their use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies while taking the tests in addition to a reading comprehension achievement test. Four extremely successful and four unsuccessful students in total were chosen to participate in the retrospective interviews. Results indicated that variations in students' performance on the reading test could be attributed to their use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies. The performance on the reading test was positively correlated with the use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, and successful students used significantly more metacognitive reading strategies than unsuccessful ones.

In another foreign study, 52 first-year Indian ESL students were investigated by Madhumathi and Ghosh (2012) using the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) and a reading comprehension test adapted from the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). The use of reading strategies

by students and their performance on reading comprehension tests were found to be positively correlated. The findings demonstrated a moderate correlation between students' overall use of reading strategies and their reading performance, with high proficiency students outperforming middle proficiency students and low proficiency students in terms of strategy use.

In a different study, Peng, Siriyothin, and Lian (2014) investigated the relationship between reading performance and reading strategy use among a group of 213 Chinese undergraduate students majoring in English using a reading strategy questionnaire and a reading comprehension test. The overall reading strategy use of the students and their reading performance were found to be moderate and positively correlated. The study also discovered that the only strategies that could accurately predict reading performance were metacognitive ones.

In contrast to the research findings discussed above, in a study carried out by Shang (2010), 53 first-year Chinese undergraduate English majors participated in a one-semester reading strategy instruction. After the study, the use of reading strategies and reading performance were compared, but it was discovered that there was no statistically significant correlation between the two constructs. An attempt was made to look into the causes using the students' reports, which showed how difficult it was for them to understand the passages using their vocabulary and background knowledge. To assist students with reading difficulties, it is recommended that direct strategy instruction be combined with decoding skill training and background knowledge improvement.

In addition to studying the relationship between reading strategy use and reading performance of students in general, many researchers specifically compared reading strategies used by high and low achievers and identified effective and ineffective readers' reading strategy use (Chamot, 2005). The goal of the comparisons made between the students' strategy use and their tests scores (being high and low achievers) was to examine the widely believed assertion of researchers that the more successful language learners use more learning strategies than less successful learners. To investigate the truthfulness of this claim, many studies including this one, scrutinized correlations between the use of reading strategies and the students' reading test scores.

In Ethiopia, a single study by Solomon looked into the relationship between high and low achievers' reading strategy use and their reading performance. Solomon (2000) carried out a qualitative investigation into the reading habits of a sample of Mekele undergraduate students at both high and low levels of language proficiency. Guided interviews were used to collect the data for this study. According to his research, there were no appreciable differences in the types of techniques used or their frequency among the participants. Furthermore, the results showed that "success in reading is related to a combination of an awareness of appropriate and effective strategy use and language ability" (Solomon, 2000, p. 273).

Nevertheless, many foreign researchers investigated the topic under discussion. For example, a study carried out by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) on 152 ESL American university students revealed that students exhibited noticeable differences in their strategy choices. As to their finding, compared to those who thought of themselves as poor readers, those who thought of themselves as good readers employed more techniques. The idea of good and poor readers in FL reading is directly related to FL reading proficiency. That is, effective EFL readers know how to use a variety of appropriate strategies to arrive at their learning goals; while less effective readers do not choose the appropriate strategies which hinders their broader studies and inevitably jeopardizes their academic performance.

Chen (1999) also investigated the discrepancy of reading strategies for academic purposes between low achievers and high achievers among Taiwanese junior college students. The findings showed that the high achievers make use of strategies more frequently and more variety of strategies compared to those who struggle in reading. It was also found out that high achievers are aware of their strategy use and why they employ these strategies. Also, while high-achiever students tend to apply comprehension monitoring and problem identification during their reading process, low-achiever students are of the counterproductive effects of poor strategies and are not effective enough in their monitoring activities during reading.

Besides, Ghavamnia et al. (2013) examined the differences between successful and less successful Iranian readers' strategy use while dealing with expository texts. According to their study, proficient readers made conscious reading choices by spending more time and energy on

meaning and by effectively utilizing metacognitive techniques. On the other hand, less proficient readers translated sentences word for word.

Zhang (2013) investigated thirty-three undergraduate Chinese students. After giving a reading comprehension exam, he separated the participants into groups based on their scores: high and low. According to his research, students who opted to use metacognitive strategies on the reading comprehension test typically scored higher; on the other hand, students who were unaware of metacognitive strategies were likely to receive lower scores.

The preceding studies show inconclusive results regarding the association between the use of the categories of metacognitive strategies and EFL reading comprehension. This is also true in other similar studies, for they exhibited mixed results. Thus, in many other studies, the positive relationship between reading strategies and reading performance was observed by (Baker & Boonkit, 2004; Barrot, 2016; Li, 2010; Liu & Wang, 2010; Liu & Zhang, 2008; Huang & Nisbet, 2014; and Meniando, 2016). Nonetheless, no significant correlations (positive and negative) between the reading strategies and the reading comprehension of college students were found by (Zuweldi et al., 2018) and others. Additionally, some studies (e.g., Al Sobhani, 2013) have found no correlation between support strategies and reading abilities and significant associations between problem-solving and global strategies.

Such different findings concerning the relationship between reading strategy use and reading test performance suggested the necessity for further studies to provide insights into the relationship between the two constructs in different research contexts and among different participants. Therefore, the present study was conducted to elicit empirical data about Ethiopian tertiary students' reading strategy use and reading performance in the Ethiopian EFL context.

2.7. Reading Instruction

In the EFL context, grammar, sentence structure, and vocabulary are the main topics of a reading skills-oriented textbook that is frequently used in English curricula. Articles with exercises to expand vocabulary and sentence structures make up the majority of the content. On the other hand, learners of English through reading-based textbooks who do not employ effective reading strategies are either ignorant of suitable EFL reading strategies or apply them insufficiently.

Consequently, many studies in the field suggested that teachers should help “correct” poor EFL readers’ strategic knowledge and help them to deal effectively with their academic reading.

Teachers can help students reflect and evaluate themselves by asking them about their reading and comprehension processes. This can contribute significantly to making students more conscious of reading strategies and encouraging them to become engaged readers. Nonetheless, most teachers are oblivious of cognitive processes that their students go through when trying to understand a text, as well as the specific reading techniques they employ during reading.

Students become more accountable for their meaningful learning when they are taught how to learn reading comprehension. As explained by Oxford (1990: IX), even though students are expected to use learning strategies themselves, the role of teachers in assisting students in using learning strategies in their learning appropriately and effectively is indispensable. Pressley (2000) also asserts that delivering learners with a repertoire of reading comprehension strategies supports them comprehend text. Thus, since strategy instruction fosters greater competence, proficiency, confidence, and self-awareness in students, it ought to be a fundamental component of the language learning process (Oxford, 1990; Griffiths, 2003).

As students advance through their academic careers, they are required to read more challenging informational and graphical texts. Reading such kind of texts cannot be fruitful if students are unaware of reading techniques. So, enabling students to use reading strategies appropriately and effectively in academic reading may be of utmost importance because it can be a powerful tool for overcoming language barriers and improving reading performance on reading proficiency tests. Since successful students are conscious about this importance, they often endeavor to use a variety of strategies and are adept at doing so in various situations. However, less successful students, who are often unaware of their own cognitive process in acquiring and using successful reading strategies, require to gain series assistance from their teachers to be an effective reader (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Thus, reading comprehension techniques must be explicitly taught to students, especially those who have reading difficulties (Janzen, 2002). It follows that English language instruction at the university should follow this trend and help students create effective use of reading strategies so they can get the most out of their reading both inside and outside of the classroom.

As explicated by Mokhtari Reichard and Sheorey (2008), students' academic reading ability can be improved by incorporating reading strategies into the reading instruction they receive. The task of incorporating is encouraged by looking into the techniques that learners currently employ. This is possibly one justification among others that many scholars have offered for why strategy instruction need to be a crucial part of teaching reading comprehension (Anderson, 1999; Grabe, 2009). Incorporating reading strategies in reading instruction aids in self-diagnosis, awareness of the most effective methods for learning a target language, the development of problem-solving skills, experimentation with both known and unknown learning strategies, decision-making regarding how to approach a task, monitoring and self-evaluation, the transfer of effective learning strategies to new learning contexts, and the development of students' independence, autonomy, and capacity to learn for life (Griffiths, 2003; Little, 1991, cited in Oxford, 2003).

The ultimate goal of any reading instruction is to help students fully understand the text (Brown, 2001; Shewa, 2017). In order to attain this goal, EFL teachers must first be aware of the reading strategies that their students already use and those that they might be lacking. Teachers should then decide precisely when and how to apply these strategies in an efficient manner. In this regard, Mokhtari and Reichard (2004) proposed that identifying the reading strategies that students use should be the first step in reading strategy instruction. Without this awareness, students might not benefit from strategy instruction. This is especially true when reading academic or school-related materials, where they might not be aware of their own reading strategies. An effective reader, for instance, can use background knowledge to decode the text by organizing, observing, and assessing the required metacognitive reading strategies. Therefore, it is important to provide ineffective readers with metacognitive reading strategy instruction in classroom settings where they have access to programs that teach them about strategy awareness.

Having raised learners' consciousness of what metacognitive strategies are, how and why they should deploy them, it is crucial to specifically improve their understanding of metacognitive knowledge about reading and reading strategies and make them active and constructively responsive readers (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). The use of such strategies that foster students' metacognitive knowledge, ensure success in reading comprehension, and lead to the use of autonomous strategies, must be supervised by EFL teachers (Baker & Brown, 1984). Students who are regularly supervised in employing metacognitive reading strategies can become

proficient readers (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Hence, they are advised to focus on metacognition and metacognitive strategies to become a proficient reader (Baker, 2008). He further stated that these strategies are often pondered as one of the major causes for the difference of the students' reading success.

A learner should gain knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies as well as experience or practice using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and evaluating the results of their efforts from such instruction. When students have this knowledge, they will be able to understand their own thought and learning processes. As a result, they will be more likely to supervise the choice and regularly use reading strategies in their reading, plan how to move forward with a learning task, continuously assess their own performance, resolve any reading difficulties they may encounter, and evaluate themselves after task completion (Zhang & Goh, 2006). This knowledge and skill would not come true without offering students an adequate training. The emphasis of this kind of strategy training must be on the appropriate times to apply strategies as well as their advantages. Oxford (1990) says that "learning strategies are easier to teach and modify" (p. 12) through strategy training, which, as has been suggested by Oxford, implies the following:

First, strategy training should be formed as an integral part of regular classroom events. Second, it should be embedded in meaningful communicative context. Third, students should be taught how to identify and analyze their preferred learning strategies by means of diaries, learning journals, interviews, and surveys. Fourth, teachers should provide explicit explanation and modeling of strategy use, and provide necessary opportunities for practice (Oxford, 2002, p. 122).

However, researchers are in search of an effective strategy training model that works in all contexts. As suggested by Rubin et al. (2007), there is still a need for a thorough model of reading strategies. There is a critical need for extensive additional research in Strategy-based-instruction at all L2 reading levels with a wide range of L2 languages, readers, and settings.

Some researchers believed that through carefully planned and explicit instruction, reading comprehension can be improved. For instance, a study conducted by Koda (2005) found that teaching specific reading strategies improves reading comprehension. The explicit teaching of

metacognitive strategies allows students to practice different strategies under the guidance of the teacher's modeling, enhancing self-direction and self-evaluation. That is perhaps the case for Schraw, Crippen and Hartley (2006) to urge educators to provide explicit instruction in cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

Therefore, in order to make students effective in their reading, EFL teachers should first be aware about strategies and then should regularly teach them a variety of explicit metacognitive reading strategies along with reading exercises and tasks. To this effect, university EFL instructors need to take reading strategies into account when developing the curriculum for reading courses and develop more reading strategy-related activities for use in the classroom, as suggested by Mokhtari et al. (2018). They should also be encouraged to naturally incorporate a strategy-based instructional program into the regular reading courses. Oxford (1990) suggests that the most practical and efficient way to improve students' reading comprehension is to incorporate strategy-based instruction into the reading course. Therefore, incorporating reading strategies requires to receive the attention it deserves in reading classrooms since it enables students to develop into deliberate readers who are in charge of their own reading. On top of that, instructors at university level need to thoroughly understand the systematic instruction in reading strategies, the notions of modern and popular theories and be committed to implement them in line with the existing realities in the learning institutions.

2.8. Theoretical Frameworks of the Study

Research is usually carried out within a theoretical framework. As noted by Chamot et al. (1996:176), "theoretical model in SLA is important as a base for explaining how a language is learned and how SL/FL can best be taught". This insight may have derived from cognitive psychologists who probed the nature of the mind in numerous studies and contributed theoretical models to the investigation of second language acquisition (Wenden, 1987). Cognitive psychologists claim that any comprehensive theory of human cognition must analyze how students think, remember, interpret, and produce language (Williams & Burden, 1997). Thus, the ability to store, remember and retrieve knowledge held in memory is crucial for understanding written material (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; Tracey & Morrow, 2006).

The holding system's information processing model is the fundamental tenet of cognitive theory. When using this method to study learning, psychologists are primarily interested in how students receive, process, and use information. Thus, they use Information processing model to “better understand the mental processes involved in learning via analyzing constructs such as attention, perception and memory” (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 9). The information processing model from cognitive theory is one of the theoretical frameworks used in the current study. The following section presents the justification for choosing this theory.

2.8.1. Information Processing Model of Cognitive Theory

Cognitive psychologists provide a variety of hypotheses for how people process information in their minds. These explanations are combined by the Information Processing Theory. In fact, information processing theorists first thought that humans thought similarly to computers. Learning is based on an information processing theory of human thought and action. This theory is predicated on two essential ideas. They are:

Behavior can best be explained by reference to how individuals perceive and interpret their experiences and the way in which individuals think and reason parallels the manner in which computers process information (Anderson, 1985).

Cognitive psychologists eventually discovered that the human thinking system is far more complex because, in contrast to computers, people actively engage in the process of making sense of their surroundings and can compare their current knowledge with their earlier experience. As Mikulecky (2008) cited in Mehdi (2017) argued that learning occurs in the human mind as a result of a meaningful process that connects newly encountered objects or events to previously understood cognitive concepts. He went on saying that a learner's prior knowledge, experiences, and values are all categorized into schemata, or classes; and each category, or schema, is connected to many other schemata in a complex mental network, allowing the reader to piece together a version of the text's meaning as they choose specific concepts or details in a text and compares them to prior knowledge. Meaning is not an implicit response, but a “clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience that emerges when potentially meaningful signs, symbols, concepts, or propositions are related to and incorporated within a given individual's cognitive structure on a no arbitrary and substantive

basis” (Anderson & Ausubel, 1965, quoted in Niguse, 2013:13). This capacity for association explains a variety of phenomena, including memory retention, the psychological organization of knowledge into hierarchical structures, and the eventual occurrence of forgetting (Ibid).

Put it simply, cognitive psychologists do not think that humans learn and internalize information in its exact form. Instead, they take part in their learning processes actively (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). This leads to the idea that learning in cognitive theory is an active, dynamic process in which learners choose information from their surroundings, organize it, relate it to what they already know, retain what they believe to be important, apply the information in the right situations, and evaluate the effectiveness of their learning efforts (Anderson, 1985; Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Ormrod, 2006). To this end, learners in this theory become those who not only primarily contribute and control their learning, but also ultimately take the responsibility for their learning.

According to Anderson (1985), most information is either declarative knowledge what we can declare or procedural knowledge what we know how to do and is retained in long-term memory. As to Richards and Schmidt (2010:156), any "information that consists of consciously known facts, concepts or ideas that can be stored as propositions" is referred to as declarative knowledge. For instance, a description of the English tense system could be given as a list of facts, rules, or statements, allowing learners to acquire declarative knowledge (Ibid). On the other hand, learners' knowledge of various methods for accomplishing tasks or resolving learning issues is referred to as procedural knowledge (O’malley and Chamot, 1990). It generally involves the execution of all cognitive skills. The way a student first learns to guess the meaning of unknown words in the text using the technique of contextual clue when learning reading in English is an example of procedural knowledge.

Learning a language, in the view of cognitive theorists, is a mental, individual process in which the learner constructs knowledge as they interact with understandable input and have opportunities to negotiate meaning and receive unfavorable feedback (Claros, 2008). Assuming that language learning involves active mental processes, cognitive theory places a strong emphasis on internal processes because learning occurs internally and is the result of processing input and output. Thus, the cognitive theorists viewed learning language like any other type of

learning, which occurs via taking in information, and which then processed and acted upon (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997). So, they described language comprehension as an “active and complex processes in which individuals construct meaning from aural or written information” (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:33), and a language learner as an active participant who could manage his/her own learning by “selectively attending to incoming data, hypothesizing, comparing, elaborating, reconstructing its meaning and integrating it with previously stored information for future use” (Wenden, 1991, p. 1). This suggests that there are three core cognitive elements of language learning which are particularly important in this theory: (1) how knowledge is formed, (2) how knowledge becomes automatic, and (3) how newly learned information is incorporated into the learner's preexisting cognitive system (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Therefore, learning language in cognitive theory is learning a complex cognitive skill, and L2 learning is learning a skill with which language learners utilize to absorb, retain and retrieve information (Ellis, 1994).

The fact that many researchers utilized this notion in L2 learning process, and the research findings that most L2 learning processes are found in this theory, it became the fundamental justification for using cognitive theory in language acquisition.

Based on the aforementioned viewpoint, cognitive theory may serve as a viable theoretical framework for this study. But cognitive theory is insufficient for study because it places more emphasis on internal than on external processes. According to Brown (2000), if researchers developed SLA or teaching theories that were solely focused on cognitive processes, they would be ignoring the most fundamental aspect of human external influences. These external influences are mostly manifested via learning strategies (referred by many as external skills), and they are more problem oriented and conscious (Oxford, 1990). Thus, in order to make up for the gaps in the cognitive theory, the current study used learning strategy theory as a framework.

2.8.2. Language Learning Strategy Theory

The idea behind using learning strategy research as a theoretical framework was that most learning processes are ineffective without knowledge of different learning strategies and how to apply them. As a matter of fact, the overall processes and outcomes of language learning depend heavily on the success of each strategy group. In order to make the most of their opportunities,

learners ought to be aware of the appropriate strategies. They will benefit from this by having better memories and being able to effectively store and retrieve knowledge.

Studies conducted in the domain of second language acquisition reveal that the appropriate application of language acquisition techniques enhances both the general proficiency of a second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) and specific language skills. Conceptually, language strategies and skills are related (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), for strategies are often used when dealing with how students acquire particular skills such as reading.

Learners are supposed to employ various strategies. For instance, in order to fully utilize the linguistic and real-world knowledge that make up declarative knowledge, students must employ a variety of strategies. Real world knowledge enables readers to use top-down strategies that process information by predicting, anticipating, inference and use of background knowledge. On the other hand, linguistic knowledge enables readers to apply bottom-up strategies to decoding the smallest units of meaning such as letters and words, identifying letter features, recognize spelling patterns, analyze individual word meaning and grammatical characteristics (O'Malley et al., 1985). Procedural knowledge, in its part, involves the execution of all cognitive skills.

An activity that usually precedes or follows such cognitive activities is the use of metacognitive strategies, for it serves as the "manager" of students' learning. When cognition fails, such as realizing that one did not comprehend what they had just read, the metacognitive approach is frequently used to rectify the situation. This means that when cognition is problematic, metacognition enters the picture, making metacognitive strategies the most important for effective L2 learning (Goh, 2008). Adding on this, Anderson (2002:2) says, "Strong metacognitive skills empower second language learners". Hence, the use of this strategy category is associated to the success in L2 proficiency. Recent research suggests that "the further development of cognitive to metacognitive thinking enhances both retention and comprehension for the learner, and that the ability to think metacognitively is the critical distinction between low and high achieving students" (Curwen et al., 2010, p. 128-9). On the other hand, devoid of metacognitive strategies, learners are essentially without direction or the chance to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or reflect on their successes and future learning directions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 8).

In the view of many researchers, acquisition of reading skill requires both metacognition and cognition. While metacognition involves thinking about thinking, cognition deals only with the act of knowing; or “an awareness of one's thought processes that evaluate the effectiveness of choices made in the present as well as the long-range outcomes” (Curwen et al., 2010:128). Thus, a learner requires to equip himself/herself with cognitive strategies which are used to help an individual achieve a particular goal (e.g., understanding a text), and metacognitive strategies which are employed to ensure if the goal has been met (e.g., asking oneself to assess one's understanding of that text) (For further detail, see 2.6.1. and 2.6.2).

2.9. Conceptual Framework (Model)

Over the last four decades, as learners have gained a prominent place in foreign language research, language educators and researchers have focused a great deal of attention on language learning strategies in general and skill-based strategies like reading strategies in particular. The tenets of contemporary reading strategy and language learning strategy theory assert that, despite studying the same content in the same classroom under the same circumstances, language learners do not always employ the same LLSs (Oxford, 1990). This might be the case for various reasons. A distinction in strategy selection based on language learning performance is one of them. Nonetheless, the least researched area is that the relationship between students' use of reading strategies and other variables (like reading proficiency).

Thus, the main purpose of the current study is to examine the relation between reading strategy use and reading comprehension. The following figure (Figure 1) shows the conceptual framework of the study.

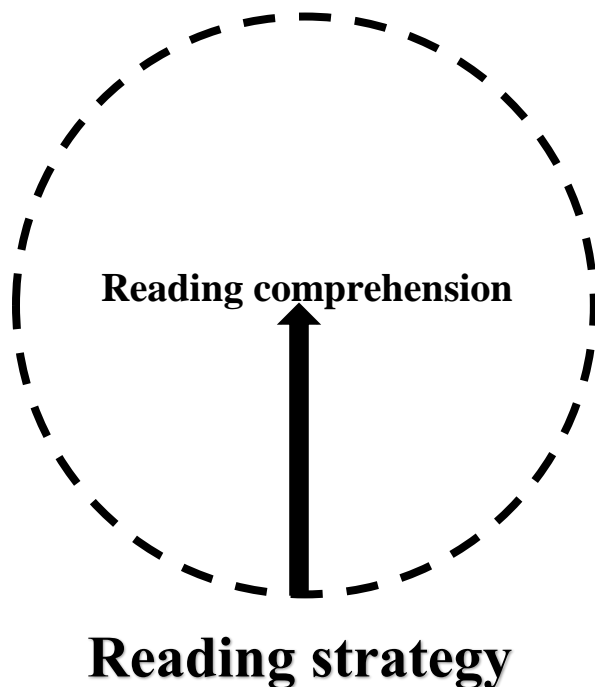


Figure 1: The Model Representing the Relationships among Variables

The three variables are located on the boundary of the circle as all of them are the independent variables that this study aimed to see their effects on the interior part of the circle i.e. the dependent variable reading comprehension. The broken lines (of a circle and arrow) in this model show the gap that this research intended to investigate.

Summing up, this chapter presented the related literature for this study. Language learning strategies by definition are operations, techniques, steps, processes, behaviors, or thoughts used by learners to guide, facilitate, and solve problems in their language learning and language use. And reading strategies by definition are specific plans, actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that individual learners use to learn and/or improve their English reading skills. In other words, reading strategies reflect the ways in which students choose and use to learn reading in a target language.

As reflected in the literature review, some ambiguities about learning strategies still exist and the need for further study is supported. On the whole, research on foreign language learning strategies in general and reading strategy use, in particular is in its infancy. Regarding this Grenfell and Macaro (2007:28) claim “It may seem surprisingly that, after 30 years, language learning strategy research is still quite an immature field.” The current study is an attempt to

further examine effects of reading strategy on reading comprehension. There is still lack of current research which cohesively addresses each of these areas. Thus, in the subsequent chapter, an attempt was made to investigate the relation between reading strategy use and reading comprehension.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

The following Chapter is devoted to describing the methodology of the current study, which comprises the research design, site, participants, instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.1. Design of the Study

Research design (method) is described as a way of collecting, analyzing and interpreting data that researchers obtained for their studies (Saunders et al., 2012). There are various types of methods for collecting quantitative and qualitative data for research. The present study uses an embedded mix methodology that combines quantitative and qualitative methods into a single study, with the qualitative component serving as a support for the quantitative component (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Creswell (2009) stated that a mixed method is a procedure for gathering, analyzing, and combining quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study. The notion "mixing" in this context refers to the integration or connection of data or findings at one or more points during the course of the study.

A mixed method was employed in the current study because it was thought as it enables data triangulation, which would increase data accountability and thoroughness. It may also aid results be expanded, explained, supported, and verified; it may also enable a study's generalizability; It addresses the problem of one method providing insufficient data; It could contribute to a more diverse range of perspectives in the research; Data fusion ensures that the results of the two approaches are consistent with one another and may boost study reliability (Saunders et al., 2012).

The study is descriptive and correlational in design. It is descriptive because it attempted to get data about the current status of a language behaviors as they exist at the time of investigation (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). It is also correlational, for it seeks to find the existence of relationship or association between the reading strategies and the reading proficiency. Researchers use correlational research designs to quantify and characterize the degree of association (or

relationship) between two or more variables or sets of scores by manipulating the correlation statistical test (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). The correlational design employed in this study is explanatory. This type of design is conducted when researchers want to explore the extent to which two or more variables co-vary, that is, where changes in one variable are reflected in changes in the other (Creswell, 2012).

The research was carried out cross-sectionally, that is, at Wollo University in Ethiopia at a particular moment. Ex post facto study design was used because the researcher had no control over how the variables were changed.

3.2. Research Site and the Rationale to Choose

This study described here was carried out at Wollo University, (a public university). It is situated in the city of Dessie, which serves as the regional center for the south Wollo region of Ethiopia's Amhara region.

The university was chosen as a study site due to the following two grounds: the first one is familiarity with the area and the second accessibility. To begin with, the researcher is acquainted with every instructor in the English Department. He also gets along well with almost everyone. And this would hopefully offer him better access to the Department and its students as subjects, which could have been difficult otherwise. Second, the researcher specifically chose this site because it is relatively more convenient for him because it is close to his residential place.

3.3. Selection of Subjects

At the time of data collection, the participants were enrolled in the Freshman program to take the Course Communicative English Skills I (FLEn 1011) in the 2022 academic year at Wollo University's college of social science. This college was preferred for practical reasons. Given that the researcher was a member of the college's academic staff, it was hoped that he would be able to enlist the aid of his colleagues, particularly those who instructed Freshman English courses. These individuals were expected to facilitate communication between the researcher and the research subjects by acting as a conduit for information. Participant students were also chosen from the college because those enrolled in this stream are presumed to have read a lot of

English academic materials, making them generally more proficient readers of academic texts. All of them have learned English for more than 12 years since primary school, and they have acquired some reading strategies. They were therefore hoped to understand and respond to the questionnaire and interview questions properly.

Since the first-year students were assigned to each Freshman English class according to the alphabetization principle, it would be appropriate to choose specific sections rather than individuals from among the entire sections. Three sections (code numbers: 04, 08 and 12) were chosen from 12 freshmen sections overall for the current study by using the principle of random sampling technique because it was thought that selecting sections rather than individual students from each section would be sufficient to meet the goals of the study.

To ensure that every section has an equal chance of being selected—that is, that the selection of one section does not affect the selection of another, the researcher employed a simple random sampling technique. Thus, it is possible to be confident that the sections chosen represent all the freshmen sections of the University. With an average of 46 students per section, the three sections together have 138 students. All of these 138 students were willing to participate in the study. So, all of them filled and returned the questionnaire and took the reading test. However, because three of the participants missed some items from the SORS, they were excluded from the study. Thus, the data were analyzed only for those 135 students who completed the questionnaire correctly. This size of a sample which was taken from the population of 552, was believed to be sufficient, considering the scope of the study and time constraint.

Following this, the participants of the study were divided into three groups according to the scores they got from the reading exam. The top 22% were designated as high-proficiency students while the bottom 22% were as low-proficiency students. Accordingly, there were 30 high-achievers and 30 low-achieving students among the 135 subjects. A total of 60 students were included as the other sample of this study. This sample size fits with suggestion of Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2012:103) who state that for correlational studies, a sample of at least 50 is deemed necessary to establish the existence of a relationship. Their ages range from 18 to 25 with an average age of 20 (See Appendix J). The data were collected during the first semester of 2022 academic year.

3.4. Instruments of the Study

Many studies suggested that the variety of techniques make the data more substantial and valid. As noted by Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun (2012) when a conclusion is supported by data collected from various instruments, it enhances validity. Hence, the choice of the tools used in this study was based on the assumption that they will work interdependently so as to yield valid results. Thus, the present researcher employed three tools. They are questionnaire or SORS (both close-ended and open-ended), test and interview. The subsequent section presents a detail about each of these instruments.

3.4.1. Survey of Reading Strategies

The Survey of Reading Strategy (SORS) is a self-reported instrument used to examine one's awareness and use of metacognitive reading strategies via eliciting information from the reading strategies employed by students during reading school related materials such as text books. It was proposed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) to measure metacognitive awareness and perceived use of reading strategies among adult and adolescent students who spoke English as a second or foreign language. SORS is "a simple, yet effective tool for enabling students to develop a better awareness of their reading strategies, for helping teachers assess such awareness, and for assisting students in becoming constructively responsive readers" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 2).

Since the SORS asked students to report on their reading strategy use, it mainly assessed the quantity not the quality of the strategies used. SORS aims at determining and evaluating learners' reading strategies, "mental plans, techniques and action" adopted once they read academic texts. In research, the strategy questionnaire has so far been used with the intention of evaluating the extent to which students, based on their self-report results, were using strategies covered in the study during reading and which kinds of strategies were used the most and the least.

The premise behind gathering data on strategy use is that students' performance will almost certainly improve if they are aware of and employ appropriate reading strategies when they read. Even so, even though some of them are aware of reading strategies, they might not utilize them when completing a reading task, and if they do, they might not be able to use them effectively or

might even employ ineffective ones. According to Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), readers who often employ metacognitive reading strategies are more aware of the need to select effective reading techniques that will aid them when reading for academic purposes. This can be measured via SORS effectively.

3.4.1.1. Components of Survey of Reading Strategies

SORS comprises randomly arranged sets of 13, 8 and 9 statements; each of which explores a particular reading strategy of a student (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). This Likert-scale questionnaire contains 30 close-ended items in total under three subcategories, namely Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) and Support reading Strategies (SUP). The items are represented in the SORS as shown below.

Items of SORS 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 15, 17, 20, 21, 23, 24 and 27 (13 questions in total) are grouped to inquire regarding learners' global reading strategies. GLOB refers to planned techniques used by students to organize their reading, or intentional techniques help readers to prepare for their reading (e.g., setting purpose). Items 7, 9, 11, 14, 16, 19, 25 and 28 (eight questions in total) of the questionnaire are clustered to ask about students' problem-solving reading strategy. PROB deals with actions and procedures that readers take when reading difficult parts of a text (e.g., guessing meaning). And Items of SORS 2, 5, 10, 13, 18, 22, 26, 29, and 30 (nine questions in total) are assembled to elicit information about students' support reading strategies. SUP is using devices or techniques to understand a text (e.g., dictionary).

The questionnaire used to collect data from the participants in the current study uses these three classes of reading strategies, which interact and support one another when employed in the process of deriving meaning from text.

There is also one open-ended question in questionnaire which was included with the assumption that it would help to get additional data. So, subjects of the study are expected to present interesting reading experiences and elaborate further over how they read academic materials and which reading techniques they used.

3.4.1.2. The Rationale for Selecting SORS

The followings are rationales for selecting SORS as an instrument of the study. First, SORS is reading specific. So that it shows the application of each strategy category and its respective group of strategies to one of the language skills, (i.e., reading skills specifically). Second, while teaching reading in Wollo University to regular students, the researcher employed this questionnaire many times to assess students' reading strategy use and found it interesting and invaluable. Third, it is simple to administer, understand, and score; it is not scored by a third party. It also takes not too long to complete; and its scales are simple to report. Fourth, it is particularly designed to measure metacognitive awareness of reading strategies of L2 learners while reading academic materials.

Moreover, the survey was developed and validated for EFL/ESL students; thus, it is appropriate for the study's EFL subjects (Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2002). Additionally, it was thought to be a useful tool for this study because it had undergone extensive testing and was highly reliable (e.g., Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Besides its reliability and validity checks, SORS is chosen as the basic instrument because the data is amenable to quantification. Therefore, SORS seems to be more effective than other instruments at gathering data on EFL students' use of reading strategies and help researchers understand what, how often, when, where, and how students used strategies while reading academic texts in English in an EFL context. This makes SORS an ideal tool to investigate the type and frequency of reading strategy used by students and their influence on their reading performance in an EFL context.

3.4.1.3. Methods of Participants' Responses

SORS is composed of thirty closed ended items with the alternative answer that would be chosen by the students. Each item is on a Likert scale, and informants chose only the best answers which are suitable to themselves, or they are required to identify their frequency use of each strategy.

The SORS uses a five-point Likert-scale as shown below for each strategy ranging from 1 to 5 (Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2002). The number indicates how often the learner uses strategies:

1. I never do this (i.e., the statement is very rarely true of you).
2. I occasionally do this (i.e., the statement is true less than half the time).

3. I sometimes do this (i.e., the statement is true about half the time).
4. I usually do this (i.e., the statement is true more than half the time).
5. I always do this (i.e., the statement is true of you almost always).

Therefore, students require to indicate their response by writing the numbers of the alternatives of the questionnaire only. A score of “5 meant that the student always used a strategy; 4 meant it was used most of the time; 3 meant sometimes using the strategy; 2 meant using the strategy occasionally; and 1 meant the student never used the strategy” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). Following this, SORS scores for each subscale were calculated by using scoring guidelines provided by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002). With regard to one open ended item of the questionnaire, students also responded by writing their feelings freely.

Table 3.1: Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) Criteria to Understand Mean Score of Reading Strategy Use

High	Always or Almost Always Used	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually Used	3.5 to 4.49
Medium	Sometimes Used	2.5 to 3.49
Low	Occasionally Used	1.5 to 2.49
	Never or Almost Never Used	1.0 to 1.49

As portrayed in the above table, SORS scores = “always used” with a mean of 4.5 to 5.0 and “usually used” with a mean of 3.5 to 4.49 are altogether designated as high usage. Scores = “sometimes used” with a mean of 2.5 to 3.49 are considered medium strategy utilization and scores ranging from = “occasionally used” with a mean of 1.5 to 2.49 and “never used” with a mean of 1.0 to 1.49 are labeled as low strategy use. These usage levels provide a helpful standard that can be used for interpreting the score averages obtained by individual or groups of students.

As a general rule, the overall score averages indicate how often students use all the strategies in the inventory when reading academic materials. The averages for each subscale in the inventory show which group of strategies (i.e., Global, Problem-solving, and Support Strategies) students use most or least when reading. With this data, they can determine whether they perform exceptionally well or poorly in any of these strategy groups. If they score poorly on any of the

subscales or sections of the inventory, it might be a good idea for them to learn about and give some of the reading strategies in these sections some thought. Put differently, the SORS scores are interpreted based on the overall average, which indicates the overall frequency with which the learners are likely to use reading strategies, and the means for each section of the SORS indicate the specific strategy groups that the learners are typically likely to use. That is, the higher score a subject gets, the more frequently s/he uses reading strategies and vice versa.

Finally, the mean usage value was used to calculate the standard deviation (SD). Certain SORS items, for instance, demonstrate the participants' wide range of strategy usage. This shows how different participants rated this specific SORS strategy, with scores ranging from 1 to 5, demonstrating a striking variation in how different participants use or view this particular strategy as significant. Moreover, the overall standard deviation (SD) can be compared to the overall SDs for the other two strategy classifications to get a sense of the overall variance in usage for individual strategies within this specific strategy classification. The greater this number, the more probable it is that some participants rated this classification lower overall while others posted higher usage scores. Conversely, greater agreement among participants regarding strategy usage within that specific strategy classification is indicated by a lower overall standard deviation. Put it simply, standard deviation was calculated to indicate if the responses are even or uniformed. If the standard deviation is close to the mean, that describes that there is not a wide variance in the responses, and if the standard deviation is not close to the mean, that describes that there is a wide variance in the responses.

3.4.1.4. Validity and Reliability of the SORS

It is clear that when thinking about a research instrument, the concepts of validity and reliability are crucial. Validity is concerned with the extent to which the data gathering instruments measure what they are supposed to measure; it also refers to the steps undertaken by the researcher to ensure item appropriateness and language clarity (Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Selinger and Shohamy, 1989). In broader sense, validity, for the domain of mixed method research like that of this one, is the ability of the researcher to draw meaningful and accurate conclusions from all the data in the study, quantitative and qualitative (Creswell Plano Clark, 2007).

A reliable test is one that, under the same test conditions, produces results that are nearly identical each time the test is administered (Creswell, 2007; Madsen, 1983). This implies that a subsequent researcher will reach the same results and conclusions if they employ the same methods as those previously reported by the earlier researcher. Prior to gathering study data, the validity and reliability of the research instruments were examined. Two methods were used to verify the instruments: a pilot study and reviewers. In the subsequent section, a brief account on validity and reliability of SORS is presented.

Prior to the pilot test, it was necessary to verify the validity and reliability of each instrument after the materials and tools pertinent to the study's goals and design had been identified. The rationale was that there are numerous things that can degrade an instrument's quality. Hence, all instruments must be subjected to expert judgement prior to the studies in order to maximize their validity and reliability. This scenario enables them to assess whether the wording of the questionnaire was appropriate and comprehensible for each and every respondent. As will be explained below, experts were consulted prior to the pilot test in order to confirm the validity issues. This being the case, all necessary adjustments were subsequently made to improve the linguistic clarity and content validity of the questionnaire.

Therefore, two PhD TEFL students whose research focused on strategy and a measurement expert evaluated the questionnaire items' face validity, content validity and their linguistic clarity before the pilot study. These people were asked to comment on the quality and comprehensibility of the questionnaire using a validation form that had been used by Chen (2002). This validation form's requirements were laid out as questions. The first question to ask is: Does the device "look like" it is measuring the intended object? Second, Are the items representative of concepts related to the dissertation topic? Third, Is each item in the instruments clear? Or, Is the language/wording appropriate? These three questions (criteria) were used to test "Face validity", "Content validity" and "Clarity" respectively (See the detail in Appendix E).

To this end, they commented on simplifying certain terms and changed the wording used in the questionnaire's questions. To make certain items clearer, word, phrase, and clause changes were made. More precisely, minor adaptations were made on the following issues: Items 24 and 27 were rephrased while keeping the same meaning. Items 3, 19 and 26 were the statements which were not clear. Thus, each was presented with examples. In addition, the labels of the three

categories in Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002) SORS were removed in response to the experts' feedback that the terms were confusing and distracting. The reviewers also suggested the researcher to write the word 'Instruction' and the titles such as 'Students' Questionnaire' in bold types.

Regarding comments on face validity of the SORS, they commented that there is a plausible connection between the surface characteristics of the measure's content and the constructs as theoretically defined.

Concerning content validity, Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) specified that expert judgement was used to determine the instrument's content validity. As a result, the expert—a professor of educational psychology—was primarily consulted regarding the content validity of the questionnaire. Eventually, feedback on the items' clarity and applicability was received. The unclear items were revised in response to comments received. Furthermore, there was no need to translate the questionnaire into Amharic because it was written in a very basic form of English.

Based on these suggestions, the problematic areas of the instrument were revised, improved, rewritten and shown to the research supervisor for approval. Upon obtaining approval from the research supervisor, the instrument had been written again, for the researcher was able to verify that every SORS questionnaire item could serve the intended purpose. That is, it was made ready for pilot-testing.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the test-retest method were used to assess the SORS's reliability. Test-retest reliability is a tool used to evaluate a measure's consistency over time (Dornyei, 2007). He further noted that one to two weeks after the first round of SORS administration is frequently advised as the ideal time to retest the same instrument with the same respondents in order to reduce test carryover effects. Therefore, two weeks after the initial round of SORS administration, the SORS was given once more to the subjects. Following the retest, the SORS' reliability coefficient (coefficient of equivalence) was calculated.

In addition, internal consistency reliability is used to assess the consistency of results across items within a test (Dornyei, 2007). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was computed to determine the internal consistency reliability of the SORS (30 items) responses to the whole participants in the pilot and main study. A Cronbach's alpha value of .70 and above indicates “good or adequate”

reliability (Multon & Coleman, 2010, p. 162). They went on saying that in fact, any constructs below .60 should be reconsidered, for they have restricted applicability. The internal consistency reliabilities of the questionnaire (30 items) responses for 22 participant students were calculated in the pilot study, and responses to the 60 participants of the main study, and were found to be 0.83 and .81 Cronbach's alpha respectively. Since the results of the pilot and main study's overall reliability and the results of each reliability category showed more than the Cronbach Alpha value of .7, it can be said that the value of the SORS items was suitable, consistent, and valid for carrying out this study (See Appendix F and Appendix G).

3.4.2. Reading Comprehension Test

3.4.2.1. Sound Reading Test

According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989:176), tests are generally used to collect data about the subjects' ability and knowledge of the second language in areas such as vocabulary, reading and general proficiency. In order to measure students' reading comprehension skills, the researcher sought a sound reading test. Later, he comes to understand that not every sound test is effective for accurately gauging L2 reading proficiency. Brown (2001) contends that using a locally created test is preferable for a researcher because it satisfies the cultural and educational needs of test takers. With that in mind, the current researcher visited the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia, AAU, and Ethiopian Educational Assessment and Examination Agency for appropriate L2 tests, but he was unable to find any. Any researcher is advised in these situations to (1) use pre-made and refined tests, (2) adapt and revise existing tests, or (3) develop new tests (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

The researcher of this study opted the second advice and he then modified and revised the model TOEFL version 2011 reading test. Then, the researcher together with the course instructor utilized the modified reading test to measure EFL learners' reading performance by administering the reading test which consists of four short reading passages that covered a variety of topics appropriate for academic reading. These reading comprehension passages were selected because they found them good to measure the participants' ability to read English texts for main ideas, details, inferences and other strategic processing necessary to enhance effective comprehension, close to their culture and experience.

The students' reading performance is related to their ability or skill in interpreting the content of the texts using reading micro-skills proposed by the Education Testing Service (ETS) experts who designed the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL); These micro-skills involve understanding the main idea, understanding supporting ideas/details, understanding organization of the text, implied details, word meaning, understanding pronoun reference, and others (Sulistyo, 2015). These reading micro-skills were covered in the current reading comprehension test. Administering such sort of reading test, the researcher as well as the course instructor were able to measure students' language ability in general and reading ability in particular because "reading difficulties are closely associated with L2 readers' level of proficiency in the target language" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 3).

3.4.2.2. Test Format

Reading comprehension test questions can be in different formats. However, the researcher altered the multiple-choice format to administer 50 reading comprehension questions each of which holds four choices. The main rationale behind selecting this format was its practicality: students are accustomed to it, it is simple to administer, and it can be scored quickly. Due to its widespread use in the field, multiple-choice exams were also chosen over other test formats because of its popularity in the examination system of Ethiopia, and because it provides examiners with the room to examine a broad content area, which may not be feasible with other methods. Moreover, the availability of 'statistical support for the analysis of multiple-choice tests and straightforward interpretation of test analysis result' (Phakiti, 2003: 659), which also constitutes a strong attraction for the choice of the multiple-choice format of testing in the current study.

3.4.2.3. Validity and Reliability of the Reading Comprehension Test

Even though the TOEFL test was developed by subject matter experts and has undergone multiple revisions over the years, there might be some unforeseen problems with the scripts. This is because the researcher made some changes to the test materials, and then he printed and photocopied them. Thus, experts had to make sure that the texts were precisely altered, legibly reprinted, and photocopied so that participants could read and answer to every question with ease.

Therefore, the researcher provided the reading comprehension tests to a veteran professor at Wollo University who specializes in testing to ensure that the reading test is appropriately levelled for the students, as well as that the test formats, content, question types, and distractions are all in line with testing principles. This was done to find out how the test was created and what the instructors thought of it. Upon receiving the expert's feedback and recommendations, the researcher made revisions to the reading comprehension test, including adding paragraph numbers, bolding or underlining words, correcting spelling, removing distracting words and phrases that could give away the answer, and reevaluating the time allotted and passage length. Following modifications based on expert evaluation, the model TOEFL reading exam was piloted with 24 first-year Wollo University social science students. The test was administered on March 2, 2022, during the academic year.

3.4.2.4. Item Analysis

An effort was undertaken to assess the adequacy of the test in order to determine whether or not the reading passages corresponded to the students' level. According to Madsen (1983, p. 180), an item analysis gives the test constructor essentially three advantages: 1) How challenging each question is; 2) if the question "discriminates" or distinguishes between high and low students; and 3) which distractions are effective. It was therefore crucial to use the test results of the students that were acquired during the item analysis pilot phase, as this could potentially assist the researcher in evaluating the worth of each item and determining whether it needs to be altered, refined, or eliminated.

Bearing this in mind, an item analysis was done to assess each item according to its degree of discrimination and difficulty. The degree of difficulty for each item was determined using the following formula, which was proposed by Mehrens and Lehmann (1984): $\text{Difficulty} = \frac{R}{T} \times 100$, where R is the proportion of students who correctly answered the item. T is the total number of students in both groups (high + low). With respect to the degree of discrimination, the researcher computed the item discrimination by deducting the number of correct responses in the low group (RL) from the number of correct responses in the high group (RH), then dividing the result by the total number of students in each group. Items with a discrimination index of .2 or higher and facility values between .3 and .7 were therefore regarded as good items.

3.4.3. Interview

3.4.3.1. The Meaning of Interview and Purpose

Interview was the third data gathering instrument used in this study. It is a process of communication in which the informant gives the required information verbally (Dornyei, 2007). To Saunders et al. (2012), a research interview is a “purposeful conversation between two or more people requiring the interviewer to establish rapport, to ask concise and unambiguous questions and to listen attentively” (680). Thus, the use of it helps to get information by actually talking to the subject and enables the researcher to get data in depth.

The present study used interview to supplement or consolidate the data gathered through questionnaires and gain more insight from participants' awareness of the use of metacognitive reading strategies. Combining questionnaires and interviews increases the likelihood of collecting both quantitative and qualitative data by allowing the two methods to complement one another (Dornyei, 2007). Thus, the primary goal of the interview was to understand how and why the students actually used reading strategies when engaging in academic reading from the standpoint of their real-world experiences.

As some reading strategies are mainly covert behaviors that students may not certainly respond to that part of the questionnaire, the researcher thought that better evidence could be obtained if students are invited to tell in a face-to-face communication about what they do in their reading comprehension. This method, according to Radloff (2002) provides “evidence of participants' level of metacognitive awareness and knowledge about learning and themselves as learners” (p. 268).

3.4.3.2. Semi-Structured Interview and the Rationale to use

Semi-structured interview was prepared and used by the researcher as one of the data generating method from participants' in-depth data on strategy use. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), semi-structured interview is a hybrid of structured and unstructured interview that researchers use to understand the detailed information about the reported behavior, opinions, attitudes and background of participants.

The semi-structured interview questions were adapted and customized by the researcher based on the Survey of Reading Strategies of Sheorey and Mokhtari 2002. It took a lot of work to include concepts in the question content that expressed the experience, behaviors, opinions, and skill or knowledge of the interviewees. Accordingly, the researcher has designed ten interview questions with three main parts. Questions 1 through 5 comprised the first portion of the interview, which focused on obtaining the interviewees' basic personal data. This portion was meant to: (1) foster a positive rapport and sense of trust between the interviewer and the subjects; (2) boost the subjects' self-assurance in the interview setting and (3) to be aware of the interviewees general opinion about reading and its role for academic success, their reading behavior, attitude toward reading in English and their challenges in reading in English.

The students' outside-of-class reading strategies were the main topic of discussion in the second section (Questions 6–8). This section aimed to investigate the reading strategies employed by the students both before and during their reading of academic texts, as well as the difficulties they faced and how they overcame them. These were questions about global strategy (Q6), questions about problem-solving (Q7), questions about support (Q8). The third part (Questions 9 to 10) focused on the teacher/pedagogical implications.

The semi-structured interview format was chosen in this study for different reasons. First, because it is flexible, it allows the interviewer to use a list of questions as a general guide rather than specific inquiries that are phrased the same way for each participant (Merriam, 2009). Second, it is an effective way to get important information from samples who might not like to communicate their responses in detail in writing (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Third, during the interview, the interviewer can get opportunities to clarify any unclear questions for the interviewees.

3.4.3.3. Method of Interviewing Samples

After explaining the objective of the study and having got the interviewees' consent, the researcher himself has conducted face to face interviews with 12 students individually, recruiting six participants from each high and low achieving level. This sample size fits with the suggestion made by Creswell (2007) for the semi-structured interviews that, depending on the interview content, need a minimum sample size of five to twenty-five to be considered acceptable and

reliable. At their convenience, all twelve participants willingly agreed to participate in semi-structured interviews.

The interview was held in Amharic language, which is the mother tongue and /or dominant means of communication of the students. The researcher used Amharic language because it is easy for participants to express their ideas without a barrier of language (Dornyei, 2007). It also enabled the researcher to elicit the required data. During the discussion, The researcher made an effort to steer the conversation by keeping the interview's objectives front and center, asking pertinent questions, and providing the participants with pertinent verbal and nonverbal cues. This was pertinent to gathering data from the study's participants.

Additionally, each interview, with the consent of the interviewees, was audio recorded to capture the contents of the interview and transcribed by the researcher who conducted the interview. In order to do away the anxiety of the participants during the interview, they were informed regarding the purpose of the study and about not mentioning their names (Mackey & Gas, 2005). Moreover, to take care of mechanical failure of the audio recorder, the interviewer checked and monitored whether it was working before and during the interview. Each interview lasted for 15 to 20 minutes.

3.4.3.4. Validity of Interview

Interviews were done for this study in order to obtain qualitative data that would strengthen the validity of the quantitative data. Scholars have noted that evaluating the validity of the data from qualitative research is primarily dependent on the critical thinking skills of the researcher. This suggests that no consistent, dependable patterns exist. The interview guide along with the interview procedures were tested to check the clarity of the questions and to avoid any problem that might arise during the main study. Therefore, to evaluate the validity of the data from the student interviews, the researcher employed the following methods.

The questions developed for the semi-structured interviews were primarily given to two EFL lecturers for review and appropriateness assessment. They both said that the questions were clear and suitable for getting the interviewees' opinions. Then, the interview setting was then adjusted to take place according to the interviewee's interests.

Prior to actually conducting the interviews for the pilot study, the researcher chose four students as suggested by Creswell (2012) and had discussions with them about their views on the nature of reading strategies, the difficulties they encounter when reading academic materials, their method, and what they do before, during, and after reading. Following that, the responses were divided into main themes and sub-themes. Lastly, there were no appreciably larger differences between these findings and the pilot study's results.

3.5. Method of Data Analysis

3.5.1. The Type of Statistics used in the Study

In conducting research, after the required data is gathered using the appropriate instruments, the next step is analysis and interpretation. The data gathered both in the pilot and the main studies were quantitative and qualitative in type. In order to analyze the quantitative data, the researcher used SPSS 26 version by which descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were made. Descriptive statistics, according to Dornyei (2007), include range, mean and standard deviation and are used to present the data in a clear way. However, inferential statistics, such as statistical significance are needed to generalize upon the data (Ibid). Thus, descriptive data were first organized, summarized and interpreted using tables. The descriptive statistics generated results were used to analyze and answer the first and the second research questions whereas inferential statistics were mainly used to analyze and answer the third, fourth and fifth research questions. And to analyze the qualitative data, the researcher applied the meaning condensation approach wherein the data were presented, described and interpreted aiming at responding the sixth research question. Next is explanation concerning each quantitative and qualitative data analysis in detail.

3.5.2. Methods of Quantitative Data Analysis

In order to determine what FL reading strategies participants employed, SORS scores for each subscale were calculated by using scoring guidelines provided by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002). The first step was to compute the students' responses to each closed-ended question of the SORS. In this phase, for every statement 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 that the participants circled, the researcher added up all the numbers. Subsequently, for each subcategory, the researcher divided the subscale score

by the total number of statements in each category. This initial data sum can give us the level of reading strategy use. That is, the respondent is stated as a high user if his/her scores on reading strategy questionnaire is around 105 to 150. It means the respondent is frequently use reading strategy in dealing with academic English text. In terms of a moderate user of reading strategy, the students in this level obtained score around 75 to 104. In other words, they sometimes use reading strategy in the reading activity. Last, the students with reading strategy score below 74 belong to the group of low users. It means that s/he is rarely using reading strategy when interacted with English text. The minimum and maximum possible scores for overall metacognitive reading strategies are 30 and 150, respectively. Moreover, minimum and maximum possible scores for global, problem solving and support reading strategies are 13 -65, 8 -40, and 9 -45, respectively.

Second, in order to make the responses more manageable for statistical analysis, the results were examined at the category level. Hence, the frequency distribution of the students' responses to each of the three categories global reading strategies, problem-solving strategies, and supportive reading strategies as well as their preferences for each item was computed. To ascertain how frequently the students used various reading strategies, means and standard deviations were computed. Put simply, Descriptive analyses of high and low achieving participants' responses to the SORS were conducted to examine the overall use of reading strategies and to investigate the reading strategies which were most or least frequently used by them when they read academic materials in English. According to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), The means were examined to see, which strategies were used frequently or infrequently by the students and if there were differences in the usage frequencies between more and less successful students. Thus, the means and standard deviations within the group were looked at in order to analyze the patterns of strategy choice in relation to individual strategies, types of strategies, and overall strategy use.

The mean score interpretation was also based on the suggestions of the instrument designers, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002). Accordingly, three frequency criteria were used when assessing the degree in which reading strategies were employed. The strategy use was considered high when the mean score obtained was 3.5 or higher. If the mean score was between 2.5 and 3.49, then the strategy use was designated as moderately used. Finally, the strategy use was considered low when the mean score was 2.49 or lower. These outcomes were used to rank order the mean

scores of each individual strategy, the three categories and the overall strategy starting with the one that was most preferred. Thus, High and low achieving participants' responses regarding their use of strategy were divided into three categories: high, medium, and low usage. This would deliver an overview of the sample of Wollo University first year social science students, high and low achieving students' usage and paved the way for the inferential analysis.

While the mean identifies a central value in the distribution, it does not indicate how far the data points fall from the center. To understand this, computing and interpreting the standard deviation is crucial. Higher SD values signify that more data points are further away from the mean. And lower SD values signify the opposite.

To determine participants' reading test results, the score of the reading test was computed for each subject. The test was given in the final exam of the semester out of 50%. The test result equals 50 which was taken out of 100 percent. Students who score greater than 70 were designated as high achievers while those who score less than 60 were low achievers. The two reading test scores were gathered and used for all students from whom data was collected. The total test results of the samples were recorded against their codes (See Appendix J).

With the aim of comparing the reported frequency of reading strategy use in general, the responses given by 30 high and 30 low achievers, who were determined based on their TOEFL reading tests scores, were analyzed. The group members' average responses to every question on the questionnaire were calculated. The collected means for each item from high and low achievers were computed separately based on average scores. The strategies employed by high and low achieving students were ranked from most frequently used to least frequently used using the averaged mean scores.

A t-test was, then, run to investigate the possible significant differences between strategy preference of high and low achievers. This inferential test was used to determine any differences in reading achievement in connection with reading strategy use.

Since knowing the relationship is significant does not tell us whether this effect is strong or weak, it is very important to calculate an effect size as well as the t-test. There are a wide variety

of effect size measures around but the one we use in conjunction with the t-test is called Cohen's d. The formula for this effect size is as follows:

$d = (\text{Mean for group A} - \text{Mean for group B}) / \text{Pooled standard deviation}$ where the Pooled standard deviation = $(\text{Standard deviation of group 1} + \text{Standard deviation of group 2}) / 2$.

In fact, there are some guidelines for determining whether our effect size is strong. Cohen suggests the following:

- 0–0.20 = weak effect
- 0.21–0.50 = modest effect
- 0.51–1.00 = moderate effect
- >1.00 = strong effect

Moreover, so as to discover whether students' reading comprehension performance is associated with their FL reading strategy use, the researcher assessed the relationships of variables using different statistics. The correlation coefficients employed with data depending on the level of measurement on which each variable was measured, the nature of underlying the distribution (continuous variables), the characteristics of distribution (linear). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r), employed with interval scaled or ratio test variables like Likert scale as scaled test variables and reading tests as ratio variable. Linear regression used became involved with the importance and direction of the relationship.

Pearson Correlation analysis allows us to evaluate the direction and strength of the associations between two variables (Moore & McCabe, 2004; Adams & Lawrence, 2019). Directionally, three different types of relationships exist: zero, negative, and positive correlations. A positive correlation occurs when there is a covariance between two variables. When the correlation coefficient is closer to +1, it indicates that there was a positive correlation between the two variables; conversely, negative correlation indicates that the two variables varied in opposite directions. That is, the closer to -1, the coefficient could be said to describe a negative relationship, meaning that one variable increased as the other decreased (Moore & McCabe, 2004). When the coefficient approaches zero, there is no relationship between the variables (Moore & McCabe, 2004; Adams & Lawrence, 2019).

According to Dornyei (2007), a correlation coefficient is considered significant when its significance level (p) is either .05 or .01. As to him, the confidence level is 99% when the significance level is at the .01 level, and 95% when it comes to the .05 level of significance. The obtained correlation coefficient is considered insignificant if the probability (p) exceeds .05. There is a greater degree of significance in the correlation between the two variables when the Pearson correlation (r) is closer to 1. The degree of correlation between the two variables is negligible if the Pearson correlation is closer to 0. Dornyei (2007) describes the generally applied 0.05 threshold for statistical significance as being the one used in this study.

In order to interpret the strength of the correlation, scholars among whom Adams and Lawrence (2019) and Evans (1996) suggested different guides. In this study, the guide suggested by Evans (1996) was used. As to this guide-lines, the level of the correlation that falls into 0.00 – 0.19 is interpreted as (very weak), 0.20– 0.39 as (weak), 0.40 – 0.59 as (moderate), 0.60 – 0.79 as (strong), and 0.80 – 1.0 as (very strong).

Regression is also a statistical method used to determine the strength and characteristics of the relationship between one dependent variable and receives other independent variables. Using the data of correlation, the researcher came up with a regression equation for performing the prediction. In regression, the researcher interested in using the relationship between two variables to predict the value of one of the variables given the other variable. In other words, the researcher explored the independent contribution of GLOB, PROB and SUP reading strategies on reading comprehension via regression.

In general, the quantitative data (elicited through the questionnaire and test) were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistical methods which particularly involves Pearson product moment correlation and an independent t-test or Levene's test for equality of variances. Descriptive statistics is pretty straightforward. Thus, there is no uncertainty because it is describing only the students' reading strategy use that a researcher actually measures. Nonetheless, the inferential statistics let us to respond the research questions and reach conclusions by making predictions about the population understudy.

3.5.3. Methods of Qualitative Analysis

In the analysis of qualitative data, researchers are advised to resume the process early; they do not have to wait until all data is gathered like quantitative researchers do (Dornyei, 2007). Thus, the current researcher followed this method to start analysis early after getting some amount of data. This method was helpful to the researcher to accomplish the task gradually without sensing overburden. Thus, qualitative data analyses were made on those data that were collected through open-ended questions and students' interview.

Primarily, coding techniques were used to analyze the responses to open-ended question of the SORS. Responses to the open-ended question in SORS were organized by themes during the analysis of the data following the guidelines of Seliger and Shohamy (1989). The answers to the open-ended questions on the survey were sorted and compiled during the initial coding. The researcher then went through them to see if there were any overarching themes or patterns in the answers. These responses were used as initial codes for the data. After grouping the responses for the first time, the second step of the coding process involves organizing them into categories that emerged from further reviews of the data (i.e., categorized according to their similarities into general thematic categories). As a result, the data's final list of codes was generated. Lastly, the emerging themes were used to group the coded data, and this allowed for the creation of a thematic content analysis. The researcher collaborated with two Addis Ababa University PhD candidates who were working on related themes for their theses to create the coding process. The supervisor of the researcher and two additional colleagues verified the reliability of the coding process. The inter-rater reliability was found to be 0.85 in the main study whereas in the pilot study, the inter-rater reliability found was 0.90.

The interview data, on the other hand, were analyzed as follows. First, all the audio-recorded responses of the group to the interviews were translated from Amharic to English verbatim by the researcher. Here, not all content was translated and transcribed, unless it was relevant and related to the issue under investigation (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 56). The researcher also translated the interview questions by keeping as much as possible the referential meaning of the words without changing any content of them. Then, the researcher read the transcriptions several times in order to become acquainted with the study information gleaned from student interviews.

The researcher took notes for future coding while also reading the data several times in an effort to find patterns and meanings. The actual coding was not created until after multiple readings of the data set. Subsequently, the transcripts were categorized into distinct statements according to their degree of similarity, and these statements were then clustered into concepts related to the interview's themes or category. Ultimately, all of the clusters were combined into themes to explain the study's findings. There was no need to use computer software for the analysis because data analysis could be done manually with a computer's assistance.

For interpretation of data, both quantitative and qualitative methods (mixed method, according to Dornyei 2007) were used.

3.6. Data Collection Procedure

The researcher administered the questionnaires to the three classes as indicated earlier. Over the course of two days, data for the study were gathered in two sessions. The procedures that were used to collect data were grounded on the existing policies for data collection. Thus, individual participant information sheets and consent forms were filled out on day one. A copy of the strategy questionnaire to be used on the second day of data collection was given to participants in groups of five at the end of the first session. They were instructed to read it over and report any information that was unclear to them. Nearly all of the participants said that the two questionnaire items were unclear to them; the researcher then provided clear explanations. On day two of data collection, the participants were told to answer the items on the survey honestly and they were assured that neither their answers in the questionnaire would affect their grades for the course. Then, they were asked to circle the number that fitted to them indicating the frequency with which they used the reading strategy described in the statement. They took a maximum of 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire in class under the researcher's supervision. Over two occasions, the participants were asked to take reading proficiency test to measure their reading proficiency. As a result, they were grouped according to their reading comprehension proficiency test scores. Concerning interviewing, interviews with high and low achievers were conducted two weeks after the questionnaire was completed.

To wind up, the current chapter presented the methodology which includes the research design, the subjects of the study, the instruments, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis. Next is Chapter four which deals with a small-scale evaluation of the data collection tools, data analysis techniques, and procedures that the researcher intends to use in the main study.

CHAPTER FOUR: THE PILOT STUDY

4.0. Introduction

A pilot study is frequently carried out by researchers to test an idea for a larger study or if they lack sufficient knowledge of the subject of their research (Kumar, 2005). This type of study entails a small-scale evaluation of the data collection tools, data analysis techniques, and procedures that the researcher intends to use in the main study. Before the methods and procedures are put into operation for the main study, it is anticipated that the necessary revisions will be made in light of the pilot run results (Gray, 2004; Kumar, 2005). In the end, the main study is conducted using the results of the pilot study as a starting point. Regarding this, Dornyei (2007) suggested, "Always pilot your research instruments and procedures before launching your project. Just like theatre performance, a research study also needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context" (p. 75). Therefore, to attain these, a pilot study was conducted. In the ensuing sections, purposes of the pilot study, setting of the pilot study, data collection procedures, Results and the insights gained from the overall steps of the pilot study and summary of the pilot study are reported.

4.1. The Purpose of the Pilot Study

The main purposes of carrying out the pilot study were to try out data collection instruments, sampling, procedures and data analysis techniques that could be used in the main study. Moreover, it was conducted to try out the suitability of the reading test in assessing students' reading proficiency. So, it served as a way of collecting preliminary data and evaluating the feasibility of the major study.

4.2. Setting of the Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted in Wollo University during the first semester of the academic year from January to March 2022 G.C (2014 E.C) for six weeks. The university was selected using convenience sampling technique. Convenience sampling depends on available subjects-those who are close at hand or easily accessible. The university was thus selected mainly because of its proximity to the place where the researcher resides.

4.3. Selection of the Participants

To gather data for the pilot study, students, who were similar with the target population for the main study, were selected from freshmen program. Particularly, the participants were selected from first year social science students who were enrolled to the Course of Communicative English Skills I (FLEn 1011). Using random sampling technique, the researcher selected one class of students as a sample of the study out of 13 classes. In this class, there were 24 (16 males and eight females). Using comprehensive sampling technique, all 24 students were chosen to participate in the pilot study.

All the selected participants took the reading test which the researcher used it to group them into high achievers (=12) and low achievers (=12). These participants filled and returned the questionnaire. However, because two of the male participants missed some items from the SORS, they were excluded from the pilot study. Thus, the data was analyzed only for those 22 students who completed the questionnaire correctly and took the reading tests. Their age ranged from nineteen to twenty-two with a mean age of 20.42 (See Appendix K).

4.4. Data Collection Procedures of the Pilot Study

The pilot study data was collected in the first semester from January to March 2022 G.C (2014 E.C). The researcher first went to Wollo University's English department and spoke with the chairperson and the course instructor about the pilot study. They expressed agreement after the researcher described the pilot study's goals during the discussion. The researcher did not schedule the questionnaire and test administration time until after receiving the instructor's approval to include his students in the study and use his class time for filling out the questionnaires and administering the test. In terms of the schedule, after making students to attend common course classes for a month and a half, the pilot study was launched.

On the second week of February 2022 G.C. or 2014 E.C., after the course instructor introduced the researcher to the students, he invited the researcher to explain briefly concerning the purpose and nature of the instrument with an explanation of the steps involved in completing it. In the instructions, the researcher explicitly requested that students choose the reading strategies they thought they typically used for academic or school-related materials rather than other kinds of

reading materials (e.g., reading for pleasure) in the instructions. In light of this, it was also critical to remember that students' perceptions of their use of strategies reflected both the strategies they reported using at the time and the moment in which they were perceived.

Then, the researcher in the presence of the instructor administered SORS to the students during class time. During administration of the SORS, participants were told that the questionnaire distributed consisted of questions about their English reading strategy use and were instructed to read each of the 30 statements in the SORS Questionnaire and circle the number which best indicated their perceived use of the strategies. They were also advised to work at their own pace, and reminded them to keep in mind reading academic materials while responding to the strategy statements. They were also told that they should ask for any clarification they might need as they filled-in the questionnaire. After 20 minutes, all questionnaire papers were collected at the same period they were distributed.

A week after, the second round SORS distribution was made. The SORS was given to the subjects again by the researcher himself. The SORS was administered again to check its reliability. Then, in the first week of March 2022 G.C. or 2014 E.C., a model TOEFL reading test was given to the students. The standardized TOEFL reading test was given by the course instructor but corrected by the researcher himself. Finally, interview (with three high and three low achievers) was conducted by the researcher two weeks after the TOEFL exam was administered.

The interview questions were presented to the interviewees in the following sequence. In order to create a relaxed atmosphere, the researcher first asked, "How did you get Wollo University?" They had three to four minutes to talk about the icebreakers. After that, they were instructed to respond honestly to each question, let the interviewer record the conversation for later review, and use Amharic to express themselves naturally. All in all, the interview lasted for 15-20 minutes. In the end, the researcher concluded by thanking participants for their cooperation and checking whether the conversation was recorded.

4.5. Results of the Pilot Study

Although the items in the SORS, reading test and interview were adapted from prior scales that have been developed and tested by experts in the field, the scales, even accurately tested and refined, "can never be a guarantee that they have been tried out with exactly the same type of subjects as the researcher is using in the research" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p. 185). Hence, all instruments of the study underwent necessary revisions before the pilot study, and they were tested during the pilot study. As a result of this, findings that resemble to that of the main study was discovered. Therefore, to avoid redundancy in discussions of the results of the pilot study and the main study, summary of the results of the pilot study is provided in the subsequent section.

In the pilot study, three different instruments were employed to generate data on the relationship between reading strategy use and reading performance. That is, the necessary information about the pilot study was obtained by distributing questionnaire to the learners, by administering reading test and by interviewing students. The following major findings were obtained based on the data obtained through the above instruments:

First, in terms of frequency, participants reported to adopt reading strategies in academic texts at the frequency level of the high usage of problem-solving strategies, followed by medium usage of support and global reading strategies.

Second, high achiever and low achiever students use the reading strategies at varying rates, with high achiever students being most frequent users and low achiever students with less frequent users.

Third, the two groups exhibited statistically significant difference in their use of problem-solving, global, and support reading strategies when they read academic materials.

Fourth, there are strong positive relationship between the subjects' use of global, problem-solving and support reading strategies and their reading comprehension achievement.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the SORS used in this study was only implemented to ask students to use reading strategies in the local context for the first time. Therefore, it was essential to test the validity and reliability of this instrument in the pilot study. As the result of the validity of the SORS revealed, all necessary corrections were made to improve the questionnaire's content validity and linguistic clarity in order to determine whether the questionnaire's words were specific and understandable to all respondents.

Moreover, the reliability of the SORS was checked using the test-retest method and Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Regarding the retest, the SORS' reliability coefficient (coefficient of equivalence) was calculated and found 0.91 coefficient alpha.

As the computation of the internal consistency reliabilities of the questionnaire (30 items) responses for 22 participant students of the pilot study revealed, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be 0.83, which suggests that the 30 items of the questionnaire have relatively high internal consistency. Moreover, when calculated the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of each of three categories of the pilot study, it was obtained GLOB: $\alpha=.84$, PROB: $\alpha=.90$, SUP: $\alpha=.74$) indicated it as a reasonably reliable instrument. As the results of the pilot overall reliability and the results of each reliability category showed more than the Cronbach Alpha value of .7, it can be said that the value of the SORS items was suitable, consistent, and valid for conducting this study (See Appendix F).

In relation to reading test used in the pilot study, an item analysis was done to examine all the items in terms of their level of difficulty and level of discrimination. Based on the facility and discrimination index levels, each item of the 50 item reading comprehension tests that were administered for the pilot study were examined cautiously. Only three items from the test were found to be very simple, and two items failed to discriminate the high and low students. The remaining items of the reading comprehension test were found to satisfy the requirements (For further information on the items, see Appendix I).

In so far as interview result goes, there is an agreement between the pilot and main study's interview result.

4.6. Lessons Gained from the Pilot Study

As reiterated earlier, the pilot study was chiefly conducted to see the adequacy of the data gathering instruments that were planned for the main study. The other rationales were to check practical issues in test administration, and to make the researcher introduced with the data analysis techniques, especially the use of SPSS to analyze the quantitative data. At this point, it is worthwhile to state some important insights below which were gained from the pilot study and used them to improve the methodology in the main study.

1. The researcher was aware of one significant issue with the SORS questionnaire during the pilot study. Prior to filling out the questionnaire, students were given oral explanations of the differences between the scales: "Never or almost never do this", "Only occasionally do this", "Sometimes do this", "Usually do this," and "Always or almost always do this." Despite this, students still expressed in their questions that they found it difficult to distinguish between the scales. The clear distinctions between those scales were thus described on the questionnaire's cover page (See Appendix A) in order to address this study's problem.
2. The other insight drawn from the pilot study was that the time allotted for SORS questionnaire was adequate. That is, since all participants were able to complete the SORS questionnaire within 20 minutes time, it was determined that 20 minutes were ideal for participants to respond to the questions that would be administered in the main study.
3. The respondents were observed looking back at the meaning of the numbers on each scale as a result of the questionnaires' uncomfortable format. they also skipped a few items during the pilot study. Thus, the format of the questionnaires for rating scale types was presented in tabular form so that respondents could easily match items and alternatives. When presenting questionnaires in tabular form, it is easier for respondents to see and understand the meaning of the scaled numbers because they are placed in the top margin of the table on each page.
4. The pilot study also provided valuable insight into the length of the standardized TOEFL reading test. The majority of students expressed dissatisfaction with the length of the reading comprehension test. They said that there was not ample time to complete all the test items. As a result, the time allotted to administer the reading tests would be taken into account for study participants. The duration of the reading test for participants in the main study was thus increased from 50 to 60 minutes by the researcher.

5. Test instructions for the samples were another practical factor to take into account when administering the test and it was discovered that no one had any issues with the test instructions' ambiguity or generality.
6. Reading tests made an effort to cover the majority of the macro and micro reading skills that are purportedly included in the theoretical constructs of reading comprehension.
7. Participants in the group discussion were successfully surveyed to obtain information for the interview questions. That does not imply, however, that the interview questions and conversation were flawless in every way. One of the interview guide's questions (No. 6) was discovered to be poorly understood by a large number of interview subjects. To ensure that participants understood the question, the researcher (interviewer) tried to paraphrase it twice. Despite this, many of the group members did not fully understand its meaning. It was thus decided to clarify the question using examples for the main study.

Overall, the knowledge gathered from the pilot study is extremely beneficial. The researcher made note of the best ways to obtain relevant data for evaluating how well high and low achievers practice using the reading strategy. Additionally, the pilot study gave the researcher the chance to become acquainted with the use of SPSS software program, the informants' world, the skill of identifying the data collection strategy of distributing the questionnaires, interviewing, and the process analyzing them.

In the ensuing chapter, the above piloted diverse instruments were used in the main study. That is, data collected using questionnaires, reading test, and interview are analyzed and discussed quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative data are analyzed followed by qualitative analysis. Finally, discussions are made.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter analyzes and discusses the data that was gathered from the study's participants using various instruments. The information gathered from the SORS questionnaire, reading assessments, and student interviews is examined using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Following the analysis of the quantitative data is the analysis of the qualitative data. Finally, there are discussions. Within the context of the fundamental research questions outlined in the first chapter, results or findings, and discussions are presented in the subsequent sections.

5.2. Quantitative Data Analyses and Findings

In this section, the first five major research questions of the study are answered quantitatively in their order written in (1.4). The first part of the analyses for this study included the use of descriptive statistics. This was accomplished by collating participants' responses, high and low achievers' responses, tabulating the frequencies of responses, computing Mean scores, standard deviations, and rank in the scope. The second part of the analyses involved the use of t-tests that were used to analyze the statistical significance of the difference between high and low achievers' strategy use. The third part of the analyses included the use of regression equation to predict reading performance. It also analyzes the use of correlations that measured the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables under scrutiny.

5.2.1. Analysis on First Research Question

In this section, participants' mean result of overall uses of reading strategies, their strategy use in the three categories, and their most and least frequently used reading strategies are presented in the following three tables. These results are analyzed using descriptive statistics to provide an answer to this research question. The data on participants' overall use of reading strategies in Table 5.1 are first presented and analyzed. Following this, the most and the least frequently used reading strategies by participant students are presented and analyzed in Table 5.2 and Table 5.3 respectively.

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics for the Participants' Overall Reading Strategy Categories

Category of Reading Strategies	Number of Strategies	Number of Respondents	Mean	SD	Rank
Global	13	135	2.99	1.03	3
Problem-solving	8	135	3.64	0.90	1
Support	9	135	3.03	0.95	2
Overall	30		3.18	1.01	

As shown in the above Table 5.1, the first category in rank is the problem-solving reading strategy use ($M = 3.64$), which, according to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), is in high usage frequency scale. This indicates that participants always employed PROB in their reading. SUP with the mean of (3.03) and GLOB with the mean of (2.99) took the second and third ranks respectively. As these two means values fell in 2.5-3.49 range which, according Mokhtari and Sheorey's frequency scale, are interpreted as in medium strategy use range, and which used to describe those participants who use the strategies sometimes. Therefore, only one strategy category that is, problem-solving strategy belongs to high frequency range, and the other two: global reading and supporting reading strategies pertain to medium frequency range. The overall mean value of the respondents' reading strategy use, (3.18) is also in medium usage. So, the respondents sometimes utilize reading strategies during their academic reading. So that Wollo University first year social science students can be categorized as those who are medium users of reading strategies of Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002).

In addition to this, among the three categories of reading strategies, the category of global reading strategy has the highest standard deviation ($=1.03$). The implication is that there is a higher difference among participants in their answers for the strategies of this category. Nonetheless, the standard deviation for problem-solving reading strategies ($SD=0.90$) is the lowest indicating that the degree scores chosen by the respondents toward this statement are very close to the mean, and the use of the strategies of the PROB category does not vary greatly among the individuals.

Table 5. 2: The Five Most Frequently used Reading Strategies

No.	Strategy Type	Item	Mean	SD	General Scope
Q25	PROB	Reading again for better understanding	4.22	0.72	First
Q7	PROB	Reading slowly and carefully	4.16	0.69	Second
Q19	PROB	Visualizing information while reading to remember	3.73	0.83	Third
Q13	SUP	Adopting reference materials	3.68	0.69	Fourth
Q11	PROB	Adjusting reading pace	3.58	0.73	Fifth

As demonstrated in the above table, in descending order, the five reading strategies used most were Rereading, Reading slowly but carefully, Visualizing information ranked first, second and third respectively, and Adjusting reading pace ranked fifth. These four reading strategies all fell under the problem-solving strategy category. On the other hand, the item marked most that ranked in fourth place was Adopting reference materials from support reading strategy category. These five reading strategies as a whole were reported to be used more frequently by all the participants and used more than other strategies. In other words, the subjects adopted the strategies in the frequency of high usage. The participants mainly reported to employ PROB strategies During their academic reading. This suggests that many of them do have a habit of tackling their reading comprehension deficit using PROB strategies.

Table 5.3: The five Least Frequently used Reading Strategies by the Participants

No.	Strategy Type	Item	Mean	SD	General Rank
Q29	SUP	Translating into native language while reading	2.89	0.92	26 th
Q8	GLOB	Skimming through text characteristics	2.87	0.87	27 th
Q1	GLOB	Setting purpose for reading	2.69	1.26	28 th
Q30	SUP	Thinking of information in both languages	2.61	1.03	29 th
Q5	SUP	Reading aloud for better understanding	2.55	0.77	30 th

As shown in the above table, the least preferred five strategies from the higher to lowest were Translating into native language, Thinking about information in both English and mother tongue and Reading aloud ranking 26, 29 and 30 respectively from the category of support reading strategies. Additionally, Setting purpose of reading and Skimming through text characteristics rank 27 and 28 respectively from the category of global reading strategy. All of which fell in a medium use range. The interpretation of the scale is that participant students sometimes adopt reading strategies suggested by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002).

5.2.2. Analysis on Second Research Question

The second research question sought to answer “What type and frequency of reading strategies do high and low Wollo University first year social science students employ in their academic reading process?”. In this research question, students were asked to indicate how much the reading strategies listed in SORS are relevant to cultivate their reading competence. Thus, data from ensuing tables are analyzed using descriptive statistics to provide an answer to these research questions. The data on high and low achieving participants' overall use of reading strategies in Table 5.4 are first presented and analyzed. Following this, strategies use across the three categories (GLOB, PROB and SUP reading strategies) and participants' frequency responses of each category are also presented and analyzed in Table 5.5, Table 5.6 and Table 5.7 respectively. In the end of the section, the most and the least frequently used reading strategies

by high and low achieving students are presented and analyzed in the subsequent tables: Table 5.8 and Table 5.9 in that order.

Table 5. 4: Descriptive Statistics for the Overall Reading Strategy Categories of High and Low Achiever Students

Category of Reading Strategies	High Achievers=30				Low Achievers=30			
	Mean	SD	Frequency level	Rank in the Scope	Mean	SD	Frequency Level	Rank in the Scope
Global	3.98	0.707	High	2nd	1.99	0.899	Low	3rd
Problem-solving	4.45	0.591	High	1st	2.97	0.923	Medium	1st
Support	3.41	1.086	Medium	3rd	2.53	1.008	Medium	2nd
Overall	3.93	0.904	High		2.41	1.022	Low	

As shown in Table 5.4, the overall mean result showed that while low achiever students claimed to use reading strategies occasionally ($M = 2.41$ $SD = 1.023$), high achiever students reported to employ the strategies frequently ($M = 3.93$ $SD = 0.904$). The high achievers' mean value shows that they employ strategies more frequently (in the scale of usually/always), while the low achievers' mean value depicts that they use strategies sporadically (in the scale of never/occasionally). This suggests that low achievers do not adopt strategies frequently enough to move them into the high achiever category because there appears to be a wide gap between high and low achiever students' strategy usage frequency.

A further comparison made on the categories of reading strategies separately revealed that reading strategies used by the high achievers outnumbered low achievers in the category of global, problem-solving and support reading strategy use. That is, high achiever learners report using a higher number of reading strategies and at a more frequent rate than low achievers or less proficient learners. High levels of proficiency preferred problem-solving techniques the most, which has an average score of (4.45 $SD = 0.59$). This result implies that high achievers frequently (usually or always) use problem-solving reading strategies when they experience

comprehension failure. The problem-solving reading strategies are in favor of high achievers because they employ problem-solving techniques more frequently than their counterparts. Furthermore, they preferred support reading strategies the least (average 3.41 SD = 1.08). This average showed a medium level of usage, indicating that high achieving participants sometimes used support reading strategies.

Conversely, low achievers claimed to use problem-solving reading strategies the most (mean 2.97 SD = 0.92), indicating that low achiever students use them on a medium-scale of frequency. They sometimes used these tactics as a result. They did, however, report using global reading strategies the least (M = 1.99 SD = 0.89). This average percentage of students using the global strategy is thought to be a sign of how little they actually use it. Therefore, the majority of low achievers underuse the global reading strategies. These students seemed that they lacked the opportunities they could obtain from using the global reading strategies when reading. So that they are unable to monitor and evaluate their reading.

In addition to this, among the three categories of high and low achieving students' results, the category of SUP reading strategy has the highest standard deviation (=1.086 and 1.008) respectively. The implication is that there is a higher difference among participants in their answers for the strategies of this category. The standard deviation in the PROB category of high achievers (SD=0.591) and (SD=0.899) in GLOB category of low achievers are the lowest which indicates that the degree scores chosen by the two group members toward this statement are very close to the mean, and the use of this strategy does not vary greatly among the individuals.

The ensuing three tables appearing in coming pages show the participants' use of individual reading strategies by category, accounting for any significant differences among the groups.

5.2.2.1. Individual Global Reading Strategies Used by High and Low Achieving Students

The purpose of designing the first category of strategies was to solicit high and low achieving participants' use of Global reading strategies. This category used to get data on how often high and low achiever students read text with purpose when they read academic materials. Accordingly, the following 13 items were administered to collect data on how often high and low achiever students use global reading strategies during academic reading.

The thirty reading strategies of SORS were reordered in a way different from its original version presented in (Appendix A). Accordingly, the researcher classified the strategies according to the logical reading process and the stages readers go through while reading a text: Before reading, while reading and after reading.

GLOB strategies are techniques that are predominantly utilized prior the actual reading. They are represented by Q1, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q8, Q12, Q15, Q17, Q20, Q21, Q23, Q24 and Q27 in the SORS. In accordance with listed there, the following table shows the respondents' frequency responses for the global reading strategies. In other words, the table displays how frequently individual (each high and low achieving respondent) rated his/her behavior in the use of global reading strategies while reading academic materials. To this effect, analysis on high and low achieving respondents' rating in Likert scale (i.e., never, occasionally, sometimes, usually and always), the mean of the responses, Standard deviation, and ranking the strategy in the scope) was made to look into the relationship between their reading strategy use.

Table 5.5: Descriptive Statistics of Individual Global Reading Strategies Used by High and Low Achieving Students

Sub strategies of GLOB	High Achievers=30								Low Achievers=30							
	Frequency					Mean	Std deviation	Rank in scope	Frequency					Mean	Std deviation	Rank in scope
	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Usually	Always				Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Usually	Always			
Q1	-	1	2	15	12	4.27	0.74	3	22	8	-	-	-	1.27	0.45	13
Q3	-	-	4	16	10	4.2	0.66	4	20	9	1	-	-	1.37	0.56	12
Q4	-	-	3	14	13	4.3	0.66	1	8	7	14	1	-	2.27	0.91	4
Q6	-	-	4	19	7	4.1	0.61	6	8	10	11	1	-	2.17	0.87	5
Q8	-	-	14	15	1	3.57	0.57	12	9	8	12	1	-	2.17	0.91	5
Q12	-	-	5	15	10	4.17	0.69	5	4	13	11	2	-	2.37	0.81	3
Q15	-	1	13	13	3	3.6	0.72	11	-	4	22	4	-	3	0.52	1
Q17	-	-	4	19	7	4.1	0.61	6	15	12	3	-	-	1.6	0.67	10
Q20	-	1	13	11	5	3.37	0.8	13	6	3	12	9	-	2.8	1.09	2
Q21	-	-	1	18	11	4.3	0.55	1	19	10	1	-	-	1.4	0.56	11
Q23	-	-	7	19	4	3.9	0.61	8	10	16	4	-	-	1.8	0.66	8
Q24	-	1	10	16	3	3.7	0.7	10	13	12	5	-	-	1.73	0.74	9
Q27	-	1	7	20	2	3.77	0.63	9	8	17	5	-	-	1.9	0.66	7

Item 1 (Q1) was aimed to get data on how often high and low achiever students read text with purpose when they read academic materials. As indicated in the table above, high and low achiever students differ in the awareness and use of “setting purpose” reading technique. This difference is depicted in the frequency, mean, SD and rank result for the strategy of the two groups. Thus, the means of high and low achiever students were found to be (M=4.27 and M=1.27) respectively. This implies that high achiever students' establishing purpose mean value falls between scales (M= 3.5 - 5.0). According to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), any mean value that falls within this range is considered to have a high usage rate. Participants who used the strategy at this rate are regarded as those who always employ the strategy while they read academic materials.

On the other hand, low achiever students' mean value for the same strategy falls between (*=1.0-2.49). The implication is that the unsuccessful students hardly ever have a purpose in mind when they read academic materials. Therefore, it is clear that high achievers and low achievers use this strategy at varying rates, with high achievers being the more frequent users. In other words, high achiever students set purpose more often than low achiever students do while academic reading. As a result of this strategy use, successful students realize when and where to begin reading, how to go further in reading and how to direct their academic reading. In contrast, unsuccessful students who rarely establish purpose prior their reading do nothing because they do not know what to do and how to do.

When it is looked into the participants' ratings individually, the table depicts that half of the high achievers rated ‘usually do this’ and 12 of them gave their rating of ‘always do this’. And two of them rated ‘sometimes do this’ and only one rated ‘occasionally do this’. In other case, 22 low achievers rated ‘never do this’ and eight of them rated ‘occasionally do this’. And none of them rated to any other scales. Therefore, high achievers ranked the setting purpose strategy in third place out of 13 GLOB items, while low achievers ranked it in the bottom position (thirteenth). This demonstrates the degree to which low achievers and high achievers shared a preference for the same strategy.

The two groups showed radically different results in terms of the item's standard deviation. While the high achievers' item 1 standard deviation is the second highest in the scope, indicating that their rating is dispersed, the low achievers' item 1 SD is the lowest, indicating that their rating is clustered, leading to the majority of the low achievers agreeing with the use of "Reading text with purpose."

In the course of the interview, all but one high achiever interviewees verified that setting purpose is their habit; but all the low achiever interviewees admitted that they rarely establish purpose in their academic reading. So that the quantitative result corresponds with the response to qualitative result (See the detail in 5.3 "F").

In the subsequent Global Item (Q3), the respondents were asked about how often they relate text idea with their background knowledge. As depicted in the above table, most of the high achievers rated between 'usually true of me' and 'always true of me'. The remaining four respondents rated 'sometimes true of me'. On the other hand, most of the low achievers (20) rated 'never true of me' and nine of them rated 'occasionally true of me'. Only one individual rated 'sometimes true of me'. Apart from the scale disparity, the frequency difference between the two groups can also be comprehended by examining the mean and standard deviation of the application of this strategy by high and low achievers, as presented below.

High achiever students associate text idea with their prior knowledge with a mean of ($= 4.2$) and low achiever students do it with ($M= 1.37$). This implies that high achiever students always or usually relate their prior knowledge with text they are reading. So, they use this strategy more frequently than low achiever students. The figures also suggest that high achiever students' mean value of associating text idea with their background knowledge is in high usage and low achiever students' is in low usage. From this, we can understand that high and low achiever students apply this strategy (adopting text idea with background knowledge) in different frequency level, which means that high achievers as high and low achievers as low users. Inability of low achievers to activate their background knowledge or experience while reading academic materials seriously hampers their understanding.

As the rank row of the table revealed, high achievers placed adopting a prior knowledge strategy in fourth place out of 13 GLOB items. However, those who performed poorly ranked it at number twelve. This significant rank variation suggests that both high and low achievers do not share a group's preference for the same strategy.

Data from interview also reveals that there is discrepancy between high and low achievers in using this strategy. Four of the high achiever interviewees admitted during the interview that they frequently associate the text's ideas to what they already knew. Nonetheless, only two of the underachievers claimed that they sometimes connect the ideas in the text to what they already knew. Hence, the quantitative result matches the qualitative result (See the detail in Appendix L and Appendix M of the responses of high and low achievers' interview transcription respectively).

Item 4 (Q4) was designed to gather data on how frequently the sample populations of this study preview text to see what it is about before reading academic text. As it is shown in Table 5.5 above, high and low achiever students differ in the use of taking an overview of the text. Hence, many high achievers are found to be in the frequency scale of ($M=4.3$) on taking an overview of the text. So, they are high users of previewing strategy. As opposed to this, many low achieving respondents are found to be in the frequency scale ($M=2.27$) on taking an overview of the text. The interpretation of this mean value is that low achievers' taking an overview of the text is in low usage. Hence, low achievers employ previewing in their academic reading occasionally (i.e., they use the strategy less often than high achievers do).

The table also reveals that of the thirty high achievers, thirteen rated themselves as "Always true of me," fourteen as "Usually true of me," and the remaining three as "Sometimes true of me." In contrast, fourteen underachievers gave the response, "Sometimes true of me," while the other eight, seven, and one gave the responses, "Never, occasionally, and usually true of me," respectively.

Additionally, high achievers ranked the previewing strategy as their preferred approach, placing it first out of 13 GLOB items. Low achievers, however, placed it in fifth place. This demonstrates the degree to which both high achievers and low achievers enjoy using the previewing technique when reading academic materials.

Furthermore, when we look at the result of this quantitative data against the qualitative data of the item, we can see that the information from the questionnaire and the interviews corresponds. That is, during interview, the majority(four) of the high achiever interviewees responded that they frequently take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it, while only one low achiever interviewee said that he practices this strategy sometimes (See the detail the interview result analysis).

In the following global Item (Q6), an attempt was made to solicit how frequently the sample populations of this study check whether the content corresponds reading purpose. As it is demonstrated in Table 5.5, 19 high achievers rated “usually do this,” and seven of them rated “always do this”. And the rest four of them rated “sometimes do this”. In other case, eight, ten, eleven and one low achievers rated “never, occasionally and sometimes and usually do this,” respectively. As a result, high and low achiever students show frequency difference in the use of the strategy.

Accordingly, high and low achiever students are found to be (M=4.1) and (M=2.17) respectively on checking whether the content matches reading purpose. High achievers' mean value for this strategy falls between scales (*=3.5-5.0) which is in high usage. In other words, successful students always check whether the content matches their reading purpose. Contrarily, low achievers' mean value for the same strategy falls in between (1.0-2.49) which is in low usage. This means that low achievers never employ the strategy during academic reading. Low achievers therefore employ this technique less frequently than high achievers do.

Here, it is important to note that Item1 and Item6 are closely related in their meaning. As a result, the participants provided comparable answers to the two questions, which produced comparable results. This suggests that the questions are valid. Furthermore, this conclusion is supported by the interviewees' responses.

In Item 8 (Q8) of the listed self-reported questionnaire, an attempt was made to extract data on how often respondents of this study use Skimming through text characteristics to better understand passage in English. As the result in table 5.5 revealed, a sizable portion of high achievers inclined to skim through text characteristics to better understanding. Fourteen and fifteen of high achiever students indicated that they apply this technique “sometimes” and

“usually” respectively. Just one student reported to utilize the strategy regularly (i.e., “always”). In contrast, nine and eight of low achiever students ascertain that they “never” and “occasionally” employ the strategy respectively, and 12 and one respondent of them reported that they “sometimes” and “usually” skim through text characteristics to better understand the text.

The table also presents mean result of the two groups’ responses for the strategy. Hence, high achiever students' response is found to be ($M=3.57$) and low achievers' is ($M=2.17$). This implies that the high achievers employ this technique with high frequency scale and low achievers use it with low frequency scale. This numerical description suggest that the high achiever students use the strategy regularly, and their counterparts employ it occasionally. Therefore, from the discussion and their mean value, one can infer that both groups of students apply skimming first by noting characteristics with different degree of frequency. That is, high achievers apply the strategy more frequently than low achievers implement. This undoubtedly affects low achievers’ abilities of grasping the information conveyed in the academic materials.

Regarding how they ranked the strategy, high achievers indicated that, out of the thirteen GLOB strategies, they preferred the Skimming through text characteristics strategy, which is ranked twelve in the scope. Low achievers, however, placed it in fifth place. This reveals how much the strategies chosen by high and low achievers differ in terms of rank.

In the same manner, data obtained from interview suggests that four of the high achiever students use Skimming through text characteristics to better understand passage in English. So that they use reviewing according to the type of text they read. Nonetheless three low achieving interviewees responded that they employ this strategy. Hence, it is possible to say that information obtained from the questionnaire agrees with the interview. This is because data from both ways show that the high achievers more frequently use skimming skill than the low achievers (See the detail in interview analyses).

Item 12, (Q12) was aimed to quantify data on how often the respondents of the study decide to read closely (to pay more attention) and to ignore (to pay less attention) while reading academic materials. As seen in the table above, the majority of high achievers scored in the range of "usually true of me" and "always true of me". However, the majority of underachievers gave ratings ranging from "occasionally true of me" to "sometimes true of me".

With regard to the respondents' mean's computational outcome, dissimilarities in the frequency use among themselves were observed. The mean value of high achievers is ($M=4.17$) which is in high usage and the mean value of the low achievers is ($M=2.37$) which is in low usage. Hence, high achievers decide what to read or what to ignore regularly during academic reading while low achievers adopt it occasionally. Low achievers are thus using the strategy less frequently than their counterparts. This was also proven in the rank the strategy occupies. While high achievers ranked the strategy of choosing what to read and what to ignore as the fifth best, low achievers placed it in third place among the thirteen GLOB strategies. Therefore, it can be claimed that a greater number of underachievers enjoy using the technique in their academic reading.

As the data obtained from interview suggests, all high achieving interviewees acknowledged that they pay more attention to the text that they think important. So that they use the strategy according to the type of text they read. Nonetheless only two low achieving interviewees responded that they employ this strategy. Hence, it is possible to say that the result gained from quantitative data matches with the result of qualitative information (See the detail in interview analyses).

Item 15 (Q15) was to gather information about the frequency with which high and low achiever students use tables, figures, and/or pictures to improve their comprehension. The information gathered from the study's sample population reveals that 13 high achievers and 3 high achievers, respectively, were rated as "usually do this" and "always do this." Additionally, 13 respondents out of them and 1 respondent rated "sometimes" and "occasionally," respectively. Nevertheless, most low achieving respondents (22) rated "sometimes do this". This rating result has its own influence on the two groups mean result. Thus, the high achievers' frequency scale is ($M=3.6$) which is in the high usage and the low achievers' is ($M=3$) which is in medium usage. These results imply that there is a difference between the members of the two groups in taking the advantages of tables, figures, and/or pictures to increase their understanding. That is, the high achievers regularly employ this strategy in their academic reading whereas the low achievers use it sometimes. There is, however, only one scale difference between high usage and medium usage.

Moreover, the table's rank row depicted that high-achievers ranked the strategy of utilizing text features in eleventh place out of 13 GLOB items. However, those with low achievement ranked it first. Thus, it can be concluded that low achievers are more likely than high achievers to favor the strategy.

In the interview, however, only two high achieving interviewees stated concerning this strategy. However, four low achieving interviewees responded that they utilize this strategy for different reasons. The number of low achieving interviewees is greater than their counterparts because this strategy is one of the two global reading strategies which have been reported by low achieving group as their favor (See the detail in the interview analysis).

Item 17 (Q17) targeted to collect data among high and low achiever students how often they use contextual clues to better understanding. As depicted in the above table, the majority of high achievers (19 and 7) scored "usually" and "always," respectively. Conversely, most underachievers (15 and 12) scored to the scale "never" and "occasionally," respectively. When the mean of the two group respondents computed, the mean value of high achievers is found to be 4.1 and low achievers' is 1.6. The interpretation of these mean values is that high achievers always or usually employ the strategy while low achievers never adopt it during academic reading. The two frequency scales are in extreme contrast indicating that that compared to low achievers, high achievers use contextual cues far more frequently to deepen their understanding. The mean value also suggests that high achievers use this strategy at high frequency and low achievers employ this at low frequency scale. Therefore, high achievers preferred the use of context clues techniques to be their sixth in rank in the scope. Nonetheless, low achievers ranked it in the tenth position. This shows that to what extent high and low achievers favored the strategy of using contextual clues during academic reading.

Item 20 (Q20) was designed to obtain data on how often the sample population of the study use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information. As indicated by Table 5.5, of the thirty high achiever students, five, thirteen, and eleven of them rated "always," "sometimes," and "usually true of me," respectively. In contrast, six and three of the thirty low achievers rated "never and occasionally true of me," while the remaining twelve and nine low achievers rated "sometimes and usually true of me". Therefore, both high and low achievers

seem to have an experience in using typographical features. This is because half of the population of each group use typographical features “Sometimes”. This indicates that typographical features are used by both high and low achiever students. The numerical values also indicates that both categories (high and low achievers) belong to medium users of this strategy since their mean scores were ($M=3.37$ and $M=2.8$) respectively. This leads to say that while reading, both high and low achieving participants exploit typographical feature of the text to identify key information.

Nonetheless, out of the 13 GLOB strategies, high achievers ranked the typographical feature strategy as their lowest strategy (last in rank). Low achievers, however, placed it in second place. Thus, it can be concluded that even though their frequency is equal, a greater number of low achievers than their peers prefer to employ this strategy when reading for academic purposes.

Additionally, Item 20 appears to have a somewhat higher standard deviation in the GLOB strategies category than other items from the high and low achiever groups. The participants' responses to this question have the greatest degree of diversity. That is, the standard deviation for low achiever students was determined to be $SD=1.09$, while the standard deviation for high achiever students was found to be $SD=0.8$. This indicates that the majority of responses from high achievers were grouped together, whereas those from low achievers were dispersed throughout the self-report questionnaire. It follows that the mean value of low achievers does not accurately reflect their scores, just as the mean value of high achievers does.

Item 21 (Q21) aimed to obtain data on how often the high and low achiever students critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text. As illustrated in the table, the majority of high achievers (18 and 11) gave the ratings "usually" and "always true of me," respectively. As opposed to this, the majority of low achievers (19 and 10) evaluated "never" and "occasionally true of me." Consequently, students who perform well and those who do poorly employ the strategy with mean ($=4.3$, which is used frequently, and $=1.4$, which is used infrequently), respectively. By far the majority of high achievers reported using this method on a regular basis, while the mean value of the low achievers indicates that they use it infrequently (occasionally). This indicates that the two student groups employ this strategy on a very different frequency scale.

When it comes to standard deviation, the high achievers' item number 21 in GLOB has the lowest SD. This indicates that the majority of high achievers concur on the item "Analyzing and evaluating what is read".

In relation to the ranking of the strategy, as their response data showed, out of 13 GLOB items, high achievers ranked critically studying and evaluating the information as their top strategy (first in rank in the scope). Low performers, however, ranked the strategy at the eleventh position. This demonstrates that the ranking of high and low performers for this particular strategy option differs significantly.

Item 23 (Q23) asked students to replay how frequently they check their own understanding when they come across new information. Table 5.5 presents the results gathered from the analysis, which showed that four out of the 19 high achievers scored "always do this," and 19 high achievers rated "usually do this." The remaining seven respondents gave this rating of "sometimes do this." In contrast, the low performers scored "never, occasionally, and sometimes do this" for ten, sixteen, and four of them, respectively.

When it is computed the frequency mean of the strategy use of the two groups, it revealed that high achievers check their understanding more regularly ($M=3.9$) than low achievers ($M=1.8$) which suggests that the high achievers check their understanding in high frequency range and the low achievers do it in low frequency range. This suggests that high achievers do have a habit of verifying their own understanding during reading than their counterparts.

Among the 13 GLOB strategies, high achievers ranked the strategy of verifying their own understanding as the eighth most effective, and low achievers ranked the same strategy at the same position. It follows that there is a common rank preference for the strategy among both high and low achievers.

Item 24 (Q24) was developed to obtain data on how frequently the high and low achiever students employ titles to predict what the content of the text is about. As Table 5.5 illustrates, the majority of high achievers were rated between "sometimes do this" and "usually do this". Nonetheless, many of the underachievers scored in the "never do this" to "occasionally do this" range.

The strategy's mean value result for high and low achiever students also shows how the two groups differ in how they apply it. While high achievers mean value is (M=3.7), low achievers mean value is (M=1.73). The former mean value falls in the frequency scale of 3.5-5.0 and the latter falls in the frequency scale of 1.0-2.49. The scales are denoting that the high achiever students practice this method of reading regularly while the low achievers used it occasionally. So that high achievers utilize the strategy more frequently than low achiever students do.

The table also showed the ranking that each of the two groups' strategies had earned. High achievers therefore preferred to be ranked tenth in the scope when using prediction techniques. However, low achievers placed it at the ninth rank. This demonstrates that the strategy ranks of high and low achievers differ slightly from one another.

During interview, participants from the low achiever group claimed that they hardly ever make guesses based on titles about the content of texts, in contrast to the majority of high achiever interviewees who stated that they frequently do so. As a result, the interview result is pretty much corresponding with the quantitative result (See the detail in the interview analysis).

Item 27 (Q27) was also intended to display their rating scale for the frequency with which they verify the accuracy of their guesses. When it comes to verifying the accuracy of their guesses, high achiever students differ from low achievers, as evidenced by the data from the analysis in Table 5.5. Twenty, seven, and two high achievers, respectively, reported that they "usually," "sometimes," and "always" use the strategy. However, 8, 17, and 5 low achievers stated, respectively, that they "never, occasionally, and sometimes" use the strategy. The outcomes of the data collection indicate that, in terms of accuracy of guessing whether they are correct or incorrect, high achievers (mean = 3.77) and low achievers (1.9) are, respectively, high and low users of this tool. We can therefore comprehend that, when practicing this technique at a low frequency scale, low achiever students do not check the accuracy of their guesses as frequently as high achiever students do. So that high achievers regularly utilize the strategy while low achievers employed it occasionally (less than half time).

From data analysis presented on GLOB strategies above, it can be inferred that high and low achiever students employ Global reading strategies at varying frequencies. Out of 13 GLOB strategies, the successful students reported using 12 global reading strategies at high frequency

levels with the exception of one global strategy, (Using typographical features), which they claimed to use on a medium frequency scale. Low achievers, on the other hand, claimed to employ at a rate of low frequency scale with the exception of the two strategies (Taking advantages of text features and Using typographical features), which they reported to use them at a rate of medium frequency scale. It is therefore possible to say that global reading strategies are in favor of high achiever students because they use almost all global strategies more frequently than their counterparts.

The difference in the two group's use of strategies can also be seen by contrasting the top and bottom strategy choices in the form of example. High achievers preferred most two global reading strategies with comparable means but with slight standard result variation. These two strategies were, respectively, "previewing text before reading" and "Analyzing and evaluating what is read" ($M = 4.3$, $SD 0.66$ and $M = 4.3$ $SD = 0.55$) among GLOB. These two strategies were, nonetheless, preferred by low achieving participants differently. They ranked "Analyzing and evaluating what is read" as their eleventh preference, but they placed "previewing text before reading" as their fourth choice. This suggests that low achiever respondents are extremely contrasting with their counterparts in their strategy choice. It also indicates that high achievers are regularly using these two strategies (i.e., previewing and analyzing) in the process of their reading text, for they know the strategies help them to predict what the text will be about and to analyze or break down the text to simplify their reading. These strategies were not, however, reported to be used in a same portion by low achievers, which indicates that many of them do not understand the value of previewing text and analyzing or evaluating text during reading. This suggests that low achievers are less accustomed to these techniques than high achievers are. It, then, results in their failure in their academic reading.

As opposed to this, the high-achieving participants least liked strategy was "Using typographical features" with a mean of ($= 3.37$, $SD 1.26$). This is the only strategy that the high achievers use at medium frequency level among GLOB ranking last. Low achievers, however, chose this as their second choice. This suggests that the strategy received the most positive feedback from students who performed poorly and the least positive feedback from students who performed well.

Low achievers, on the other hand, indicated that their top preference was "Taking advantage of text features (tables)" with a ($M = 3$) although the strategy ranked eleventh in the choice of high achievers. They did, however, least like "Setting purpose" with a ($M = 1.27$). The mean value of the former strategy fell in medium frequency scale and the latter strategy fell in low frequency scale. Here, it is important to note that the strategy of "Setting purpose" which was too ignored to be used by low achievers was, however, chosen by high achievers in high frequency with a (4.27). This envisages that the low achievers establish purpose less regularly in advance of their academic reading than their counterparts.

Despite least preferred by low achievers, strategy of setting purpose has many functions in academic reading. It establishes the general reading activities of the readers during the reading stage. The purpose of a person influences their reading speed, focus area, and pre-reading decisions. Moreover, whenever learners pose questions to set a purpose for reading, they direct their thinking; they read actively. Thus, in the absence of having purpose in mind, it is very unlikely for students to be good readers because they do not know what to do and how to do.

Summing up, although it is anticipated that students use all of the global strategies frequently to prepare themselves for reading, the evidence from low achieving students' responses in the table above shows otherwise. This would be clearer when comparing the two groups' use of global reading strategies at Likert scale and frequency scale.

As seen in the table above in general, none of the thirty high achievers ticked to the scale of "Never do this" to any of global reading strategy. Only five individual respondents indicated their choice to the scale of "occasionally true of me" for different five GLOB strategies. However, to Item 8, nearly half of high achieving respondents (14) rated "Sometimes true of me". Moreover, for each of 11 GLOB strategies, 15 and more respondents (half and more than of high achievers) rated "usually true of me", and no GLOB strategies was ticked "always true of me" by high achievers at this proportion. Thus, it can be said that majority of high achieving students ticked to the scale of "usually" followed by "always", "sometimes" and "occasionally" while indicating their reading behavior choosing from the 13 GLOB reading strategies.

Quite opposed to this, none of the low achievers indicated “Always true of me” to all of the 13 global reading strategies. Additionally, only six GLOB strategies were preferred at least by one low achieving individual, the remaining seven of them were not preferred by low achievers at the scale of “usually do this”. However, 15 and more of them rated “never do this”, “occasionally do this” and “sometimes do this” to each of the four, two and to only one GLOB reading strategies respectively.

When it is compared high and low achieving respondents’ rating at individual level, only two global items took the first position. That is, 22 low achievers claimed that they never set purpose for their reading in Item one and the same amount of number from the same group reported to use text features (tables) sometimes in item 15 of GLOB.

In terms of frequency scale, the successful readers reported using 12 global reading strategies at a high frequency level, with the exception of one global strategy that they claimed to use on a medium frequency scale. Their consistent application of this tactic shows a metacognitive awareness of their reading process. Additionally, it shows that they were able to manage and keep an eye on their reading process and use the right reading techniques to correct their reading problems and get back on track.

Nonetheless, underachievers reported to use just two global reading techniques at a medium frequency. The use of the remaining eleven strategies was allegedly on a low frequency scale. Therefore, the low achieving students can be considered as those who predominantly used these techniques occasionally (below average) during academic reading. This suggests that these students lacked the chances they might have had if they had used the GLOB frequently while reading academic materials. One explanation for this might be that these students are unaware of the value of these techniques and how they can be applied because their English teachers did not instruct them in their use during English class. Hence, it is possible to draw the conclusion that low-achieving students do not use global reading strategies like setting a purpose, critically analyzing, etc., which many researchers consider to be useful. It can also be concluded that high achiever students are more experienced in using global strategies than low achiever students.

Finally, standard deviation informed us whether their rating in self-report questionnaire clustered or spread out; from it we can understand how much the mean values represent their rating scores in five-point scale questionnaire. Accordingly, among GLOB Items, the standard deviation of item1 for low achievers and item 20 for high achievers are the lowest which means that most of the participants agree with the idea of the items. Moreover, in this category, item 20 seems to be having a rather higher standard deviation than other items in both high and low achieving groups. This implies that participants have the highest diversity to choose their answers.

5.2.2.2. Individual Problem-solving Reading Strategies Used by High and Low Achieving Students

Table 5. 6: Descriptive Statistics of Individual Problem-solving Reading Strategies Used by High and Low Achieving Students

Sub strategies of PROB	High Achievers=30								Low Achievers=30							
	Frequency					Mean	Std deviation	Rank in scope	Frequency					Mean	Std deviation	Rank in scope
	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Usually	Always				Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Usually	Always			
Q7	-	-	-	9	21	4.7	0.47	2	-	-	14	15	1	3.57	0.57	2
Q9	-	-	1	12	17	4.53	0.57	3	-	5	25	-	-	2.83	0.38	5
Q11	-	-	1	12	17	4.17	0.69	8	-	2	22	5	1	3.17	0.59	3
Q14	-	-	5	15	10	4.3	0.59	6	1	7	20	2	-	2.77	0.63	6
Q16	-	-	2	17	11	4.27	0.45	7	7	9	13	1	-	2.27	0.87	7
Q19	-	-	-	22	8	4.73	0.45	1	-	4	21	5	-	3.03	0.56	4
Q25	-	-	-	8	22	4.43	0.68	5	-	-	3	17	10	4.23	0.63	1
Q28	-	-	3	11	16	4.47	0.57	4	9	16	5	-	-	1.87	0.68	8

The Problem-solving reading strategy (PROB) consists of eight items dealing with actions and procedures that readers take when reading difficult parts of a text (e.g., guessing meaning). In the SORS, PROB strategies are indicated on Q7, Q9, Q11, Q14, Q16, Q19, Q25 and Q28(See the

detail in Appendix A). These items in this study were used to elicit how often high and low achiever students employ problem-solving reading strategies. Next is the analysis of each PROB item beginning from the first as was presented in the table.

In item 7 (Q7), the respondents were inquired to report how often they read slowly and carefully to increase their understanding. As shown in Table 5.6, a sizable portion of high achievers—21—rated themselves as "always do this," with the remaining nine rating themselves as "usually do this." However, 14 low achievers rated "sometimes do this," and the rest fifteen and one of the groups rated as "usually do this" and "always do this" respectively. While The high achievers' responses are found to be mean (=4.7), low achievers mean (=3.57) in the frequency scale. These two mean values of the group fall in the frequency scale of (M=3.5-5.0). Any mean value that is in between these two frequency scales indicates a high usage. From this, it can be inferred that both high and low achievers use reading slowly and carefully to increase their understanding with high frequency scale. So that both group members regularly employ the strategy while they read school related materials.

However, although the two-group claimed to use the strategy in high frequency scale, the high achievers' exact mean value is a little bit greater than the low achievers' mean value. This happened because a considerable number of high achiever participants rated to the scale of "always read slowly and carefully text to better understanding"; whereas many low achieving participants rated to the scale of "usually for the same strategy. Nevertheless, owing to their frequency scale similarity, it should be said successful students (i.e., high achievers) use reading slowly and carefully to increase their understanding as regularly as less successful students (i.e., low achievers) do.

The table also envisaged the rank the strategy occupies. Accordingly, high achievers preferred the strategy of reading slowly and carefully technique to be their second in rank in the scope, so did low achievers. This demonstrates that the strategy ranks of high achievers and low achievers are identical. Due to the fact that almost all interviewees from the two groups were claiming to read slowly and carefully to enhance their understanding, it leads to say that the result of interview responses of high achievers corresponds with low achievers (See the detail in interview analysis).

Item 9 (Q9) was intended to gather data on how often the sample population of the study read materials focusing after distractions. The data obtained from the analysis depict that most high achievers rated between “usually do this,” and “always do this”. Nonetheless, the majority of low achievers (25) rated “sometimes do this,” and five of them rated “occasionally do this”. This yields the difference among high and low achiever students in their mean values, which means that the high achievers' read with concentration is mean (=4.53) and the low achievers' is (=2.83). From this, we can understand that almost all high achievers read academic materials with concentration at high frequency scale, or they regularly concentrate while academic reading. Nevertheless, the low achievers practice reading with concentration at medium frequency range. That is, they sometimes read with concentration. Therefore, it is possible to say that high achiever students' habit of reading with concentration is better than that of the low achiever students.

Among eight PROB strategies, the standard deviation of the item9 for low achievers is the lowest (SD=0.38) which means that most of the low achieving participants agree with the statement of “Item9 Trying to keep focused after distractions”. This strengthens the above mean result.

Regarding ranking of the strategy, high achievers ranked the technique of focusing after distractions third out of eight PROB strategies, while low performers ranked it fifth. As a result, it can be concluded that there is a small difference between high and low achievers' strategies in terms of rank.

In the interview, the majority of high achievers reported that they frequently read with concentration. But, participants of the low achievers asserted that they usually lose their concentration during academic reading. This interview result seems partially contradict with the data obtained from the questionnaire. In other words, although the quantitative results of the low achievers show that they sometimes read with concentration, many of them during interview reported that they usually read academic materials with little concentration. One possible reason is that during the interview, they might have forgotten what they ticked in filling questionnaire (See the detail the interview result analysis).

In item 11 (Q11), the sample populations of the study were asked to show how often they adjust reading speed according to what they are reading. Table 5.6 indicates that the majority of high achievers scored in the range of "usually do this" to "always do this." However, a sizable portion of low achievers (22), who scored "sometimes do this," and the remaining 5 and 1 low achiever, who scored "usually and always do this," respectively, were the other low achievers.

Thus, high achievers differ from low achievers in adjusting reading speed in that high achievers' responses are found to be mean=4.17 whereas low achievers' mean= 3.17. This means that high achiever students' habit of adjusting reading speed is more frequent than low achievers. One can understand from the results that high achievers adjusting reading speed with high frequency range (*=3.5-5.0=High) whereas low achiever students practice this technique with medium frequency level (*=2.5-3.49=Medium). As a result of this, high achievers placed the strategy of adjusting reading speed in eighth place out of eight PROB items. However, low achievers ranked it in third place. This demonstrates how low achievers, as opposed to high achievers, preferred the strategy.

Item 11 in this category seems to have a higher standard deviation (SD=0.69) than other items in groups with high achievement levels. This indicates that there is the greatest diversity among high-achieving participants when it comes to their preference for this particular strategy.

When the result is seen in light of their interview responses, there is a contradiction. In the questionnaire, although low achievers reported to adjust their pace according to the type of reading content moderately, none of the low achiever interviewees say anything about it in their interview responses. So, there is conflict between the quantitative and qualitative results. Nonetheless, half of the high achieving interviewees stated the value of adjusting pace during the interview response implying their awareness (See the detail in interview analysis G).

Item 14 (Q14) was designed to ascertain data among high and low achiever students how regularly they make attempting to focus closely on the content of the text. Thirty high achiever students are shown in the table; of them, five, fifteen, and ten rated "sometimes," "usually," and "always true of me," respectively. However, out of the thirty underachievers, there were one, seven, twenty, and two who scored the response "never, occasionally, sometimes, and usually true of me," respectively.

The mean of the responses of the two groups was also calculated. So that high and low achiever students were found to be mean ($=4.3$ and 2.77) respectively. This reveals that high achiever students try to focus closely on the content of the text at high frequency range as ($M=4.3$) falls between scales ($=3.5-5.0=$ High) and the low achievers at medium frequency level as $=3.17$ falls between ($=2.5-3.49=$ Medium). From this, we can understand that the high achievers try to focus closely on the content of the text more frequently at high frequency scale than their counterparts (low achievers) who are in medium frequency scale. In addition to this, the rank that the strategy holds is also shown in the table. Concentrating on content technique came in sixth place for both high and low achievers. So that both groups are on equal footing in their ranking for this particular strategy.

Item 16 (Q16) was designed to gauge how frequently students stop and consider what they have read. Table 5.6 shows that the majority of high achievers gave ratings in the range of "usually" to "always do this." Conversely, low achievers seven, nine, thirteen, and one were rated as "never, occasionally, sometimes, and usually do this," respectively.

The mean result is of help to make clear the two groups' strategy usage frequency. High achiever students pause and think about what is read more frequently ($M=4.27$) than the low achievers ($M= 2.27$). Their mean value clearly shows that high achiever students use the pausing and thinking technique during reading more frequently than the low achievers do. This resulted from the fact that high achiever students employ this strategy at high frequency level since their mean score falls between $3.5 -5.0$. On the other hand, low achiever students practice this at a low frequency level as their mean value is between $1.5-2.49$.

The table also includes information on standard deviation, showing that item 16's standard deviation for PROB low achievers has the highest value ($SD=0.87$). It can be inferred that individuals with lower achievement levels exhibit the greatest diversity when responding to the statement, "Pausing and thinking about what is read." However, the PROB high achievers' standard deviation for the same item is the lowest, indicating that the majority of high achievers concur with the statement "Pausing and thinking about what is read." Both groups ranked the strategy seventh as well. so that the rankings of the groups are comparable.

In the course of interview, while all low achiever interviewees said nothing about the strategy under consideration, three high achiever interviewees discussed how they personally use it. As a result, the qualitative and quantitative results are consistent (see the details in the section that follows).

Item 19 (Q19) was intended to get data on how often high and low achiever students visualize or create mental image of information they get from the text to remember what they read. As shown in table 5.6, members of the two groups variedly scored their strategy choice via different scales. Among high achievers, respondents who rated “usually” were 22 in number while those who rated “always” were eight in number. However, four, twenty-one, and five of the low achievers scored to the scales of “occasionally, sometimes and usually” respectively.

When it is computed the mean of the above responses, it would be clearer how high and low achiever students differ in their use of visualizing tactic. The means of high and low achiever students were found to be ($M=4.73$ and $M= 3.03$) respectively. This can be interpreted that high achiever students' visualizing information ($x= 4.73$) falls between scales ($x= 3.5 - 5.0 = \text{high}$). And low achiever students medium as $x= 3.03$ falls between $x= 2.5 - 3.49$. The results also indicated that high achiever students visualize information more often than low achiever students do. That is, when high achievers always utilize the strategy, low achievers employ it sometimes. Therefore, it can be said that high achiever and low achiever students apply this strategy in different frequency level in favor of high achiever students as higher users in the process of academic reading.

Besides, as the response result envisaged, high achievers reported that their preferred strategy (ranked first in the scope) out of eight PROB items was to visualize information. On the other hand, low performers ranked the strategy at the fourth position. This demonstrates the significant disparity in the rankings of high and low achievers for this particular strategy choice.

During the interview, interviewees from low achievers were not able to say anything regarding the use of visualizing information strategy while three from high achieving interviewees could state about the strategy well. So, it can be said that the interview result matches with the quantitative result.

In Item 25 (Q25), the participants were asked to report how often they re-read text to increase their understanding. As the data in the table above depicts, eight as well as 22 high achievers ticked to the scoring scale of “usually” and “always” respectively. On the other hand, of the low achievers, three of them ticked to “sometimes”; seventeen of them ticked to “usually” and ten of them scored “always”.

The table also presents the mean result. High achievers' responses are found to be (mean=4.43) and low achievers' (mean=4.23). The implication of this result is that both high and low achievers use re-reading technique to increase their understanding with high frequency scale (= 3.5-5.0 = High) So that both high and low achievers regularly employ this reading strategy while they are reading academic texts. A considerable number of high and low achiever students inclined to re-reading text to better understanding. Thus, we can say that successful students (i.e., high achievers) use re-reading to increase their understanding as frequently as less successful students (i.e., low achievers) do. Moreover, among PROB strategies, high achievers ranked rereading technique to be their fifth choice. In contrast, low achievers placed the strategy at the first rank. This again shows that there is a high tendency of favoring to rereading strategy on the side of the majority of low achievers.

A similar result was also found in the interview response. It is important to note that both high and low achieving students often reread academic materials to settle their understanding problems. As reflected in their views during interview, high achievers sometimes reread materials to memorize, for it is their habit that they bring from the way they were taught. This is, however, grave on the side of low achievers. Memorizing by the low-level subjects was due to the subjects' language deficiency and their inability to synthesize the text's idea in their own words. This point can be supported by making the following inference from the ranks of the strategies in the above table. The low-level subjects reported “Guessing Unknown Words' or Phrases' Meaning Using the Context” less frequently than “Using a Dictionary”. This suggests that they were not able to cope with the text they are reading and need the dictionary. Based on this, it looks as if the reason the low-level subjects memorize may have been because of language deficiency (See the detail in the interview analysis).

Item 28 (Q28) was intended to collect data on how often the sample populations of this study make guesses to understand unfamiliar English word in the text. As it is demonstrated in Table 5.6, out of thirty high achiever students, 3 students rated “sometimes true of me”, 11 students rated “Usually true of me”, and the rest 16 rated “always”. Whereas, 9 low achiever students claimed that they “never” employ the strategy. Sixteen of them stated that they “occasionally” use the strategy, and the other five respondents reported to use “sometimes”.

The table also exhibits, the mean values of high and low achievers were 4.47 and 1.87 respectively. These informed that high achievers use at high frequency and low achievers at low frequency scale (* = 3.5-5.0=high and *1.5-2.49=low respectively). So that successful readers regularly employed the strategy during academic reading while unsuccessful readers never used it. This implies that high achiever students make guesses more frequently than low achiever students. It leads to say that high achiever students extremely differ from low achiever students in the level of frequency in making guesses.

This was also observed in their ranking of the strategy. While high achievers reported making guesses to be placed in the fourth position among eight PROB strategies, low achievers placed it in the last rank (eighth position). Therefore, it can be said that low achievers are neither aware of the guessing strategy nor its application.

Here, it is worth noting that data obtained from interviews agree with the data gathered from the questionnaire. As the result of most successful interviewees report revealed, high achievers make guessing more frequently than the low achievers. Moreover, almost all of the low achiever interviewees reported that they prefer dictionary than guessing because their inability to guess the possible meanings of the word of the text very often discouraged them from using the strategy in question.

Before wrapping up, it is very important to see the top and bottom PROB strategy choices of the respondents in the two groups whereby the difference between high and low achieving students’ problem-solving strategy use would be clearer.

As seen in Table 5.6, the item "Visualizing information while reading to remember" received the most marks or was ranked first out of eight PROB Strategies by successful readers ($M = 4.73$). Because high achievers were aware of the value of visualizing what they were reading, they used this strategy more frequently on average than other strategies. These students use visualization for various purposes as mentioned in literature. One of which is to make sure they comprehend what they are reading, and the other is to ensure that they retain the knowledge after reading. This strategy was, however, reported by low achievers with ($M = 3.03$) which is at medium frequency scale. So that unsuccessful readers were using this strategy sometimes. Additionally, a strategy preferred by high achievers in eighth place was Adjusting reading pace. This strategy was, however, chosen by low achievers in third place.

On the other hand, the strategy "Reading again for better understanding" with a Mean score of 4.23 was preferred most (top in rank) by low achievers. This average value belonged to the high frequency range. Thus, it can be concluded that low achievers frequently (or always) use this strategy when they have trouble understanding what they are reading. This strategy, however, is the fifth most preferred strategy of the high achievers among PROB strategies. As opposed to this, a strategy least chosen (last in rank among PROB strategies) by low achievers was guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words with a mean of ($=1.87$) which is in low usage.

Summing up, all eight strategies of the category of problem-solving were reported to be of high usage by high achievers with a (mean scores of 3.5 or above). This showed that the successful students were generally conscious of their comprehension process and were able to take appropriate actions when comprehension breaks down. For example, when a text became difficult, they visualize the information, read slowly and carefully, reread... to increase their text understanding. In other words, when faced with challenges while reading academic texts, the majority of high achievers regularly adopt a variety of problem-solving reading comprehension techniques. This implies that the Ethiopian high achieving EFL tertiary students inclined to employ reading strategies rather flexibly to aid and enhance their reading comprehension.

Low achievers, on the other hand, claimed to use just two strategies, namely, reading slowly and carefully and reading again for better understanding at a high frequency scale. They reported to employ five of the prob strategies at a medium frequency scale. So, they employed them

sometimes in their academic reading. Moreover, "Guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words in the text" was a very contrasting tactic that was reportedly used by two groups. While High achievers claimed to use it frequently (in high usage), low achievers claimed to use it occasionally (in low usage). This denotes that low achievers are very bad at guessing the meaning of unknown words of the text. The implication is that when low achieving students come across unfamiliar words during academic reading, they frequently run to dictionary to settle their difficulty.

In general, both groups of the participants (i.e., high and low achievers) indicated to employ the entire problem-solving reading strategies, but with different frequency level. Out of thirty high achievers, none of them rated never and occasionally true of me to any of problem-solving strategies. Only 12 high achieving individuals reported that they sometimes used five out of 8 problem-solving reading strategies. So, most of them rated "usually and always true of me". Quite opposed to this, out of thirty low achievers, only 12 respondents indicated "Always" to only three items of the eight problem-solving reading strategies. A few of them also rated "usually do this" to five items. Most of them rated "sometimes true of me". Since high achievers apply PROB strategies in high usage, low achievers mainly adopt them in medium usage. As a result, it can be concluded that PROB strategies are in favor of the high achievers because they reported to use all eight listed PROB strategies more frequently than their counterparts (low achievers) do.

Concerning the standard deviation, it informed us whether their rating in self-report questionnaire clustered or spread out; from it we can understand how much the mean values represent their rating scores in five-point scale questionnaire. Accordingly, among PROB Items, the standard deviation of Item16 and Item19 for high achievers is the lowest which means that most of the high achieving participants agree with the items of "Pausing and thinking about what is read and Visualizing information while reading to remember" respectively. Moreover, in this category, Item 11 of high achievers and Item16 of low achievers seem to be having a rather higher standard deviation than other items. The implication is that participants of the two groups have the highest diversity to choose their answers.

5.2.2.3. Individual Support Reading Strategies Used by High and Low Achieving Students

The category of Support reading strategies (SUP) comprises 9 items that explain about using devices or techniques to understand a text (e.g., dictionary). In the SORS of Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002), items that are Q2, Q5, Q10, Q13, Q18, Q22, Q26, Q29, and Q30 are components of SUP items. These items were designed to collect data on how often high and low achiever students use support reading strategies (See Appendix A and Appendix B). Analysis on SUP follows.

Table 5.7: Descriptive Statistics of Individual Supporting Reading Strategies Used by High and Low Achieving Students

Sub strategies of SUP	High achievers=30								Low achievers=30							
	Frequency					Mean	Std deviation	Rank in scope	Frequency					Mean	Std deviation	Rank in scope
	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Usually	Always				Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Usually	Always			
Q2	-	-	1	14	15	3.57	0.57	6	6	9	15	-	-	2.3	0.79	5
Q5	-	-	14	15	1	1.97	0.85	9	1	4	22	3	-	2.9	0.61	4
Q10	11	9	10	-	-	4.07	0.78	2	1	6	10	13	-	3.17	0.87	3
Q13	-	-	8	12	10	3.73	0.74	4	-	-	13	13	4	3.7	0.7	1
Q18	-	1	10	15	4	4.07	0.74	2	7	16	7	-	-	2	0.69	7
Q22	-	-	7	14	9	3.63	0.49	5	4	14	12	-	-	2.27	0.69	6
Q26	-	-	11	19	-	4.17	0.59	1	16	9	5	-	-	1.63	0.76	8
Q29	-	-	3	19	8	2	1.02	8	-	1	19	10	-	3.3	0.53	2
Q30	1	1	13	13	2	3.47	0.82	7	17	10	3	-	-	1.53	0.68	9

In the above table, Item 2 (Q2) was prepared to ascertain data among high and low achiever students how often they take notes while reading text to comprehend what they read. As the data in Table 5.7 revealed, most high achievers rated between “usually do this” and “always do this”.

In contrast, of the low achievers six, nine and fifteen of them scored to the scale of “never, occasionally and sometimes” respectively.

In addition to the above frequency response difference, high and low achiever students differ in the use of taking notes, which is often expressed via mean and standard deviation. Hence, high achievers with mean 3.75 and low achievers with mean 2.3 take notes to comprehend what they read. The mean value of each group falls in various frequency scale. High achiever students take note with high frequency range in a scale ($=3.5-5.0=$ High) while low achievers use the same strategy with low frequency range in a scale ($=1.0-2.49$). The implication is that high achiever students frequently take notes while low achievers never employ the strategy when they read academic materials. This might happen because it can be said that high achievers do have knowledge about taking note technique and how to make it while reading more often than low achievers do. As a result, note-making technique was ranked sixth in the scope by high achievers and fifth by low achievers. This demonstrates that, despite the low achievers' admission of inefficiency when employing this strategy, they preferred as one of the five favorite strategies, and high achievers as one of their six favored strategies.

Throughout the interview process, every individual from both groups admitted to taking notes while reading. However, interview responses of low achievers are not corresponding with what they claimed in the quantitative result (i.e., I never take notes while reading). This leads to say that low achievers did not reply Item2 of the questionnaire with knowledge of certainty. Yet, data from the interview of high achieving students correspond with the data obtained through the questionnaire.

Item5 (Q5) sought to find out data on how often the respondents of this study Read aloud for better understanding. As can be observed in the above table, high achievers 14, 16, and 1 assigned the ratings "sometimes, usually, and always do this," respectively. Low achievers 1, 4, 22, and 3 on the other hand, scored "never, occasionally, sometimes, and usually do this" in that order.

Owing to this frequency response result, and the mean outcome which is dealt below, high and low achiever students differ in the use of reading aloud strategy. As the result revealed, high achiever students read aloud less frequently ($= 1.97$) than their counterparts ($=2.9$) do. The

mean value of high achiever students is meant that they practice this reading technique in low frequency whereas the mean value of low achievers envisages that they employ this in medium range, for their rating fall in a scale $x = 1.5 - 2.49 = \text{Low}$ and $y = 2.5 - 3.49 = \text{Medium}$ respectively. Therefore, high achievers never utilized the strategy while low achievers used it sometimes when they read academic materials. Besides, high achievers claimed to use reading aloud strategy to be placed in the last position (ninth in the scope). Nonetheless, low achievers placed it in the fourth rank. It follows that high achievers are neither cognizant of the strategy nor cognizant of how to apply it.

The interview's findings concur with those from the self-report questionnaire. That is, during interview, all except one of the high achieving interviewees stated that they do not want to read materials aloud to remember information what they read. Nonetheless, all low achiever students stated that they to some extent like to read materials aloud. They use this technique to help them remember what they read (The detail is presented in interview analysis).

In Item10 (Q10), the sample populations of the study were asked to report how often they underline or circle key information in the text to help them to understand what they read. As Table 5.7 demonstrates, three scoring scales (never, occasionally and sometimes) were respectively scored by eleven, nine and ten high achievers. On the contrary, 1 respondent, 6, 10 and 13 respondents from low achievers scored to the scale of "never, occasionally, sometimes and usually do this" respectively.

In so far as the mean strategy result goes, the mean value of underlining key information for high achiever students is high at 4.07, which is in the frequency range of (3.5-5.0), whereas the mean value for low achiever students is medium, falling between (2.5-3.49). The results of data analysis revealed that high achiever students employ underlining key information more frequently than low achiever students. This mean result has come from the fact that most of the high achiever students rated "always do this" and "usually do this". On the other hand, many low achiever students rated "sometimes" to the strategy of underlining key information. Thus, it can be concluded that high achievers more often employ this technique than their counterparts.

In relation to standard deviation, item 10's standard deviation ($SD=0.87$) for low achievers among SUP is the highest. The implication is that low achieving participants have the highest diversity while replying the statement of “underline or circle key information in the text to help them to understand what they read”.

Besides, the response result indicated that, out of the nine SUP items, high achievers ranked underlining key information as their second most preferred strategy. On the other hand, low achievers ranked the strategy third. This indicates that, for this particular strategy choice, the difference in rank between high and low achievers is extremely narrow.

During the interview, more than half of the successful interviewees said that they like to underline or circle information which they think important. In contrast, only two low achieving interviewees expressed as they want to underline the key points. This leads to say that the quantitative result and qualitative finding coincide.

Item13 (i.e., Q13) aimed at seeing how often the sample population of the study employ reference materials like dictionary to help them understand what they read in better way. According to Table 5.7, eight high achievers reported using the strategy "sometimes," twelve reported using it "usually," and ten reported using it "always." However, of the underachievers, 13 said they used the strategy "sometimes," another 13 said they used it "usually," and four said they used it "always."

In order to realize the two groups' strategy usage difference, seeing mean of the data is of help. High and low achieving students' mean value in the use of the strategy of reference was nearly equivalent or alike ($\bar{x}=3.73$ and $\bar{x}=3.7$) respectively. The mean value denotes that both group members read reference especially dictionary at high frequency scale. Both of them are in high usage. Thus, high achievers use the strategy as often as their counterparts.

The aforementioned table also demonstrates how high achiever students ($SD=0.7$) and low achiever students ($SD=0.77$) use reference materials like dictionaries at high frequency scales. This indicates that while low achievers' ratings of the strategy were somewhat dispersed, high-achievers' were more clustered. Because the high achievers' standard deviation is lower than that

of the low achievers, the high achievers' mean value thus represents their rating scores in the self-report questionnaire relatively better than the low achievers' mean value.

Despite their claims to frequently select the reference strategy, the two groups' rankings of the various strategies differed significantly. Among the nine SUP items, high achievers ranked the use of reference materials as their fourth preferred strategy. Low achievers, on the other hand, gave the strategy top priority. This demonstrates the degree to which low achievers rely on dictionaries as reference materials when reading academic texts.

As a remark, the information obtained from the interview does not contradict with the data obtained from the questionnaire. In the interview, almost all the high and low achiever interviewees said that they frequently use dictionary to help them understand what they read.

Item 18 is Q18 over which the respondents of the study inquired to show how regularly they paraphrase what they read in their own words for better understanding. As shown in Table 5.7, the majority of high achievers were rated as "usually do this" and "sometimes do this." Nevertheless, on the scale of "never, occasionally, and sometimes," 7, 16, and 7 low achievers, respectively, reported using.

When computing the mean of the strategy use by the two groups, it was discovered that unlike low achievers, significant number of high achiever students paraphrase what they read in their own words. High achievers' mean score is 4.07 and low achievers' is 2, which means that high achiever students employ this in high frequency scale range ($=3.5-5.0$) and low achievers apply this in low frequency scale range ($=1.5-2.49$). Accordingly, high achievers regularly paraphrase what they read; whereas low achievers never utilize the strategy in their academic reading. The two groups are thus in big difference in terms of using paraphrasing strategy. High achievers are high users while low achievers are low users. The table also shows the position that "paraphrasing strategy" holds. As a result, high achievers ranked the paraphrasing technique second in the scope, while low achievers ranked it seventh. This demonstrates the significant differences in the rankings provided by low and high achievers.

When interviewed, three of the high achievers expressed that they paraphrase their reading while none of low achievers say anything concerning the strategy. This strengthens the finding of quantitative result. That is, there is no variation between the response of questionnaire and interview.

In Item22 (Q22), an attempt was made to know how often respondents Go back and forth to find associations between ideas to enhance their understanding. As envisaged in Table 5.7, 7, 14 and 9 high achieving respondents marked “sometimes, usually and always do this” on the scale respectively while 4 low achievers, other 14 and 12 of the same group ticked to “never, occasionally and sometimes do this” respectively.

While the frequency mean on the strategy in question was calculated, it was found out that high achiever students claimed that they Go back and forth to find associations between ideas while reading in high frequency scale. This is mainly because the mean value of high achievers in the use of this strategy is 3.63 which falls in the frequency scale (3.5-5.0). They are in high usage. So that they are regularly utilizing the strategy in their reading. On the other hand, low achievers' mean result is 2.27 which fell in range of (*=1.5-2.49). They are in low usage. So that low achievers are occasionally using the strategy while reading.

In addition to this, among SUP Items, the standard deviation of Item22 for high achievers is the lowest (SD=0.49) which means that most of the participants agree with the item of “Going back and forth to find associations between ideas”. The strategy also gets variation in rank. High achievers ranked the strategy in fifth while their counterparts ranked it in sixth.

Item26 (Q26) was developed to determine how often the sample populations of the study Ask themselves questions in their academic reading. Table 5.7 shows that, out of thirty high achievers, nineteen of them gave the response "usually do this," and the other eleven gave the response "sometimes do this." However, out of the thirty underachievers, sixteen reported using the strategy "never," nine reported using it "occasionally," and five reported using it "sometimes."

Owing to computational frequency mean result, it is possible to say that there is a big difference between high and low achievers in asking themselves questions during reading. This is said because, while the high achievers ask themselves questions at high frequency scale with a mean value ($M=4.17$) and the low achievers do it with a mean value ($M=2.27$) at low frequency scale. Hence, from the discussions, we can conclude that only the high achiever students have an experience in asking themselves questions during their reading at high scale. The strategy was, however, ranked first by high achievers and eighth by low achievers. The implication is that the majority of successful readers tended to utilize the strategy while they read academic materials.

A similar result was also found during interview wherein three high achievers assert that they frequently use the strategy while reading. Nonetheless, poor performers made no comments about the tactic. This depicts that no variation exists between the responses of the questionnaire and interview question.

Item 29 (Q29) inquired respondents about how frequently high and low achiever students of this study translate into native language the information that they read in English. As evident in the above frequency response table, out of thirty high achievers, most of them (19) reported that they “usually” utilize the strategy. Eight of them said that they “sometimes” use the strategy and the remaining three reported that they “sometimes” use the strategy. Nonetheless, on the scale of "occasionally, sometimes and usually", one low achieving participant and the other, 19 and 10 of them respectively, reported using the strategy.

When the use of strategy frequency mean score of the two groups computed, it was found out that a substantial number of the high achievers tend to translate information in to their own native language less frequently than low achievers. Their mean scores in the use of this strategy are ($M=2$). This mean is in the frequency scale (1.5-2.49). The interpretation of which is that high achievers translate into native language the information they read in English occasionally. They are in low usage. On the contrary, the mean score of low achievers is ($M=3.3$). The interpretation of which is that low achievers sometimes translate information they got from English text into their mother tongue. The result of the groups also suggest that the high achievers practice this strategy with low frequency scale and the low achievers do in medium frequency range. Hence, it is possible to say that the high and low achiever students translate

information with different frequency range in favor of low achievers. The table also shows the strategy rank, with low achievers placing the strategy in second place and high achievers placing it at eighth. This shows how much high performers and low performers liked and disliked the reading technique.

Besides, as can be seen in the above table, out of the items of the SUP category, Item29 seems to be having a rather higher standard deviation ($= 1.02$) than other items in high achieving groups. This implies that high achieving participants have the highest diversity to choose their answers. In contrast, the standard deviation of the same item for low achievers among SUP is the lowest ($SD=0.53$) which means that the answers given by participants for this item is lowest in diversity.

During interview, low achievers' responses slightly contradict with what they said in the questionnaire. Almost all of them stated to use the strategy often in the interview whereas in the questionnaire, they reported to employ it sometimes. Yet, only two high achievers responded that they use the strategy in the interview. This coincides with the quantitative result.

Item30 (Q30) was developed to collect data how frequently high and low achiever students practice the strategy of thinking information in both English and mother tongue while reading. As Table 5.7 shows, a significant number of high achieving respondents rated "sometimes and usually do this". On the other hand, of the low achievers, 17, 10 and 3 of them rated "never, occasionally and sometimes do this" respectively.

The table also displays that high achiever students' mean score is ($=3.47$). This mean value is in medium scale, for it falls in ($=2.5-3.49$). But low achievers' mean score is ($=1.53$). This mean result is in low scale because it falls in ($=1.5 -2.49$). The mean value can be interpreted that many high achievers sometimes think information in both English and mother tongue during reading while many low achiever students, practice this technique 'occasionally'. This indicates that high and low achievers differ in using the strategy. Therefore, it can be concluded that high achiever students employ this technique (thinking information in both English and mother tongue during reading) more often than their counterparts (low achievers practice)

The item was, however, ranked seventh by high achievers and last (ninth in the scope) by low achievers. The implication is that many successful and unsuccessful readers did not tend to utilize the strategy while they read academic materials.

Before concluding this part, it is worth seeing the top and bottom strategy choice of the respondents in the scope. As shown in the table above, high achieving participants preferred most (first in rank) to the strategy of “Asking oneself questions” with ($M = 4.17$, $SD 0.59$) when they are reading academic materials. This mean value fell in high frequency scale implying that high number of the successful readers most frequently ask themselves different questions during academic reading. By doing so, they think that they can enhance their reading comprehension. This strategy was, however, preferred in eighth place by low-achievers who claimed to inquire themselves questions as they read with a mean score of (1.63). This mean value falls under low frequency scale. So that these students occasionally use this strategy. This represents a stark contrast between low and high achievers.

The least preferred strategy by high achievers, on the other hand, was “Reading aloud for better understanding” with ($M = 1.97$) which is at low frequency scale. This is meant that high achievers occasionally employ this strategy. It also implies that they seem to read academic materials silently. Although a research study by Oxford (1990) found that reading aloud was an effective reading strategy and that oral reading significantly improved comprehension, this may not be the case in the Ethiopian EFL context. Students' listening comprehension is greatly influenced by the use of reading aloud to aid in comprehension of the reading material. However, there were not many chances for Ethiopian students to hear or speak English. So, neither their reading comprehension nor their listening comprehension is any better. Therefore, understanding the word would be useless even if the students were able to decipher its pronunciation.

Remarkably, the same strategy was reported to be used by low-achievers with ($M = 2.9$) indicating medium usage. Thus, underachieving students use this strategy sometimes. As mentioned earlier, reading aloud has been found as a strategic behavior that L2 readers should have employed to enhance their comprehension when they encounter comprehension challenges in L2 reading. Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) stated that reading aloud is useful strategies in learning to read, and is important to remember what has been read.

Low achievers, on the other hand, preferred "Adopting reference materials" the most, (top in rank) with a mean score of 3.7, which indicates high usage. Thus, when reading academic materials, low achievers regularly (usually or always) use dictionaries and other reference materials to support their reading comprehension. In contrast, they gave "Thinking of information in both languages" the least preference. Which has a mean score of ($M = 1.53$) on a low frequency scale. So that they occasionally use this tactic. This shows that they are not adept at thinking in both their mother tongue and the target language while reading academic texts written in English. This strategy was, however, reported to be used by high achievers at medium frequency scale.

In general, as shown in the table above, among thirty high achieving respondents, 12 of them rated never true of me to only two support reading strategies (Q11 and Q30), and eleven of them ticked to "Occasionally do this" to item10, item18 and item30 in total. High achieving individuals reported that they "usually true of me" in most of cases of answering the support reading strategies. In contrast to this, out of thirty low achievers, only four respondents indicated "Always" to only one item (Q13) out of nine support reading strategies, and few low achieving individuals rated "usually do this" to four items. Most of low achievers rated "sometimes true of me" while completing the SUP strategies.

Therefore, out of nine support reading strategies, only two strategies—"Reading aloud for better understanding" and "Translating into native language while reading"—were reported as being used occasionally by high achievers, which is below average. Additionally, they reported using one technique "Thinking of information in both languages"—at a medium usage rate. These students allegedly used the remaining six techniques on a frequent basis. As a result, it can be said that a lot of high achievers regularly use a lot of support reading strategies.

Conversely, underachievers claimed to have used just one tactic, "Adopting reference materials," at high frequency scale. They also assert that they used three support reading strategies at a medium usage level and five reading strategies at a low frequency scale. As a result, it can be said that neither these students are aware of these strategies nor are they using them when they read for academic materials. Therefore, instructors must pay careful attention to these students' academic reading habits in class.

Finally, by analyzing the standard deviation, we can determine how closely the mean values reflect the respondents' ratings on a five-point rating scale, as well as whether their ratings in the self-report questionnaire were clustered or dispersed. Accordingly, among nine SUP Items, the standard deviation of Item22 of high achievers and Item29 of low achievers among SUP items is the lowest which means that most of the high achieving participants agree with the idea of the items. Moreover, in this category, Item 29 of high achievers and Item10 of low achievers seem to be having a rather higher standard deviation than other items. This implies that participants have the highest diversity to choose their answers.

In general, as the overall computational analysis of the group participants' responses for the three categories revealed that 26 out of 30 survey of reading strategies (86%) were reported to be used by high achievers at high frequency scale, which is over the mean of 3.5. They also made their decision known to the other four reading strategies, two for low frequency scale and two for medium frequency scale. Quite the opposite, underachievers reported using 18 reading strategies (60%) at low frequency scale, nine (30%) reading strategies at medium frequency scale and only three (10%) reading strategies at high frequency scale. Thus, the information provided leads to the conclusion that low achievers require extra attention when it comes to the use of reading strategies. Next is the specific reading strategies used most and least by the two groups.

5.2.2.4. Reading Strategies Most and Least Used by High and Low Achievers

In addition to the above illustration, high and low achievers' strategy use can further be analyzed in the subsequent two tables which are used to compare their most and least chosen reading strategies. In the very next table, ten strategies preferred most by high and low achievers are presented beginning from the top rank and analyzed accordingly. Following this, five least preferred strategies are presented in another table beginning from least and analyzed accordingly.

Table 5.8: The ten Reading Strategies Most Used by High and Low Achievers

High Achievers =30				Low Achievers =30			
Strategy Type		Mean	SD	Strategy Type	Mean	SD	
PROB/19	Visualizing information while reading to remember	4.73	0.45	PROB/25	Reading again for better understanding	4.23	0.68
PROB/7	Reading slowly and carefully	4.7	0.47	SUP/13	Adopting reference materials	3.7	0.7
PROB/9	Trying to keep focused after distractions	4.53	0.57	PROB/7	Reading slowly and carefully	3.57	0.57
PROB/28	Guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words	4.47	0.57	SUP/29	Translating into native language while reading	3.3	0.53
PROB/25	Reading again for better understanding	4.43	0.68	PROB/11	Adjusting reading pace	3.17	0.59
GLOB/4	Previewing text before reading	4.3	0.66	SUP/10	Underlining and circling information in the text	3.17	0.87
GLOB/21	Analyzing and evaluating what is read	4.3	0.55	PROB/19	Visualizing information while reading to remember	3.03	0.56
PROB/14	Focusing closely on the content of the text	4.3	0.59	GLOB/15	Taking advantages of text features (tables)	3	0.52
GLOB/1	Setting purpose for reading	4.27	0.74	SUP/5	Reading aloud for better understanding	2.9	0.61
PROB/16	Pausing and thinking about what is read	4.27	0.45	PROB/9	Trying to keep focused after distractions	2.83	0.38

In the above table, top strategies favored by high and low achievers are listed with the aim of comparing and contrasting them. A comparison of the ranks of the most frequently reported strategies by high and low-level subjects is useful to determine which of the two levels chose, that is prioritized, a strategy more frequently than other strategies. Since it was difficult to decide

how many strategies to include for the comparison of strategy ranks, ten strategies (one third of the thirty strategies reported in this study) were selected. Thus, analysis was made on those ten strategies that were preferred most by high and low achieving groups below.

As demonstrated in the table, the strategy of "visualizing information" was reported to be most commonly used by high achievers. Low achievers did not consider this tactic to be one of their top five preferences. This suggests that those who perform poorly are not good at visualizing what they are reading. When investigating low achievers' highest preference, it was discovered that "Reading again for better understanding" was the low achievers' top preference, and it was also the fifth most popular strategy among high achievers. Nonetheless, while comparing the mean value of high and low achievers to the same strategy, ($M = 4.43$ and $M = 4.23$) respectively, it was found out that both mean fell in high usage with some points favoring to high achievers. Additionally, both high and low achieving groups preferred a strategy to "Reading slowly and carefully" as their second and third choice respectively.

The ranks of the ten most frequently reported strategies of high achievers show that Visualizing, Reading slowly and carefully, Focusing after distractions, Guessing meaning, Rereading, Previewing, Analyzing and evaluating, Concentrating on content, Setting purpose for reading and Pausing and thinking about what is read were in descending order reported as the most frequently used strategy only at the high level in the above table. On the other hand, low achievers reported using the strategies of rereading, using references, reading slowly and intently, translating, adjusting speed, Underlining and circling, Visualizing, Taking advantages of text features, Reading aloud and Trying to keep focused after distractions in that order. These reading strategies were reported to be used more frequently by the two groups' participants and used more than other strategies.

However, on closer inspection of the strategy preference of high achieving subjects discloses that except four PROB strategies: Visualizing, Reading slowly and carefully, Focusing after distractions and rereading, The other strategies are conspicuously absent from the ranks of the ten strategies at the low level. The implication is that the two groups were prioritizing strategies differently both at individual and categorical level. Particularly, low achievers prioritized inappropriate strategies. For instance, Table 5.8 shows that "Previewing text before reading" was

reported more frequently by the high-level subjects than by the low-level subjects. This suggests that the high-level subjects were aware of the need to previewing text before reading more often than did the low-level subjects. Furthermore, the high-level subjects reported “Analyzing and evaluating what is read” and “Setting purpose for reading” more frequently than did the low-level subjects. It is worth noting to emphasize that these three Strategies are GLOB or metacognitive strategies, that is strategies which are used to regulate other strategies. The absence of these strategies from the most frequently reported strategies at the low level and their more frequently reported use at the high level suggests that the high-level subjects were more aware of the necessity of regulating other strategies than were the low-level subjects. Thus, lack of awareness of strategy prior to and during reading appears to be the main difference between the high and low scoring subjects.

In the use of support reading strategy, there were also interesting differences between the high and low-level subjects in the frequency of the strategies they reported. For example, “Using the Dictionary” was prioritized or reported more frequently by the low-level subjects than by the high-level subjects. One would expect the low-level subjects, because of their low language level, to cope with the language demands of text worse than the high-level subjects and they are, therefore, normally expected to use the dictionary more often. On the contrary, the high-level subjects reported “Guessing unknown words’ meaning using Context” more frequently than “Using the Dictionary”. This leads to say that depending on which items in the questionnaire the subjects reported to use, the subjects will be categorized, as ‘bottom-up’ and ‘top-down’ strategy users.

Besides the above-strategy frequency differences, there were similarities between the high and low-level subjects in two of the strategies they reported. The subjects at both levels reported the following two strategies: “Reading again for better understanding and Reading slowly and carefully” in identical places in the frequency (i.e., high usage).

In strategy type, the comparisons above have shown that the high-level subjects appeared to be using more problem-solving strategies more frequently than did the low-level subjects. Furthermore, the high-level subjects seemed to have controlled or regulated their strategy use more frequently than did the low-level subjects. It is important to emphasize that the high-level

subjects had high reading comprehension scores compared to the low-level subjects. Although the comparisons of the ranks of the strategies above are useful in showing strategy prioritization between the two levels, they do not show specifically whether each level chose an appropriate strategy more frequently than other strategies.

In the type of strategy groups, three strategies and seven strategies out of ten preferred most by high achievers fall under the category of GLOB and PROB with mean score >3.5 which is in high usage respectively. Whereas the ten reading strategies were reported to be used most by low achievers with different degrees. That is, while only two PROB strategies and one SUP reading strategy fell in high usage, three SUP strategies, three PROB strategies and one GLOB reading strategy fell in medium usage.

Table 5. 9: Strategies Least Used by High and Low Achievers

High Achievers=30			Low Achievers=30		
Strategy Type	Mean	SD	Strategy Type	Mean	SD
SUP5 Reading aloud for better understanding	1.97	0.85	GLOB1 Setting purpose for reading	1.27	0.45
SUP29 Translating into native language while reading	2	1.02	GLOB3 Adopting prior knowledge	1.37	0.56
GLOB20 Using typographical features	3.37	0.8	GLOB21 Analyzing and evaluating what is read	1.4	0.56
SUP30 Thinking of information in both languages	3.47	0.82	SUP30 Thinking of information in both languages	1.53	0.68
GLOB8 Skimming through text characteristics	3.57	0.57	GLOB17 Using context clues	1.6	0.67

In the table above, it is evident that successful readers reportedly used the five least effective strategies. Among these, “Reading aloud for better understanding” received the least amount of favor. This suggests that high achievers consider the tactic as it has no bearing on their academic reading.

When examining the high achievers' report of least strategy use in light of category and frequency level, it was discovered that "Reading aloud and translating" fall under the category of support reading strategy with low usage. The strategies "Using typographical features" and "Thinking of information in both languages" fall under the category of GLOB and SUP respectively with medium usage. Only one strategy, "Skimming through text characteristics" which pertain to the category of GLOB fall under high usage in terms of frequency.

On the other hand, underachievers asserted that "Setting purpose for reading" was their least favorite activity. With the exception of the support reading strategy "Thinking of information in both languages," all other reading strategies least preferred by low achievers are grouped under GLOB. Moreover, all five of the least preferred reading strategies are used infrequently (low usage). This suggests that those who perform poorly do not have much knowledge of these reading techniques.

The five reading strategies least frequently employed by successful readers were, in ascending order, Reading aloud, Translating, Using typographical features, Thinking of information in both languages, and Skimming through text characteristics. Similar to high achievers, low achievers reported using the strategies of Setting purpose, Adopting prior knowledge, Analyzing and evaluating, Thinking of information in both languages and Using context clues in that order. These reading strategies were reported to be used less frequently by all the participants and used less than other strategies.

5.2.3. Analysis on the third Research Question

In an effort to respond to the third research question, "i.e., Are there significant differences in reading strategy use between higher and lower reading proficiency students?", an independent samples t-test was executed. Table 5.10 below shows the result of an independent samples t-test.

Table 5.10: Independent Sample T-Test on Significance Difference on Strategy Use by High and Low Achiever Students

Strategies	F	sig	T	DF	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	STD Error Difference
Global	.713	.402	22.732	58	.000	25.8667	1.1379
Problem-solving	1.447	.234	23.648	58	.000	11.8667	.5018
Support	1.702	.197	11.094	58	.000	7.8667	.7091
Total	2.773	.101	8.307	58	.000	1.5080	.1815

Notes: ** $p < .01$ (significant at .01 level)

The results of the t-test displayed in Table 5.10 show the results of Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances, the t value, df, and the p value of each of the three strategy groups. The analysis of the independent t-test was done in two steps. Primarily, the homogeneity of the variance between the high and low achiever participants was determined using Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances. According to Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances, the Sig. value was .101, which was greater than .05. Therefore, it can be assumed that variances were equal. As a result, it was possible to test the significance level between high and low participants’ overall reading strategy use differences using the t-test row of results “Equal Variances Assumed” in the table. It provided the *t* value ($t=8.307$) and the degrees of freedom ($df=58$). From the table above, it was also observed that the significance was .000, which is lower than .01. Consequently, it can be concluded that the difference in overall reading strategy use of high and low achiever was significant, which indicated the findings showing that high achievers were more strategy users ($M=3.93$) than low achievers ($M=2.41$) was statistically significant. These differences were all significant below the 0.01 probability level (i.e. $P<0.01$).

Regarding result of independent sample T-tests for high and low achieving Participants on the three reading strategy categories, the table revealed that the statistical significance value of problem-solving reading strategies is below the p-value cutoff for significance ($0.000<0.01$). It can be inferred from this that students who achieve well and those who do not differ significantly

in how they approach solving problems. Put differently, individuals who perform well do employ these tactics more frequently. It follows that there could be a connection between students' reading achievement and their use of problem-solving techniques. This is due to the fact that high achievers and more successful students not only employ these tactics more frequently than low achievers do, but they also do so in a way that is noticeably different. Therefore, the effective learner (high achievers, “more Frequently” use problem-solving strategies to tackle their reading comprehension problems than their counterparts.

With respect to either the use of global or support reading strategies, the statistically significant value is 0.000, indicating that the value is less than the significance p-value of $0.000 < 0.01$. This suggests that students who perform well and those who do not in reading test show a considerable difference in their application of these two types of reading strategies. As high achiever students practice global and support reading strategies more frequently than low achievers, it follows that there is a relationship between their reading achievement and the use of these strategies.

Summing up, as analyzed in the independent samples test table, there is significant difference between high and low achiever students on employing three main reading strategy categories (i.e., global, problem-solving and support reading strategies). The implication is that there is a relationship between reading strategies use and reading performance. That is, high achievers frequently adopt many more and a wide range of reading strategies than low achievers. Hence, the two groups are different both in type and number of strategies they utilized in the process of academic reading.

However, knowing that the relationship is significant does not tell us whether the effect is strong or weak. Therefore, in addition to T-test, it is necessary to calculate an effect size. An effect size measures used in connection with the t-test is called Cohen's d. The formula for this effect size is as follows:

$d = (\text{Mean for group A} - \text{Mean for group B}) / \text{Pooled standard deviation}$ where the Pooled standard deviation = $(\text{Standard deviation of group 1} + \text{Standard deviation of group 2}) / 2$.

As presented in the group statistics table, the mean for high achievers of the study is 3.93. The mean for the low achievers, is 2.41. The standard deviations are 1.086 and 1.022 of high and low

achievers respectively. Pooled standard deviation = $(1.086+1.022)/ 2 = 1.054$. The computed result is that $D = (3.93 - 2.41) / 1.054 = 1.442$. So, the effect size is 1.442. This means that there is a strong relationship between reading strategy use and reading achievement among the samples of the present study.

5.2.4. Analysis on the Fourth Research Question

The purpose of the fourth research question was to find “To what extent do reading strategies predict students’ performance in the reading comprehension test?” This question sought to determine whether global, problem-solving or support reading strategies have the ability to predict the participants’ level of comprehension. The three types of reading strategies were the independent variables (predictors) while reading comprehension score represented the dependent variables. To analyze the regressions among the variables, the current study used the Hierarchical Multiple Regression on SPSS software that revealed the results of the analysis as shown in Table below. The table also helps to find whether there is significant relationship between students’ reading strategy use and their reading achievement in general. In attaining the above goal, analysis on the data obtained from samples of the study was made by running a Pearson Product Moment correlation.

Primarily, in the following table, the result presents whether there is a positive or negative relationship between participants’ reading strategy use and their reading achievement in general. The correlation coefficient is provided under the column (r) sign and the significance value is presented under the column p-value. Under R-square and adjusted r column, r^2 and adjusted r values are provided.

Table 5.11: The Value of the GLOB, PROB and SUP Strategies toward Reading Achievement

strategies	r	p	R square	Adjusted r	Standard error
GLOB	0.945	.000	0.89	0.88	3.251223
PROB	0.895	.000	0.80	0.79	2.121058
SUP	0.754	.000	0.56	0.56	2.489
Total	.947	.000			

As data in Table 5.11 depicts, Global, problem-solving and support reading strategies and reading comprehension have a correlation coefficient ($r=0.945$, 0.895 and 0.754) respectively with a significance value of 0.00 , which is less than 0.01% . As to the findings, there is a strong correlation between students' reading comprehension level and their use of global, problem-solving and support reading techniques. Directionally, students' reading comprehension scores rise in direct proportion to the amount of time they spend using global, problem-solving or support reading techniques. So that there is a direct relationship. That is, the three variables move in the same direction, for they are positively related. One increases so does the other, and one decreases so does the other. In strength, however, reading achievement and global reading strategy use coefficient point is a little beat greater than the other two. So that the relationship between the reading achievement and their use of global reading strategy is a little bit stronger than the other two. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the higher the value of the global reading strategy categories, the higher the students' reading achievement would be. In other words, if the students applied global reading strategies in reading academic texts, their achievement in reading comprehension would be better. This might have been caused from the students' adequate knowledge of what reading strategies to use, how and when to use them.

In terms of value, the result of global reading strategies revealed that the value of the multiple correlation (R) was 0.945 expressing how well global strategies with reading comprehension score. The value of R (square) = 0.895 means that global reading strategies accounted 0.89% of the variance in the reading comprehension score (The dependent factor).

With regard to the value of problem-solving Strategies, the table revealed, $R = 0.89$, R (square) = 0.80, Adjusted $R = 0.79$. The R (square) was 0.80 which means problem solving strategies accounted (80%) of the variance in the dependent factor. And both global and problem-solving strategies accounted (89 and 80%) respectively of the variance in the reading comprehension score. As a result, global and problem-solving reading strategies were positive predictors of participants' level of reading comprehension. However, global reading strategies had performed over cognitive strategies in predicting the performance in the reading comprehension test.

Regarding the value of support Strategies, the table showed that the R (square) was 0.56 which means support reading strategies accounted (56%) of the variance in the dependent factor. Thus, the results of the adjusted R squares of the support reading strategies showed the modest predictor level of reading proficiency. In other words, it tells us that support reading strategies was not a very good predictor at predicting reading comprehension performance. This implies that there were other predictors which predict reading performance.

As a whole, the adjusted R squares of the two strategies global and problem solving for reading proficiency were superior to support reading strategies. The results of the adjusted R squares of the two reading strategies showed the strong predictor level of reading proficiency. This leads to say that reading strategies were good predictor to reading comprehension, for the result of predicted reading comprehension tests score was more than 56%. It means the three category of reading strategy influenced students' achievement in reading score.

Here, it is worth noting that the analysis of the correlation showed that all of the reading strategy types had been correlated with the students' reading comprehension scores. Although students' general reading test performance and overall reading strategy use was significantly related, a close examination of the strategies reported to be used by high and low achievers at categorical level suggests that some students' category of reading strategies were not positively related to their reading performance. Next is about these data presented in the following tables.

5.2.5. Analysis on the Fifth Research Question

The purpose of the fifth research question is twofold. The first is to identify whether the reading strategy used by high achievers correlates significantly with their reading test scores, and the second is to find out whether the reading strategy used by low achievers correlates significantly with their reading test scores. The following table (Table 5.12) presents the individual category correlation coefficients of strategies to the reading score of high and low achieving subjects.

Table 5.12: The Relation between Various Category of Reading Strategies by High and Low Achievers and their reading scores

Strategy Types	High Achievers=30		Low Achievers=30	
	Pearson correlation	Sig (2-tailed)	Pearson correlation	Sig(2-tailed)
GLOB	.611**	.000	.667**	.000
PROB	.479**	.007	.349	.059
SUP	-.013	.945	.582**	.001
Total	.562	.001	.704	.000

Results in Table 5.12 show that there was statistically significant relationship between the overall reading strategy used by high and low achievers and the total score of the test. That is, high achieving students' reading strategy use were all positively correlated to the test scores ($r=.562$, $p=.001$) which is at 0.01 significance level. Likewise, low achieving students' reading strategy use were all positively correlated to the test scores ($R=.704$ $p=.000$) which is at 0.001 significance level. This indicates that the strategies that students used when taking the test were generally related to the ones that they used when reading academic materials.

Nonetheless, the two groups vary in strength. According to Evans (1996) suggested guide, any correlation coefficient found in between (0.40 - 0.59) can be interpreted as moderate. And any correlation coefficient found in between (0.60 - 0.79) is strong. Thus, when we looked the

correlation coefficient of high achievers ($r=.562$), it fell in between (0.40 - 0.59). So that the correlation coefficient is moderate whereas the correlation coefficient of low achievers ($R=.704$) which fell in between (0.60 - 0.79) is strong. The implication is that the reading strategies that the participants of the study employed to take the test may be similar to the ones they utilized to read the textbook passages or other school related materials.

As far as each of the three categories of reading strategies is concerned, various correlation coefficient values were observed. For instance, there is correlation of significance between using GLOB strategies by high and low achiever and reading comprehension scores. As the results in Table 5.12 show, high achieving students' use of GLOB were significantly correlated to their scores (GLOB: $r=.611$, $p=.000$). Similarly, low achieving students' use of GLOB were also significantly correlated to their scores (GLOB: $r=.667$, $p=.000$). The significance value of (0.00) for each proficiency level is less than (0.001). The conclusion is that there is a strong correlation between students' comprehension level and their use of global reading strategies. In other words, students' reading comprehension improves in proportion to their usage of global reading strategies. In strength, however, unsuccessful students reading achievement and their global reading strategy use coefficient point is slightly greater than high achieving students. So that the relationship between reading performance and global reading strategy used by low achievers is stronger than the high achievers.

In the category of PROB, there is a variation between correlation of significance between using PROB strategies by high and low achievers and reading comprehension scores. High achieving students' use of PROB were significantly correlated to their scores (PROB: $r=.479$, $p=.007$) whereas low achieving students' use of PROB were not significantly correlated to their scores (PROB: $r=.349$, $p=.059$). This result shows that there is a positive, moderate relationship between high achieving students' use of problem-solving reading strategies and their comprehension level. The more the problem-solving reading strategies high achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores increases or vice versa. So that there is a direct relationship. Nonetheless, there is a positive but weak relationship between low achieving students' use of problem-solving reading strategies and their reading comprehension scores. To put in a nutshell, the two groups' correlation coefficient in the category of PROB also exhibit

difference in strength. That is, while high achievers' correlation coefficient is moderate, low achievers' "r" is weak.

In relation to the category of SUP, there is a difference correlation of significance between using SUP reading strategies by high and low achievers and reading comprehension scores. High achieving students' use of SUP strategies were not significantly correlated to their reading test scores (SUP: $r=-.013$, $p=.945$). This finding is meant that there is a negative relationship between high achieving students' use of support reading strategies and their reading test scores. The more the support reading strategies high achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores decreases. So that there is an indirect relationship between high achieving students' support reading strategy use and their reading scores. On the contrary, low achieving students' use of SUP were significantly correlated to their scores (SUP: $r=.582$, $p=.001$). This result means that there is a positive relationship between low achieving students' use of support reading strategies and their reading comprehension scores. The more the support reading strategies low achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores increases. So that there is a direct relationship between low achieving students' support reading strategy use and their reading scores.

Furthermore, the high and low achievers' correlation coefficient in the category of SUP strategy also exhibit difference in strength. That is, while high achievers' correlation coefficient is very weak in strength, low achievers' "r" is moderate.

From this, one can deduce that even though different students may be using different reading strategies when they read academic materials, their use of certain academic reading strategies may not uniformly help them better understand the reading passages on the test. This is because for some, there is a possibility of using strategies effectively which in turn helped them perform better on the reading comprehension test.

5.3. Qualitative Data Analyses and Findings

This section is devoted to the presentation of data that were collected through open-ended question of the SORS questionnaire as well as interviews with selected students. The data gathered through open-ended question assisted to completely answer the first and second

research question while the responses of the interview were used to respond the sixth research question. A detail about each follows.

5.3.1. Analyses and Findings of Open-ended Question of the SORS

In this section, qualitative analyses were made on students' responses to the open-ended question of the SORS. Through the coding technique mentioned in Chapter three, the responses of the participant students to the SORS open-ended question were grouped into subcategories. The results show that although some participants mentioned using reading strategies akin to those found in the SORS, other students provided information about their own reading strategies. In contrast to the SORS questionnaire, which did not specify global or metacognitive reading strategies, some respondents reported using a lot of problem-solving or cognitive strategies. The most common reading strategies mentioned by many respondents were problem-solving or cognitive reading techniques. This was followed by support and global reading strategy category. An inspection into these strategies leads to say that the suggested strategies do have some ties with ways of reading of the participants. Thus, specific strategies, not specified in the SORS, and which high and low achieving respondents suggested are presented as follows.

The most frequently mentioned specific problem-solving or cognitive reading strategy suggested by four high achieving students was "Reading English newspapers to develop vocabulary capacity". Following this, one support reading strategy namely, Reading the e-mail messages of friends and foreigners and three other problem-solving strategies namely Reading manuals or instructions of equipment, recipes, prescriptions of tablets, Browsing internet to develop reading skills and Reading academic short stories and fables to learn about English culture each of which were also suggested by three various high achieving respondents.

On the other hand, the most frequently suggested strategies by different four low achieving respondents were reading the subtitles while watching English TV programs, movies, films to better speed (problem-solving), Using notebooks to memorize meaning of words and messages or points of the text (Support) and Reading the social media posts and communicating with people through social media in English (Global). The next four strategies: Using reading to practice pronouncing difficult English words, Reading some difficult words using dictionary, and Using Google translator to remove word meaning difficulty (Support), and Checking for

messages on mobile phones (Global), each of which was mentioned by three low achieving students. Moreover, respondents from the two groups included global strategies such as Using English grammar knowledge to comprehend reading texts, Chunking long sentences into smaller ones. Some other students also included various supporting reading strategies.

Moreover, while seeing the comparison of suggested strategies of the groups, it gives the following results. While high achievers suggested problem-solving or cognitive reading strategy such as “Reading English newspapers to develop vocabulary capacity” as their most frequently mentioned specific reading strategy, low achievers suggested Support reading strategy such as “Using notebooks to memorize meaning of words and messages or points of the text”. This difference might have emanated from their reading habits they developed over long period of time. That is, high achievers tend to yielding top-down reading strategies; low achievers incline to forward bottom-up strategies. (A complete account of the participants’ responses to the open-ended question of the SORS appears in Appendix G).

5.3.2. Students’ Interview Data Analyses and Findings

The use of FL reading strategies by students with high and low reading achievement in academic reading was the subject of the sixth research question. To address this question, the analyses and findings of the data gathered from 12 (six high achievers and six low achievers) are presented. In order to facilitate analyses and to maintain privacy and confidentiality, participants are coded from S1 to S12. Thus, these codes are applied throughout. Each interview was conducted entirely in Amharic. The English translation, however, was provided. The gist of each interview question is used as heading in the ensuing analysis.

A) Students’ Interest of Academic Reading in English

This interview question seeks to learn more about students' reading interests and the factors that contributed to those interests. All of the high achiever interviewees consistently stated that they enjoy reading in English in their responses. However, they had different motivations for liking to read.

As evident from their responses, the high achiever interviewees S1, S3, S4 and S6 enjoy reading, for they believe that reading helps them for their overall English language success. As to how reading is important for the development of English language, S1 explicated that reading is a device for improving a learner's linguistic proficiency “because it enhances writing, broadens vocabulary, teaches grammar, and helps with pronunciation when reading aloud. So, in my opinion, reading is a fundamental skill that is crucial to the development of English language proficiency. I like to read so”.

S1, S3 and S4 also enjoy reading because they believe that it serves as a communication instrument. S3 for instance Elucidate this “Reading correspondence from foreigners on a regular basis helps me build communication with them and improves my ability to understand written English messages”.

Others S2 and S5 regard reading as their passion. That is, they cannot pass their most time without reading. Moreover, reading is an interesting skill to S5 because he believes that he could improve his cognition. Similarly, to S2, it stimulates his thinking. Due to this reason, both of them enjoy reading.

On the other hand, low achiever interviewees S7, S9 and S12 enjoy reading, for they believe that it mainly helps them to pass the exam. The belief might have emanated from the ongoing test practice in the university. These days, most language teaching in the university is exam oriented which made students particularly unsuccessful ones to think reading used only for passing exams. Therefore, although They read during the exam seasons alone, they often gain at least a passing grade. The reason is that as S7 said, “most of the time, the examinations are emphasizing on content” which students can memorize and use for answering queries. This indicates that as S9 expressed, students prepare themselves based on the style of examination which is not motivating students to read a lot and have interest in it. S9 also enjoy reading sometimes, for she believes that a person who reads well can gain lots of knowledge, get a degree and find a better job.

Other low achiever interviewees S8, S10 and S11 expressed that they do not enjoy reading in English because of the current unfavorable conditions of the social, economic and political conditions. S8, for instance abhors reading taking into account the place it has in the society. In

his response, he said, “I don’t see people buying books and engage in reading to develop their knowledge, skills and attitudes. I don’t have any to emulate. This discourages me to read written materials”. Another low achiever S10 detest reading because the country is in series turmoil. S11 also indicates the corruption rate the country in which in turn urge students to overlook the importance of reading. He exactly said, “many people try to get wealth in short cut without hard work. Reading in English is a tedious act the reward of which is very little. So, we students do not give credit for reading”

However, the researcher is of the opinion that these cannot be taken as valid justifications and are instead signs of reluctance to reading, which frequently leads to a dislike of reading. This is said because, although the high achievers are residing in the same situations, they did not express these situations as constraints to their reading interest. Moreover, even though the groups explained it in different ways, one thing seemed clear. That is, their interest to read in English was directly related to their reading performance. That is, participants with higher reading proficiency level seem to enjoy reading in English, for they believed that it helps them for their future success. In contrast, those students who were poor at their reading performance were not interested to read in English. Consequently, it is worth noting that students with little understanding of reading texts cannot enjoy reading. And learners with little interest to reading are not anticipated to be successful in their strategy use.

B) Views about the Relevance of the Reading Skills for Academic Success

When the twelve participants in the interview were asked to disclose their consciousness about the role of reading skills in enhancing their academic performance, each interviewee acknowledged the importance of English reading skills for their success in subsequent courses and how they could improve their academic performance. However, they had different opinions about how important English reading abilities were to their academic performance.

The high achiever interviewees, S1, S2, S3, S4 and S5 expressed their beliefs that the knowledge and skills they got from using reading skills helped them to understand other course reference materials. In connection to this, particularly S1 stated:

Almost all of our professors offer us modules or reading materials to use as references because we are university students. We must possess strong reading abilities and be active and effective readers if we are to comprehend the reading materials and arm ourselves with crucial knowledge. Therefore, the skill of reading plays a significant role in improving our academic performance.

In different wording S2 expressed the above point, “reading is an indispensable skill to all courses. Unless we use English reading skills, it is very difficult even to understand the main ideas of the given lecture notes of various courses. This situation has a grave impact on the students’ overall performance”. He went on saying that reading skills help readers to develop their cognitive competence which in one way or another affects students’ academic performance.

S3 also observed the relevance of reading skills in connection with the exposure it created to English language. In line with this, she said, “when students read literary works written by foreign authors, they can easily familiarize themselves with their culture”. As to her, familiarizing oneself with foreign culture often results in reading comprehension success. This may be particularly true in an EFL context like Ethiopia where there is little exposure to English language.

S6 sees the query in light of the opportunities reading creates to integrate with other language skills. So, he stated:

First and foremost, being able to read well enables us to learn a wide range of information about the target language. Second, it gives us a great opportunity to read a variety of English-language materials. Thirdly, it assists us in understanding how to read texts. These abilities can therefore be applied to other courses. Our academic success may greatly benefit from these transferred skills. As a result, reading comprehension is essential for our continued success in school.

However, the role of the reading skill, for low achievers, to S9 and S11 in particular, is to obtain knowledge about the target language. Yet, to S7, S10 and S12, the role is to possess much knowledge in different areas via reading various materials. This in turn helps them become successful in their overall academic performance.

Moreover, S8 on his part acknowledged in his response that learning English in an EFL environment limits opportunities to speak English and encounter input in the native tongue. In order to lessen this pitfall, the role of reading skill, as to S8 suggestion, is invaluable, for reading skills allow readers to actively read a variety of written texts as a source of language input.

From the responses given, it was found that knowledge and skills students got from reading helped them to understand academic texts in other courses. In other words, students who have gained strong reading skills have a key opportunity to support learning and success in other subject areas as well. Failing to comprehend English text causes them to struggle with other subjects. One cannot imagine any skilled work that does not require the ability to read in a country where English is considered a foreign language. Students must therefore understand the vertical and horizontal relationships between the various disciplines they study. It was also learnt that students are all aware of the importance of reading in expanding their language knowledge and achievements and familiarizing them to foreign culture. Both group members, even those who said before, in question one, that they do not like reading, think that it is an instrument to develop their general language knowledge, for reading, as the input process helps students to strengthen as a basis for learning speaking and writing which are the output process. They also think that reading in English is an important tool for them to see a bigger world out of their horizon and to understand other cultures beyond their country. In other words, reading exposes them to different cultures, broadens their tastes and interests, and helps them understand other people, all of which improve their language proficiency.

The above responses indicate that the two groups exhibited the probability of the instrumental and integrative motivation of reading in English language. More specifically, low proficiency students seem to have instrumental motivation while high proficiency students seem to have integrative motivation. However, the motivation of low achievers is not reflecting the reality on the ground. That is, their existing reading performance led to say that low achievers know the role of reading skills, but they were not able to exploit its contribution for their comprehension success.

C) Challenges in Reading Academic Materials

Both high and low achiever interviewees were asked to detect the problems that cause their reading deficits. They uniformly stated that their poor language ability seriously hinders their reading comprehension. The reasons why they become poor in their language competence were, however, differently mentioned by the members of the two groups.

Two of the high achiever interviewees S2 and S6 mentioned that they lack commitment to improve their English language performance. S2 forwarded his reason, “Even in the university, many students do not have any form of commitment to enhance their English in their own interest. They don’t study English just like other courses. This might have happened as a result of having lost hope in getting good grades”. Others S5 and S6 in the same group relate students’ poor language performance to the way the educational institutions try to manage the attrition rate of students. As to S6, the issue of attrition rate is not properly treated, which negatively affects the value of hard work in the teaching and learning process. His ensuing comment illustrates this well:

Students are becoming convinced that effort is not necessary to achieve passing grades due to educational institutions' desire to reduce attrition rates to zero. Due to this policy protection, students are evaluated in a subpar manner. Because they lack language proficiency and are simply promoted from one level to another, this situation produces a large number of students who do not deserve the grades they receive. Many of the students it produces also dislike doing rigorous coursework in their particular field.

On the other hand, low achiever interviewees relate their low language proficiency to the experience they went through. S9, S11 and S12 expressed that in their grade school, they were not paying due attention to English language. And they did not have any effort to make reading their habit. One of them, S9 said, “This limited practice to English reading in earlier grades was, perhaps, one of the impediments for my poor performance in English language test given in the university”. As a result, they bring little to the demand of university, which constitutes a severe harm on their current academic reading comprehension.

From the responses given, it appears that one thing is apparent. That is, even though the degree of difficulty differed among the groups, the main issues or difficulties they faced seemed to be comparable. As a result, the majority of university students have low language proficiency, which may be related to their inadequate language training in elementary and secondary education, lack of commitment to study English and promotion policy. In any case, the degree of language deficiency, as reported, is, however, grave to low achiever students. This deficiency, as low achievers explain, obstructs them from reading and understanding books, magazines, newspapers... As a result, many of them even currently become very poor in their overall language performance in general and reading in particular. This link between language proficiency and reading success, which many researchers also claim, may have some relevance to the idea that enhancing students' overall language skills increases the possibility that they will comprehend the words they face in written text.

Another major challenge the two groups reported was a little awareness of reading strategies and inadequate ability of applying them in various context. In connection with this, all the high achievers confirmed that they have some awareness about reading strategies, but their knowledge of how to use them is not satisfactory. However, they each described the challenge it poses to their academic reading in slightly different ways. One of them, S5 said "although I knew about reading strategies, I am not effective in employing them in my reading". The other, S6 asserted that he has some awareness about reading strategies, but he tries them only when doing reading comprehension test. And his partner, S1 reflected that he has little awareness about strategies. So, he is relying exclusively on his linguistic knowledge.

Nonetheless, half of the low achiever interviewees are neither aware of reading strategies nor apply them in academic reading. And half of them do have a little awareness about reading strategies. Although S7 and S12 knew the importance of reading strategies, in converting this to practical knowledge, they have some limitation. As they admitted that in order to comprehend the meaning of a sentence/paragraph or the gist of a reading passage, they need a great deal of time. This is because they do not know how to make use of reading strategies whenever necessary. Similarly, S8 expressed, "Even though universities expect their students to read a lot, my reading is not up to par. This may be as a result of my inability to simplify my reading".

The reply of S9 that specifically focuses on how to utilize background knowledge in facilitating reading comprehension depicts the issue well. She reflected as she knows the importance of prior knowledge to comprehend the text, but she is very poor in creating link between the background and the topic she reads. She further stated that though She heard the availability of many reading skills in English, she is certain about few of them. This, as she affirms, might have some contribution for her poor reading comprehension.

Some other underachievers are aware of reading strategies, but they are unsure of the results they will produce when they are used with academic reading. Statements made by S11 elaborates this well, "I know what the meaning of guessing strategy is, but I don't want to make use of it in my reading because I believe that guessing does not take me to the right meaning of words".

As it is evidenced from the responses of some interviewees, it seems clear that both groups lack awareness of reading strategies and how to apply them in academic reading. The degree of intensity of the challenge is, however, on the side of low achieving students. That is, the awareness level of the high achievers is moderate while the awareness of their counterparts is below expected. As a result of this issue, many of them make the mistake of trying to solve comprehension problems using their linguistic expertise, which is a bad habit given that students would struggle greatly with lengthy texts or texts that contain numerous terminologies.

The third challenge the two groups uniformly stated was linguistic and length related. All except S5 of the high achievers reported that some academic materials they read are difficult to comprehend owing to difficulty of vocabulary, complicated grammatical structure and lengthy text. In his response, S2 uttered, "the occurrence of many complicated vocabularies in a text, and the presence of complicated grammar make my reading comprehension difficult." Similarly, S4 said, the most serious challenge he encountered during reading was difficulty to understand the long sentence with complicated structure and complex ideas contained in the text.

Learners' linguistic and length related challenges while reading academic materials are, however, grave to low achievers. One of them, S8 testifies this saying, "whenever I read module or any reference materials, the way language structures are arranged or organized and the availability of many unfamiliar words in the text makes my reading comprehension very difficult". Another response that shows the seriousness of the challenge was made by S12 who

said that most words he encounters in academic reading are new to him. So, he is unable to comprehend written materials often. Additionally, scant vocabulary knowledge of readers leads others to fear reading prior to their reading. S9 for instance said that when she wants to read any academic materials, what comes to her mind is the number of unknown words and structures comprised in the academic materials.

These replies depict that there is an extensive variation between the groups in their grammar and vocabulary knowledge. That is, while many simple words and plain structures appear in the text constitute comprehension difficulty to low achievers, only complicated grammar and complex vocabulary cause text understanding deficit to high achievers.

The fourth challenge that S3, among high achievers exceptionally reported, was text unfamiliarity. She regarded this challenge as her serious trouble of the academic reading. This pitfall is, however, common among low achievers. One of them, S8 mentioned, “Several topics of various academic texts, which I usually come across to read, are not familiar to me because of the existing clash or difference between the English culture and the Ethiopian culture”.

This is not a convincing argument, though, as everyone has the opportunity to become aware of other cultures due to globalization. In real sense, many texts' contents are unknown to low-achieving students, indicating that the texts' contents do not correspond to their prior knowledge. This, as many researchers, is not, however, of no use. The advantage of unfamiliarity is that as the message of the reading text become less familiar, demands to infer for meaning increase.

Likewise, there were some challenges that pertain to exclusively low achievers alone. These are considering academic reading as difficult task, lack of concentration, the use of translation and low speed. For instance, considering academic reading as difficult work one is a peculiar challenge that all underachievers share. This factor can be deduced from one of S12's ideas, in which he stated that while academic reading, it takes time to interpret the given text deeply because it is written in a second language and that it requires a good deal of prior knowledge to become familiar with the concept entertained in the materials. Regarding concentration loss, another group member S7 explicated that he poorly concentrates during academic reading. Consequently, he misses the main idea of the text. He also adds “when I read something in English, I often think in my native language. So, when I lose translation of meaning, it weakens

my motivation in that reading”. In relation to speed, S9 expounded that even to read a short paragraph, it took her long time.

It is clear from the interview data above that the participants had a range of reading challenges. Higher proficiency participants believed that reading in general and academic reading in particular are challenging skills to learn. Conversely, individuals with limited proficiency in the language discovered that in all facets of the English reading process, including the use of reading strategy, it is very difficult to master it. This implies that, even though the degree of difficulty varied from student to student, the main issues or challenges the subjects faced appeared to be similar. Additionally, various groups discussed some minor issues with reading academic materials. Finally, the analysis in this section was primarily made to support the idea that understanding a problem is the first step toward solving it.

D) Strategies Employed to Learn or Improve English Reading Skills

Both groups are interested in studying new words and increase their vocabulary power. They, however, used various techniques to attain. The high achievers S1, S3, S4 and S5 attempted to study new words that appear in the text via context. The rationale to use this strategy provided by one of them S4 is:

Since I started college, I've come to realize that learning new words in memorization is not the best way to overcome a lack of vocabulary because memorization without comprehension of the words' usage or meaning did not help me retain words for a long time. I make an effort to research new words I come across in my reading.

Additionally, the high achiever interviewees expressed that after they attempt to find the meaning of new word using various contextual clues and other techniques, they inquire their teacher or someone to provide them right meaning of the word in question. Afterward, they study them. This implies that skilled readers do not employ strategies in isolation; they usually adopt a number of strategies at the same time. On the contrary, by learning words orally from wherever they are acquired, all low achievers increase their vocabulary power. They do this because they consistently think that learning words by heart is the best way to make up for their vocabulary deficiencies. For instance, S11 claimed that he studied and committed to memory words that he

learned from an English text. S7 adds by saying he has a list of strange words he came across while reading. He always tried to learn them by heart. This indicates that less skilled readers employ strategies in isolation.

Many LLS researchers, however, contend that in order for students to effectively use memory strategies like memorization, they must be connected to meaningful content. Otherwise, learning words through rote memorization may not result in successful word acquisition.

The high achieving students also describe the type of reading materials they like to use to enhance their reading skills. They stated that they frequently read academic texts. One of them, S2, typically attempted to read everything that came his way in both soft and hard copies, as well as to review the reading assignments from the class and his lecture notes. S3 stated that she frequently made an effort to involve herself in reading various academic materials.

However, almost all underachiever interviewees claimed that reading texts produced by technology, such as internet displays, face books, and other sources, helped them become better readers. This was clarified by comments made by S10, who said that in reality, he uses screen displays of TV, mobile, and social media as reading materials. He views this as his reading in order to practice and develop his reading skills in this manner. Similar to this, S9 claimed that she regularly watches English movies and practices her reading skills by reading the dialogue and other material that is shown.

Text reading on a mobile device actually happens everywhere, at any time, and in every aspect of life. As so many people always carry around mobile devices, like personal smart phones, these devices are indispensable for learning because they can be used anywhere, at any time, for educational purposes. This opportunity was perhaps exploited by successful learners and used to enhance their reading comprehension. Currently, research results proved that the students who interacted with their application on mobile phones comprehended more reading texts.

The low achievers, on the other hand, read through mobile devices, but they did so passively. It is clear that reading in general and academic reading in particular require conscious attention and active engagement. The goal of reading is not easily met for students who primarily rely on

mobile devices, social media, television, or movies as reading aids, as this can lead to attention problems.

The other variation between the two groups relates to how they are enhancing their use of reading strategies. High achievers recommend practicing some important reading strategies. S2, for example said:

I frequently put the necessary reading techniques to use so that I can understand written text. For instance, I make an effort to understand the written text by drawing on my personal experiences with or knowledge of the subject. As a result, I was able to create a set of reading techniques that complemented my unique learning style.

Similarly, S4 believes that reading requires much practice. He tries to read modules and other reading materials using some important reading strategies He knows. He went on saying, “I know practicing 30 minutes a day every day is better than studying 12 hours once in a while”.

The high achiever interviewees also read the passage, put the book down, and then rewrite it to make sure they understood it. And they occasionally go outside to share what they are reading with someone. One of them, S5 for instance said, “I read and close the book and rewrite what I was reading to check my understanding. Sometimes, I spell out what I am reading. Sometimes I go out to explain to someone what I am reading”.

Nonetheless, low achiever interviewees claim that the technique they use to comprehend what they read and thereby improve their reading were reading again and reading aloud. S11 and S9 indicated that they use rereading as the only reading strategy to simplify their reading comprehension difficulty. While S11 repeatedly tries to read things until he thinks he understands them. Rereading was used by S9 to reduce the concentration issue and ensure that they didn't miss the main theme. She went on to say that she should read a text twice or three times in order to catch anything she missed the first time around. Others, S8 utilized reading aloud as a strategy. He said, “I try to read aloud to my colleagues to minimize anxiety related problems in learning reading skills”.

It is important to highlight from the data that participants with high proficiency levels demonstrated independent learning techniques. Stated differently, they appear to be learning English in a different way than low proficiency participants, who merely adopted or imitated the learning techniques of their peers. Moreover, the responses provided revealed that the two groups used various reading techniques to improve their reading comprehension. The low achievers usually use similar strategies: reading to displays in the movies, TV, and social media. All these strategies fall under Oxford's cognitive reading strategies or under Sheorey and Mokhtari's problem-solving reading strategies. Hence, They used cognitive strategies to learn and/or/ improve their English reading skills. Moreover, only a small percentage of respondents of low achievers were found to be using some methods to improve their reading. It was also discovered that underachievers must decide to alter their previous learning behaviors and receive support in order to overcome their shortcomings and develop their own reading strategies. Additionally, it was discovered that the learner's deliberate choice and application of the proper strategy to a particular reading task is important because it can distinguish between successful and unsuccessful learners.

E) Students' Approach to Read Academic Materials and their Reasons

All of the interviewees suggested that they adhere to a certain approach. That is, all but one of the high achievers inclined to both top down and interactive approaches. S1, S3 and S6 approached written texts in top-down method. This could be discovered from their wording. S1, for instance stated:

Usually, I don't want to read every single sentence in a passage in its entirety. I prefer to emphasize the passage's main point instead. As soon as I see the topic I need to read, I make an effort to remember every idea associated with it. I read in this manner because it helps me understand what I'm reading.

Similarly, S3 reported that she frequently tries to get the big picture or the gist of the passage while reading. For her, reading entails understanding the main point. In addition, S6 said that in order to fully understand the text he is reading, he always gives the subject he is reading some thought and draws on relevant experiences from his own life.

Others, S2 and S5 tended to approach academic reading text in the interactive method. In his response, S2 explicated his way of reading as an approach where he often practices to be good at discrete level like identifying letters, words, associating with them meaning as well as obtaining the central theme of the passage. This, as he said, makes him equally skillful in both word processing and constructing meaning of the written text, which promoted his reading process from being slow compression to being fast and satisfactory. Likewise, S5 expressed that he is interested in having a good clarity in the meaning of words and sentences and the overall comprehension of the text. For this to be true, he always practices in his reading.

Among successful readers, only S4 favored to bottom-up approach. This was said because it was discovered from his assertion that his reading speed is very slow. Hence, he often reads word by word instead of focusing the overall idea of the passage he reads.

Quite the opposite, five of the low achiever interviewees elaborated that they typically rely on sentence meaning when reading, as opposed to trying to understand the main idea. They admitted that they had a serious difficulty understanding the context of words. Thus, they claim to read word by word. They are technically referred as bottom-up approach followers. Readers who approach their written texts this way, as S12 said, “restrict themselves to making meaning from forming morphemes, word recognition and then moving to grammatical structure identification and sentences in isolation”. While replying how he reads, S8 said that he often reads line by line or phrase by phrase. If he does not get the meaning of the sentence, phrase or a word, he does not have a habit of skipping. Rather, he sticks to there until he is clear with sentence or word at hand. Correspondingly this, S11 expounded that he likes to read the passage in detail, focusing on word and sentence meanings, sentence structure, list of items or factors, and word pronunciation. He also reads the text soundly. He points with his finger at the words while he reads the text. This is to avoid reading from the wrong line and to stay focused. The response from S7 provides a clear illustration of the reading strategy in question. In his reading: First, he identifies every small unit such as letters in the text, builds up words into sentences and sentences into text, Meaning is gained on each phase along the process in isolation. So, he reads word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item until he finishes reading. Thus, as he admits, he strictly adheres to the details.

As opposed to her partners, S9 stated that she always read to get the central theme of the passage and does not want to spend her time on details or on points that do not have a direct link with the central idea of the passage. She went on saying “I usually use skimming technique to meet this objective. When I read any text this way, I understand it. Nevertheless, after a while I could not remember the idea”. This reply, however, denotes an important problem. That is, the subject appears unaware of whether she utilizes the strategy to understand or to remember.

As it is evident from the replies of interviewees, each group adheres to a certain approach. To low achievers, reading is meant the process of identification of letters, words and sentences and construct meaning out of it. And readers are those who comprehend language by examining the grammatical features of the most fundamental language structures or the meanings of individual words. Therefore, in order to achieve comprehension (the top), they must use bottom-up reading strategies, which start with letter-sound correspondences (the bottom). As they have the wrong understanding of what reading is, they do not read to comprehend the writer's message. This might have some contribution for their failure in reading comprehension. To high achievers, however, reading is getting the meaning from what is being read as a whole. And the readers are not passive recipient rather they bring their experience to the text they are reading. Therefore, they use top-down strategies such as activating background information to predict the meaning of language they are going to read.

F) Strategies Employed Before Reading

When asked what they do before reading, the interviewees expressed the use a variety of reading strategies, or what Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002) refer them as global reading strategies. Accordingly, all but one of the high achievers invariably responded that they use strategies to ascertain whether their reading is for purpose. They repeatedly uttered terms such as looking at the title, skimming and scanning key words and checking whether the reading material is meaningful. One of them S6 said, “prior to my reading, I like to check whether the reading material is meaningful to me or not”. Additionally, the high achievers stated that they are determined to follow through on their own plan to read a specific academic text. For instance, S2 states that when he sits down to read academic materials and sets an objective to understand further what he learnt in class, he doesn't pause his reading and leave until he has met his goal.

The reason to utilize this strategy, as expressed by S1, is to direct reading and be enthusiastic in what they read.

However, only one of the low achiever interviewees, S8 claimed to set purpose prior to their reading. The value of reading is what instigates S8 to determine to read with great enthusiasm. Hence, he said that he mainly reads to pass tests, get a degree or find a good job. So, he frequently employs memorization technique which, he thinks, is important to pass the exam. This rationale to reading is instrumentally motivated which in fact inspires him to determine to read with great enthusiasm. Nonetheless, other low achieving interviewees did not say anything concerning this strategy. The implication is that most of them do not set purpose in their academic reading. Students who rarely establish purpose prior their reading do nothing because they do not know what to do and how to do.

In addition to the above strategy (i.e., setting reading goals), both high and low achiever interviewees gave their opinion on various reading preparation techniques (global reading strategies). Adopting prior knowledge is one of the global reading techniques that high achieving interviewees (S1, S2, S3, S4 and S5) employ in their academic reading. In answering how he does this strategy, S1 said that he often asks himself what he already knew and in answering why he does this strategy, he replied to use his experience or general knowledge to help him comprehend the content of the text. S2 on his part said that he uses teachers' illustration of a character, object, or concept in the text to guess the answer. Another way of activating background knowledge was expressed by S3 saying, "I rate my prior knowledge about the topic on a scale of 0–3, with 0 being no knowledge and 3 representing a strong understanding of the topic".

On the contrary, low achieving interviewees S7 and S9 also stated that they only read when the text is simple or something they are familiar with. They described if they are familiar to the text or if the material is less difficult, they will read. Otherwise, they reject it. S7, for instance said, "prior to my reading, I want to ensure whether the reading material suits me in its linguistic and content difficulty. If it goes with my competence, I start reading. Otherwise, I leave it aside". S8 and S9 also illustrate their knowledge in the form of drawings to activate their prior knowledge. S9 for example said, "I illustrate my knowledge using background, and show several pictures related to the main topic". Others from low achieving, S10 and S11 had trouble reading texts that

required them to draw on prior knowledge. S10 stated, "I read it over, I just keep reading it, and I try to think to see how it's stored in my brain." S11 on his part said he would "just go back and read it again or look that area up (pictures and key words)." Although both approaches were thought to be suitable, neither proved to be sufficient. S10 and S11 both had to keep track of their comprehension while using knowledge from their own experiences to understand a passage. They had to combine their own strategies with others when their original ones failed.

The third global strategy which high achieving interviewees S1, S2, S4 and S5 commented was previewing. They responded that they often preview to see the page or the chapter (how long it is). They employ this strategy to facilitate their understanding while they are doing comprehension activities. S1, for instance, said, "I do not like to read the whole thing. Rather, I preview the headings, illustrations, images of the text and see the page or the chapter (how long it is) before reading." However, only one low achiever, S8 replied to use previewing the text to see what it's about. And he said nothing why he employs the strategy.

The fourth reading strategy forwarded by high achieving interviewees (S4, S5 and S6) was Skimming through text characteristics. They utilize this strategy to better understand what they are going to read. The response of S4 illustrates this well:

I have a habit of seeing the length of the text and how it is organized. Regarding length, I like reading concise materials because I believe that while reading texts written in brief, I can retain or store the information in my memory for long. Concerning organization, I like reading texts that goes from simple to difficult, for it helps me understand the material well.

Similarly, S5 reads depending on the amount of time he has. So, he stated, "If I have time, I will read the whole story, if not, I don't read". This response relates with the length of the text.

In contrast, low achieving interviewees (S7, S10 and S12) reflected that they read the text only when it is not organized in a complicated way. S12, for instance, explains in detail how he utilized this strategy saying:

Prior to my reading, I want to ensure whether the reading material suits me in its linguistic and content organization. I sometimes see the linguistic and the content of the text. When the linguistic as well as content is organized in complicated way. It does not go with my competence. So that I don't want to read the text. Yet, when the text is arranged in simple way, easy to understand, I like to read the text.

Therefore, amid various technique to skim through text characteristics, a sole tactic both groups reported to utilize in their academic reading was seeing the nature of the content organization of the text.

The fifth global strategy which all high achieving students invariably responded was deciding to read closely (to pay more attention) and to ignore (to pay less attention) according to the type of text they read. S3 for example said that depending upon the type of text, she varies her reading. When she just needs to find a specific piece of information, for example historical year or a particular event, she just read it quickly to find this information. But when, for example, she has to read about a complex theory, she decides to read very carefully and more than once.

On the other hand, amongst low achievers, only S9 and S11 are applying this strategy. In her response S9 said, "In my reading, I also attempt to concentrate on those important things". Both S9 and S11 did not mention why they utilize the strategy in question.

Thus, deciding what to read and what to ignore was a strategy about which all high achievers were aware of so were only two of the low achievers.

The sixth global technique was using contextual clues to better understand the text which S1, S2 and S4 from the high achieving interviewees reported as their choice. They were mainly utilizing this strategy to refrain themselves from overuse dictionary or from reliance upon others thereby develop independent reading skill. The description made by S4 explains why they adopted the strategy which states "I frequently employ contextual clues to better my reading comprehension. When I do this, I develop confidence, feel independence". However, none of the low achieving interviewees say anything regarding this strategy. The implication is that they are heavily relying on dictionary or on other supporters to better their understanding of academic texts.

The seventh GLOB technique which S2, S4 and S6 from high achieving interviewees proposed to use in their academic reading was employing titles to predict what the content of the text is about. One of them, S6 stated why he uses the strategy saying, “Usually, I guess the main theme of the content by looking at the title of the text. This motivates me to get deep into the passage”. Similarly, S2 forwarded that while doing comprehension test, he looks at the title first and attempts to comprehend what it is about. Nevertheless, no low achieving interviewee states anything about this strategy. This might have resulted from their ignorance concerning the strategy.

The following three strategies (the eighth, ninth and the tenth) over which many high achiever interviewees said very little were the use of tables, figures, and/or pictures of the text, the use of typographical features like bold face and italics and critically analyzing/evaluating the text. They reported to utilize the first to increase understanding of texts, the second to identify key information and the third to break down and assess the text.

Amongst six high achievers, only two of them, S5 and S6 expressed that they use tables, figures, and/or pictures of the text to increase their understanding. S5 in his response forwarded his reasons as follows: “I have a habit of looking at tables and pictures of the text. I do this to comprehend the text information easily, for it presents me in brief”. Similarly, other two high achiever interviewees (S3 and S4) reflected on the use of typographical features like bold face and italics. They claimed to use this strategy to identify key information, easily get what they need in the text and locate what is there.

On the other hand, out of six low achieving interviewees, four of them (S8, S9, S11 and S12) asserted that they utilized the available tables, figures, and pictures in text as well as the use of typographic aids like boldface and italics to help them understand the text's subject matter before reading it. They adopted these strategies to check if the text is attention-grabbing. This was succinctly illustrated by one of the group members, S8, who said, “I used to check whether the text catches my attention, use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding and use typographical aids like boldface and italics to identify key information”. Similarly, S9 on her part expressed that she wants to read the transferred information and presented in the tables because she believes that doing so helps her to get the message effortlessly.

The result might have come from the approach the two groups follow in reading. Due to the fact that low achievers read words and sentences in texts in isolation, it is very likely for them to utilize the above two strategies which are mostly linked to bottom-up approach.

With regard to critically analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text, exactly only two high achiever interviewees (S3 and S6) expressed in their interview about the strategy in question. S3, for instance, gave her reason why she employed this strategy saying, “I critically analyze the content of the text, title, headings and illustrations to anticipate the content of the reading selection, assess the information conveyed, and thus focus my thinking when reading”. Yet, none of the low achievers had anything to say over the question. The implication is that they never used to employ this strategy in their academic reading, for they had no knowledge of the strategy.

Lastly, amidst high and low achievers, only one high achieving respondent, S4 asserted that he predicted the content of the text. During academic reading he often saw the topic cautiously to predict and generate his own ideas about the text content. This is a strategy least reported by the two groups’ interviewees.

As it is noticed from the two group responses, the successful learners had better awareness about 11 global strategies, their contents and importance (in short, metacognitive awareness of strategy use) which they reported to monitor their cognitive activities more constantly and apply appropriate strategies more effectively to deal with comprehension failure. The use of numerous and diverse types of global reading strategies helps students to regulate their information processing effectively. The low-achieving interviewees, however, lack these crucial reading abilities that would have enabled them to understand English texts. As The finding of interview revealed, low achieving interviewees responded well to only four out of 13 global reading strategies. This suggests that they are ignorant about the use of numerous other global reading strategies. This result corresponds with the finding of the quantitative finding where low achieving respondents are in low usage in terms of the frequency of global reading strategy use. Students who are not aware of and who are unable to exploit such strategies while reading academic materials as well as taking comprehensive exams may exhibit lower reading comprehension performance and lower scores. Supporting this, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2001)

writes that students' dearth of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies significantly jeopardizes second or foreign language reading ability.

G) Strategies Employed during Comprehension Difficulties

The two group interviewees were asked to describe what they do when a text they are reading gets difficult. As the result of interview responses reveals, participants' text comprehension usually suffers. When they encounter unfamiliar words in the text, when they become distracted during reading and when they face a difficult content in the text.

Regarding unknown words of texts, high achiever interviewees stated that when coming across unfamiliar words that obstruct their English text understanding, they employ guessing strategies which they used to discover the meaning of new words in the written text. Accordingly, they predominantly utilized the ensuing four various contextual clues: (the context in which the words were written, the relationship between the unknown words and others, the use of punctuations and definitions via examples). They only ask their friends and teachers for assistance and consult dictionaries when they are unable to settle using these techniques. One of them, S5 for example illustrated what and why he does to mitigate the problem of unfamiliar words in texts:

While I read the paragraph and do not understand an important sentence, I read the next sentence. I do this to understand the context which is possible without having to know the exact meaning of each word of a sentence. Put simply, I can guess what it is. I try to find clues first. If it does not work, I reread the introduction again.

The other high achieving interviewees, S3 expressed that she often investigates the connection between the sentence or clause that contains the unknown word and the other sentences or paragraphs. Given that this relationship can occasionally be indicated by adverbs like however, or by conjunctions like but, because, if, when..., she thoroughly exploits these signals to identify the possible types of relationship which includes cause and effect, contrast, time, exemplification, and summary. Doing so, she can guess the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Others, S1, S3, S5 and S6 asserted to use punctuations as clue to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. S6, for instance said, “Punctuations provide me clear information about the new word in the text, aid me to know what sort of word in the language speech, and knowing this helps me guess the meaning of unknown words to a large extent”.

Additionally, S1 and S6 expressed that they often used definitions and example in the text to find the meaning of unknown words. S6 particularly said, “I exploit writers’ definitions of various terminologies and the examples they give to illustrate the use of a word in their written text. I utilize these techniques to determine the meanings of an unknown word”.

However, the strategy used by all unsuccessful interviewees to tackle problem of unfamiliar words of the text is quite different in that they resort to dictionary for every unknown word and ask anyone or their teacher. One of the underachievers, S9 said that she sometimes attempts to guess the meaning of unknown words, but it usually ends with failure. Thus, she tries to solve the comprehension deficit via consulting dictionary or asking someone.

As it is evident from the interviewee responses, both high and low achiever interviewees endeavored to solve their reading comprehension difficulties created by unknown words in the text. From their suggested reading techniques, it can be deduced that words can be understood and learnt in terms of their relationship with other words in the text and in the ability of using contextual clues to guess the meaning of new words.

This is meant that while high achievers suggested to utilize various guessing strategies, low achievers relied upon dictionary or someone. In fact, using a dictionary or someone as a strategy which the low achievers frequently used puts their comprehension of the text in jeopardy. That is, their reading would frequently be interrupted when they ran to a dictionary or to someone for help with every unfamiliar word, which ultimately led to comprehension failure. They often read academic reading materials this way solely because underachievers lack knowledge of the various context clues and how to use them to ascertain the meaning of words that aren't known to them (See the detail in the following section “H”).

Distraction during reading is the second reading deficit over which interviewees gave their expressions. When losing concentration during reading, all except S3 of the high achiever interviewees reported to break their reading and listen music or read any entertaining text. S2 for instance explicates that while he reads for long, he often loses concentration. This hinders his reading comprehension. As a result, he always takes break and listens to music or watches movies. Right after he refreshes himself, he comes back to his reading and continues his reading in detail.

Nevertheless, refreshing mind was not the strategy reported to be employed by low achievers when they lose concentration during reading, they rather put off their reading to other time. This is a sign of feeling monotony. One of them S7 illustrates that While reading academic texts, although he tries to maintain his concentration, he admits that he is most of the time unable to manage. He goes on saying “During this time, I develop anxiety and break my reading and postpone to the other day”.

Content difficulty was also the third trouble which interviewees confronted with during reading. When the text's content becomes challenging for readers to understand, the high achievers, S3, S4 and S5 adjust their speed, read slowly and carefully, pay closer attention and utilize rereading strategy. S3, for instance explained her reading habits in this situation by saying that she changes her reading speed depending on what she is reading. She reads slowly and attentively when she is reading extremely challenging concepts, ideas, or theories. This facilitates her reading and supports her to mitigate her reading comprehension pitfalls. And she reads more quickly, though, when she's reading simple texts written in simple language. Additionally, she concentrates more on what she is reading, for she believes that losing concentration during reading is one of the serious causes to hamper comprehension. Another tactic which was used to lessen the academic material's content difficulty was rereading technique. S4 expressed his reason why he rereads the text saying, “because reading in a second language may make some of what you read unclear. In these situations, you might reread it and discover that the idea or concept that had previously eluded you is actually there”.

This response suggests that by revising the text, the subjects may have been able to extract more ideas from it and, as a result, have solidified their understanding.

Others S1, S2 and S6 from the same group adopt pausing and thinking what is read and visualizing the information when they are challenged by the type of text. In such cases, S6, for example constitutes a mental image in his brain. This, as he said, in the end “enables me to promptly use the text to create mental images of what I am reading and supports to make the meaning stick in brain and helps me improve my reading”. He also pauses to think what is being read to critically analyze the content of the text. The use of this technique, as he said, urges him to look for appropriate strategies which help him mitigate his comprehension failure.

On the other hand, when low achieving interviewees faced comprehension deficit, they predominantly employ two problem solving reading strategies (i.e., rereading, and reading slowly/carefully). They use rereading strategy to understand the text's main point. If not, they stop reading, become discouraged, and decide to give up on reading altogether. The reading behavior reported by S11 clarifies this well: “While I encounter difficult concept, I Reread until I get the point of the text. If not, I discontinue reading”. Another member of the group, S9 also stated that she usually reads the same text two or three times. More may be necessary when she gets a very difficult text to understand.

Evidences from interviews indicated that members of both groups reported to use rereading strategy to tackle their comprehension difficulties. That does not mean the groups are not rereading the same text in the same frequency. While the high achievers only needed 2 to 3 times to get a clear understanding of the text, the low achievers, perhaps, needed 5 to 6 times or even more.

In addition to rereading strategy, all low achieving interviewees expressed that they use reading slowly and carefully to settle their comprehension deficit. S12, for instance, said that he reads slowly and carefully the content of texts that are not familiar to him. He utilizes the strategy to obtain the central theme of the text and thereby alleviate his comprehension deficit. The strategy was also used by another low achieving interviewee, S9 who utilized it “to look into the parts of the text and synthesize meaning of the text gradually”.

Before summing up this section, it is very important to note that most of strategies reported to be used by the high achiever interviewees during comprehension failure are strategies which, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) referred them as problem-solving reading strategies. Among eight

reading strategies, all of them by high achiever interviewees and only two of them by low achievers were reported to be used during comprehension difficulty. This implies that low achievers stick themselves to fewer strategies when tackling their reading comprehension difficulty than their counterparts. It is also interesting to note that every time these strategies failed, the subjects showed awareness of a lack of understanding but they did not show an awareness of how to select other effective alternative strategies nor did they evaluate the failing strategies. That is, the low scoring subjects lacked an awareness of how to utilize effective strategies.

H) The Use of Support Strategies such as using Reference Materials, Taking notes etc.

When inquired whether the interviewees of the two groups employ the support reading strategies while reading, they mainly expressed that they make notes, use dictionary, translate to L1, underline or circle information, use chart, table or coloring, ask themselves or someone else. The way they use these strategies and the rationale to use them during reading are, however, differently accounted by the interviewees of the two groups. That is, high achiever interviewees mainly employ them to enhance their understanding and memory. Nonetheless, low achiever interviewees predominantly use them to retain what they read and to memorize.

To begin with the views of the high achiever interviewees on taking note strategy, they expressed the use of the strategy of note taking as a really effective method for helping them to remember the meaning of new words or phrases using lexical notes, the grammatical information and content information of the texts. One of them, S5 explained how to make lexical note and why he makes it. As he was reading academic materials, at times, he wrote the meaning of new words on the sheet to study, and at other time, he highlights the words for emphasis. In his actual spoken words, he said:

I have stored many vocabularies in my memory. However, I do occasionally forget those words. So, I study with my lexical notes which I took from my academic reading. I also occasionally try to understand some strange words, which makes it difficult for me to understand some of the questions on the English test. This time, I highlighted the key words for emphasis.

However, when they are familiar to the text they are reading, they make notes from the content of the text they think important. S1 for instance said, “when I know what the text is about, I read the key parts more carefully making notes”. The aim of doing so for him is “to remember the content of the texts”.

The high achieving interviewees also accounted how they make notes. In this regard, the method used by S4 is an excellent example. As to him, while reading, he records his thoughts in the margin of the text then he takes the notes to an organized notebook where he writes the notes according to the type of subject matter. This, as he expressed, helps him to easily obtain points what he had already read.

Nonetheless, all low achiever interviewees write some notes. But the way they take and the weight they offer to it is not similar to high achievers. Low achievers do not regularly take notes from their reading but they make notes sometimes, and their deeds were filled with some irregularities. This happened for two reasons. One is that they do not realize the value of the strategy, and the other is that they were not conscious about the strategy itself. S7, for instance said, “I sometimes read and make rough notes without referring to the text. I usually write notes on pieces of paper”. S10 and S12 also have small notebooks (mini dictionaries) where they write all the new words, they find during reading activities along with the meanings of each word which they have looked up in the dictionary.

From the responses given, it can be learnt that the fact that low achievers make notes on pieces of paper shows that they are not making notes properly. This is because such methods are liable to be lost. Additionally, their taking notes mainly focused on meaning of new words. The aim of which was to study them. When students take notes Sticking to vocabulary, their content comprehension would be questionable. This might have occurred when they lacked various note making skills.

The second strategy over which both high and low achieving interviewees consistently stated was the use of dictionaries as a support technique. The rationale to use, the type of dictionary they employ as well as how they utilize it are completely different. High achiever interviewees’ use of the dictionary is, as they said, connected to the frequency of appearance and the importance of the unknown words. That is, they check words if they feel that they are very

important or appear in the text very often. Additionally, they mainly use monolingual or English-to-English dictionaries because they believe that this type of dictionary makes it easier to learn how to pronounce new words, recognize their forms, or understand their definitions.

This interview result emphasizes the value of using a dictionary for decoding or the efficacy of English word pronunciation and meaning. One of the high achievers, S1 argued that when using English to English dictionary, readers do have opportunity of getting the meaning of words in sentences. so, they could understand the various contexts in which a word is used and the language in which it is used. He further stated that the dictionary tells us in detail if a word is, for instance, a noun or an adjective. As a result, it is helpful to look up the meaning of unfamiliar words in an English-to-English dictionary because it gives them detailed information about the word.

Regarding the type of dictionary, high achiever interviewees elucidated that they preferred Electronic-dictionary over others for different reasons. To S5, S4 and S3, E-dictionaries are “handy and effective”, “quick and easy to manage” and “light and effective” respectively.

Conversely, low achiever interviewees explicated to use dictionaries most frequently to look up the meaning of every new word they encounter in the text. They prefer to read academic texts by looking up each new word in the dictionary, even though doing so would make reading cumbersome and laborious. One of the underachievers S11, for instance said, “when I encounter difficult word, I consult dictionary”.

And the type of dictionary they employ to use was bilingual dictionary (English to Amharic dictionary). Their reasons to use this dictionary varies, however. For example, S11 and S12 employed an English-Amharic dictionary because they thought it would make easier for them to understand the meaning of new words. S8 admitted that he used bilingual dictionary because he thinks that content of the academic materials is very tough for guessing. So, using this kind of dictionary becomes his reading habit.

The third support strategy which high achieving interviewees (S1, S3 and S4) used to foster their reading comprehension was the use of diagrams, tables and lots of color. As to why they utilized, S3 stated, “While reading, I am very attracted by the diagrams, pictures, tables and lots of color

in the text, for they enhance my reading comprehension, retain what I read in my mind and remember it for long”. A similar rationale was also forwarded by S1 who utilized the strategy to help him organize his ideas and remember what he reads. Nevertheless, none of the low achieving interviewees state regarding this strategy. This implies that low achievers do have little awareness about the strategy in question.

The fourth strategy over which the two interviewee groups exhibit variation was underlining and circling the information during reading. S1, S3 and S4 from high achiever interviewees assert that they usually underline and circle points in the text during academic reading. As to why the strategy is used, S1 said, “I like underlining and circling the information which I think important. I use this method to remember what I read by the time I read the same text the other day and helps me to save my time”. Correspondingly this, two low achieving interviewees (S7 and S12) responded that they underline, color and circle the points in the text. However, they are utilizing the strategy only when they are taking the exam. S12, for example said, “I use it especially in exam time because it supports me to get the right answers for the reading comprehension questions quickly”.

The fifth strategy suggested by interviewees was asking oneself questions while reading. However, over the extent to use the strategy, the two groups differ. High achiever interviewees (S4, S5 and S6) were asking themselves queries they want to have answered in the text. In his response, S4 asserted that he asks himself questions that the text would reply. If he gets the answer in the text, he continues reading motivated. He does this to support his understanding. However, no low achieving interviewee reflected their view on this strategy. The implication is that these participants did not have knowledge about the strategy nor had they ability to apply in their academic reading.

Again, both high and low achieving interviewees viewed to ask somebody else to foster their reading comprehension. One of the high achieving interviewees, S4 replied that he frequently asks his instructor when he has trouble understanding the concept. And S10 from low achieving interviewees responded in the same way saying, “I ask my friends, teachers... when I could not comprehend what is conveyed in the text”.

The desire to use this strategy might come from the pair or groupwork given in reading class. That is why asking someone or expertise is one of few strategies which many interviewees asserted to use. The use of this strategy encourages cooperative learning and socialization where learners can exploit the benefits of mixed abilities.

The interview response also revealed difference over the use of translation technique between the two groups. While high achievers utilized to enhance concept clarification; low achievers employed it even in normal circumstances. The successful readers (S1 and S6) expressed that they sometimes use mother tongue to help them understand the tough concepts or theories stated in the text. S6 particularly said that When using other strategies such as guessing or predicting the content does not help him to understand the text, “I attempt to recognize the spirit of the difficult notion or theory via mother tongue”. Low achiever interviewees, nonetheless, asserted that they often employ translation strategy in their reading. They read texts written in English, but they think in Amharic. They use it to keep lengthy notes with numerous English words, sentences and paragraphs that have Amharic equivalents. They employ this tactic because it is their reading behavior or habit retained for long, and they thought that the strategy helps them to fully comprehend the text. Statement made by S8 elaborates this well, "I always read in English text translating to my native language, even though the text I am reading is not difficult. I consider reading and translation to be related skills". Hence, it can be learnt that low achievers adopt translation technique more frequently and they use it even when the passage they are reading is less difficult.

A final strategy which the two interviewee groups suggested and over which they exhibit dissimilarity was the use of Reading aloud strategy. A very astonishing result was found from high achieving interviewees in that none of them could say anything about the strategy during the interview. The frequent advice of teachers and instruction of reading materials for learners to focus on silent reading might be a cause for the result. Consequently, they could become unaware of the strategy, nor were they able to implement. On the contrary, many low achieving interviewees (S7, S8, S10 and S12) stated that they read aloud for better understanding. In his response, S8 stated why he adopt the strategy saying, “For one thing, I have a habit of reading aloud when I face a difficult text. For another I usually be very clear when I use this strategy”.

In fact, low achieving students mainly read to memorize so that it is very likely to see such kind of readers read texts aloud.

Summing up, as it is evident, high and low achievers differed in the use of most suggested reading strategies. That is, high achieving EFL learners preferred to use several support reading strategies across the SORS. Among nine support reading strategies, high achieving interviewees were silent on the two strategies (i.e., Paraphrasing for better understanding and Going back and forth to find associations between ideas). However, they reported to use these strategies in high usage (See the quantitative result in Table 5.5). One possible reason might be that they have forgotten the strategies during the interview. They were also silent on reading aloud strategy, for they did have little awareness on the strategy. It was thus found out that the high achiever interviewees had better awareness on the most support strategies and they knew how to use them appropriately and effectively. They use the strategies to help them understand the written text very quickly and effectively.

However, low achievers reported to use the following three strategies from support reading strategies: reading aloud, translating to L1, and insisted on using a bilingual dictionary as support strategies. This might suggest that these students always pay attention to the vocabulary and sentence level rather than the ideas and complex sentence structures. It was noted that many of them claimed to keep notebooks where they keep lists of words, primarily with translations into (Amharic) and grammatical rules. This is one of the features of the Grammar-Translation Method that they may have picked up from their teachers who use it. This fact might lend credence to the idea that teaching strategies affect students' learning styles and, consequently, the learning strategies they choose.

I) Regarding whether the Teachers Teach Reading Strategies

To the question that aims at showing students' views concerning whether their teacher teaches reading strategies or not, all the high achiever interviewees responded positively forwarding similar reasons. Based on the interviewees' responses, the teacher's class speech provides the justification for teaching them reading strategies. S4, for instance, explained that his teacher is adamant about the value of reading techniques that significantly aid readers in understanding the written word. Additionally, he is aware that readers who lack reading strategies will undoubtedly

perform worse on reading comprehension tests. Coinciding this, S3 reported that his teacher knew that reading strategies do have an enormous contribution for the students' reading comprehension. Therefore, he imparts students about reading strategies.

However, many low achievers replied negatively because they were not taught reading strategies in the way they were interested. One of them, S9 said, "I don't remember our teacher teaching about reading strategies explicitly. Rather he usually pays attention to solving the learning tasks and how to get students to do the tasks well without teaching them how to deal with different reading strategies".

J) The Methods Used to Teach Reading Strategies

There were various responses when the two group participants were asked how they were taught reading strategies. The high achiever interviewees expressed that their instructors design reading tasks to elicit information via targeted strategies. These exercises can be divided by the stage of reading at which they occur. Thus, their teachers teach them reading skills through the three teaching phases: pre-reading, while reading and post-reading.

S1, S4, S5 and S6 from the high achievers clearly viewed that their teachers usually open teaching reading by asking some general questions. S4 in particular explains how his teacher does this so:

Our teacher often begins by asking questions about the topic to arouse our interest and get our attention. Following this, he inquires us to have a quick look at the title of the reading text or pictures to help us guess the content of the text. Then, he teaches some key or new vocabularies from the text in advance of our reading text.

Similar to how S4 described how his EFL instructor begins his reading lessons, S5 said that his instructor introduces the lesson before posing general questions for discussion during brainstorming exercises. After that, he asks the students to predict what they will read and tells them to look at the headings or illustrations. He then gives them the assignment of making a list of potential textual terms.

Correspondingly, low achievers knew that their teacher open the class discussion by providing them general question. They do not, however, realize why their teacher asks general questions at the beginning of the reading lesson. S9, for example said that every time, the teacher opens the reading session by asking various questions to his students. He asks them to read the title of a passage and to tell him their expectation of the passage. He also presents them the meaning of certain key vocabularies. However, she was not able to express why the teacher did these activities at the beginning of the reading lesson. This is because she did not know the nature, benefits, purpose of the activities given.

From the responses given, it can be inferred that unlike low achievers, high achievers realize that their teacher presents pre-reading activities to introduce them to a particular text, to elicit or provide appropriate background knowledge, and activate necessary schemata, and which, in the end, support them to have a better understanding when they engage in the reading tasks.

In while-reading stage, high achievers verified in their response that their teacher teaches them various strategies systematically whereby he instructs them to complete the reading text-based question within the allotted time. As to how his teacher teaches the reading strategy goes, one of the high achieving interviewees, S4 presented the detail as follows:

The teacher gives students a chance to discuss with their group members how they comprehend the reading text and respond the questions given. Then, he inquires them to share the reading strategies they used to settle their comprehension problems. Collecting their ideas, he gives them a summarized lectures and notes on the topic. So that students can recognize the different strategies and select the best which is pertinent to their way of learning.

Low achiever interviewees, on the other hand, had a different perspective on their teacher's approach to teaching reading strategies during this phase. According to their opinion, if there is any strategy the teacher thinks important for the students to know, the teacher usually presents the strategy in the reading activities they do in class. One of the low achievers, S7 for example said, while doing the reading tasks, “the teacher tried to direct students to the content of the reading text. He emphasizes on knowledge or fact of the text”. So that the teacher receives

students right or wrong answers to the question given. This is meant that “How we get the content of the text and how we settle the reading task, we are not taught” (S4).

From this response, it can be learnt that although low achievers were implicitly taught reading strategies, unlike their counterparts, they were unaware of this. As they reflected in their response, low achievers liked reading strategies to be taught explicitly. When they are taught implicitly, they considered as if their teachers were not assisting them or directing them properly. However, the researcher firmly believes that learning strategies should both be implicitly and explicitly taught, provided that students are given the freedom to use whatever learning strategies they deem appropriate for their learning styles rather than being forced to use a limited number of strategies.

Regarding the kind of strategy the teachers are teaching in While reading phase, high achiever interviewees declared that only few strategies are emphasized i.e., scanning, skimming and reading aloud strategies. S2 explicates, “Although the teacher knows the importance of teaching reading strategies for the students, he has not implemented all the reading strategies in his actual classes most frequently except some cognitive strategies like skimming, scanning, guessing strategies”. They also viewed how their teacher taught them reading aloud strategies. One of them, S5 mentioned that their teacher sometimes reads passages loudly to help them know the accurate pronunciation of the new words after explaining their meanings. Likewise, S2 stated, “Sometimes, our instructor read-aloud materials in class. He is an excellent to pronounce the words correctly. Imitating him, we could develop our pronunciation”.

Sharing the idea, low achiever interviewees expressed that reading aloud is a strategy that their teacher teaches them often. S8 said that their teacher believes that by reading aloud from the texts, he helps the students learn how to pronounce difficult words. Coinciding with this, S10 spoke: “he teaches reading by reading the material aloud. This is a method he frequently uses because he felt that it helps us to be acquainted with different pronunciation of words”.

Despite the fact that reading aloud to students is thought to be beneficial in the early stages of reading development and is intended to increase fluency, accuracy, and pronunciation, it, according to Oxford (1990), can also be used to enhance students' visual memory, their capacity

to see images in their minds, and their knowledge of proper punctuation at later age. She added that saying aloud made simple words and sentence constructions more memorable.

In addition to these, the two group interviewees unanimously pronounced that reading was being mainly used by their teachers to teach grammar and vocabulary. Thus, their teachers often gave students grammar and vocabulary exercises to be completed using either grammar or vocabulary techniques.

One of the high achiever interviewees, S2 explains that his teacher considers vocabulary to be crucial to the teaching of reading, and he teaches students how to utilize different clues to determine the meaning of words they are unfamiliar with. One of these clues, as to him, “is the use of affixation knowledge; he examines words and emphasizes the prefixes and suffixes to help us determine the meaning. The other involves providing examples, like using the strange word in various sentences”.

Similar suggestion with different wording was also presented by one of the unsuccessful learners, S7 who explicated how his teacher teaches reading:

When teaching reading, the instructor placed more emphasis on the target words' definitions than on the contextual cues for guessing. Perhaps this was due to the fact that teaching reading was primarily intended to help students improve their vocabulary. He also provided vernacular translations for the text's challenging words. Guessing the meaning of words or content would be meaningless during this time.

Another similar explanation was also presented by S8 who verified that he and his classmates do not obtain opportunities to exercise reading skills in the classroom because the teacher focuses on using reading to teach the grammar and vocabulary aspects. He went on saying “Since the teacher emphasize on knowledge by ignoring the skill part, I could not improve my reading skills”.

As it is noticeable from the responses of interviewees, their teachers employed reading mainly to teach vocabulary and grammar. So, they taught students about word formation... rather than concentrating on activities that can improve students' reading skills and enhance their reading comprehension abilities. These teachers believed that if their students were proficient in

grammar and had a large vocabulary, they would also be proficient in English. This conviction might be the outcome of how they were taught. Teaching the structural and linguistic features of a reading text is appropriate because it may aid in managing the reading process; however, prioritizing form over content is gravely flawed as understanding a text is the point of reading.

5.4. Discussion

The ensuing sections discuss and interpret the data analysis findings using the research questions as a guide. SORS, the open-ended questions, reading test result and the interview were the data sources that were analyzed to provide interpretations of the findings in each section. Following that, a comparison is made between the research findings of the current study and those of earlier investigations.

5.4.1. Students' Response for the First Research Question

The purpose of this basic research query was to uncover what reading strategies Wollo University first year social science students use in their academic reading. Three frequency criteria based on Oxford's (1990) standard were used to determine the frequency of usage of the strategies: high frequency use (3.5-5.0), medium frequency use (2.5-3.49), and low frequency use (1.0-2.49). A substantial corpus of research on language learning strategies has followed these criteria. However, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) utilized these criteria to determine students' use of reading strategies. Accordingly, the participants' responses about their strategy usage were divided into three groups: high, medium, and low usage. Thus, using the descriptive analyses of the SORS, the study identified first year social science students overall reading strategies, strategy use in the three categories, and the most and least frequently used strategies.

It is obvious that university students need to frequently utilize various reading strategies to be proficient readers. Nonetheless, the current study's results showed that the overall mean score of the 30 strategies used by the 135 participants fell into the medium frequency range. This shows that there is a moderate awareness of all the strategies. Hence, respondents are thought of as medium users, or participants sometimes use the reading strategies when they are reading academic materials. This finding is congruent with Meniado's (2016) study on the reading strategies used by Arab EFL students in Saudi Arabia. The study's respondents gave the reading strategies a medium frequency rating. They are, therefore, medium strategy users who sometimes

employ reading strategies to understand academic materials, just like the subjects in the current study.

As the Categorical types of reading strategies revealed, the most preferred reading strategy category of all is the problem-solving reading strategies followed by support and global reading strategies. The reason to prefer PROB at high frequency is that the participants regarded these strategies as tools that could help them deal with reading comprehension problems (Meniado, 2016). Learners who prefer these strategies more can develop these strategies and get into the habit of using them. Thus, when Wollo University students encounter difficulties in understanding academic texts, they tend to use more problem-solving reading strategies at high frequency rate. As noted by Baker (2008), readers who are highly conscious of their reading challenges may adjust their reading speed or try a different text to give them context. This was what was observed on first year social science students of wollo University, which suggests that these students do possess certain metacognitive knowledge to support them mitigate their reading difficulty.

The above finding aligns with the results of earlier researches conducted among EFL students by Temur and Bahar (2011), Al-Sobhani (2013), Fitriasia et al. (2015), Ghwela et al. (2017) and Par (2020). In their findings, problem-solving strategies were reported to be used by the participants at a rate of high frequency. That is, PROB strategies were reported to be utilized first in rank by the subjects of the studies. This indicates that problem-solving reading strategies were used widely by various students in different contexts. Following this, global and support strategies were claimed to be used at a rate of medium frequency. The implication is that support and global reading strategies did not receive much attention in class, for teachers might lack awareness about these important strategies and may not present them in their reading instruction. This also may have some relevance with the current study.

The result of the present study is, however, inconsistent with the findings of Jafari and Shokrpour (2012) and Tavakoli (2014), both discovered that Iranian learners employ support strategies the most, and problem-solving strategies the least which was the first or top preferred strategy of the current study's participants.

The second most popular category of reading strategies used by participants of the study was support reading strategy category. These participants claimed to employ these strategies moderately. A rationale for not using supporting strategies at high rate may be attributed to the level of the participants. Since the participants are university students, they might ponder these strategies as elementary ones. In line with this, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) noted that supporting strategies are usually attributed to strategies learners use at the beginning stage of language learning. However, inconsistent to the current study, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) on a study of undergraduate English language learners found “students attribute high value to support reading strategies regardless of their abilities” (p. 445).

The third preferred category of reading strategies used by participants of the study was global strategies. These participants reported to use global strategies at moderate level. This is meant that they were employing these strategies sometimes. A reason for the strategies to be less adopted by the students in their English reading is that they were higher level strategies which were not easily mastered by the students. A possible second reason is that Students are not perhaps regularly taught how to read college textbooks via global reading strategies. Students who are not taught how to employ global reading strategies encounter difficulties in using them in academic reading, for many of them are demanding to many students (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2002). Accordingly, the great majority of Wollo University students must receive rigorous instruction in using a variety of global reading strategies along with relevant reading exercises.

Nonetheless, a study result of Barrot (2016) contrasts to the finding of the current study. The participants of his study preferred global reading strategies as their top choice, (which was the last preference of the participants of the current study), followed by problem-solving and support strategies.

Regarding most and least used strategies of the participants, it can be stated that amid five most often used strategies of the three categories, four of them belong to problem-solving reading strategy category, and only one pertains to the category of support reading strategy. On the other hand, while seeing the five least often used strategies of the three categories, three of them are from support and two of them are from global reading strategies category. Although similar studies were conducted by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) and Mokhtari and Sheorey (2001), their participants choice as a most and least strategies are quite different. This was perhaps

because there is a context, culture and personality differences between these two studies and the present study.

5.4.2. Students' Response for the Second Research Question

The purpose of the second research question of the study was to uncover what type and frequency of reading strategies employed by high and low achieving first year social science students of Wollo University when they read academic materials. In order to determine the type and frequency of reading strategies participants use, classification of reading strategies suggested by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) was used. Accordingly, the participants' responses about their strategy usage were divided into three groups: high, medium, and low usage. Thus, using the descriptive analyses of the SORS, the study identified high and low achieving first year social science students overall reading strategies, their strategy uses in the three categories, and their most and least frequently used strategies and presented in the subsequent sections in detail.

Prior to delve into the discussion, it is appropriate to have brief account on the causes that make learners vary in their reading performance. There are plethora of factors that cause students to be low or high achievers in research; these factors can be physiological or psychological and may take many different forms (Chakrabarty & Saha, 2014, cited in Samperio, 2019). In this study, however, high and low achieving group is constituted on the basis of scores they obtain in the reading test.

In fact, university students must be proficient readers to meet academic requirements. Reading strategies are useful to attain this. However, as can be inferred from the reading test result, many participants lack the reading abilities needed to understand English texts. This may be attributed to their lack of familiarity with how to process a text for comprehension or the use of reading strategies that facilitate reading comprehension (Ketworrachai & Sappapan, 2022; Koda, 2005; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Numerous researchers have noted that students with varying levels of reading proficiency typically employ various reading strategies. This was demonstrated by the overall mean result of the current study, which showed that students with high and low achievement levels reported using EFL reading strategies at varying frequencies. The students who performed better in the reading test claimed to use reading comprehension techniques more frequently than the students who performed poorly. In addition to number of frequencies, high

proficiency students seem to employ diverse and more of strategies in almost all the strategies than the low proficiency students.

The fact that students who adopt more and different reading strategies are better able to comprehend texts than those who use fewer reading strategies may in turn suggest that a greater number of readers employed each strategy appropriately since they applied the right strategy in the right circumstance. Effective L2 learners, according to Oxford (1990), are conscious of the strategies they employ and understand why they do so. As the research finding by Hong-Nam (2014) revealed, readers who employ more reading strategies perform well on reading tests, for they know how, why and when to use them. This may account for the difference in reading behavior between high and low proficient students.

Of course, students' ability of selecting appropriate reading strategies during reading academic texts indicates that they already have metacognitive awareness. Such students are aware of their actions and know what should be done when they confront problems in reading academic texts. When students' deliberately select strategies that fit their learning, those strategies develop into useful tools for active and deliberate use that serve their purposes. In relation to this, Grabe (2009) stated that readers must have some kind of expectations to comprehend what they are reading and they adopt a variety of reading strategies to meet those expectations.

As evident in the finding of the current study, the average score of the 30 strategies used by high and low achieving participants fell into high frequency usage and low frequency usage respectively. This shows that there is a great awareness of all the strategies among high achievers and there is a little awareness on the side of low achievers. As a result, high achieving respondents are thought of as high users who regularly use the reading strategies listed in the SORS. Nonetheless, low achievers are pondered as low users who occasionally employ these strategies during academic reading. Moreover, high achievers utilized more reading strategies than their counterparts. This result is in line with several other studies (Block, 1986; Chen, 1999; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2001; Zhang, 2001) that examined the use of reading strategies by EFL students and found that proficient students adopted a wide variety and used more reading strategies—at least in terms of quantity.

Although university students are highly expected to read well via various reading strategies, the two proficiency groups' rating to reading strategies exhibited otherwise. In all of the three categories, reading strategies used by high achievers outnumbered low achievers. High scorers favored problem-solving strategies most, while supporting strategies least. However, low scorers used problem-solving strategies most, while GLOB strategies least. Both high and low achieving participants seem to prefer PROB strategies as their top choice. This indicates that there are similarities between high and low achievers' strategy use.

One of the reasons for selecting the category of problem-solving strategy as the groups' top choice was that most of the time during reading, the participants might have tried to practice problem-solving or cognitive reading strategies, for the subjects regarded these strategies as tools that could help them deal with reading comprehension problems (Meniado, 2016). The other rationale for preferring PROB most among the group members was that The majority of Ethiopian EFL students' textbook reading is directed towards addressing particular issues, such as reading for information or to learn a new language. Therefore, readers require to frequently used PROB strategies, which are "the actions and procedures that readers use while working directly with the text" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). Moreover, Ethiopian EFL instruction and learning are frequently test-driven. Students may read passages from textbooks as reading test passages in order to achieve high test scores. Thus, PROB techniques were applied more frequently to address particular reading issues.

While scrutinizing the high and low achieving groups' choice of strategies separately, it was found different strategy preferences between them. High achievers reported to employ both problem-solving and global reading strategies at a rate of high frequency. They regularly utilized these strategies during academic reading because they know the value of the strategies for comprehension. The result is in line with Baker and Boonkit (2004) who found that cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies were mostly used in their study. High achievers also claimed to use support techniques on a moderately regular basis. Thus, they utilized SUP strategies sometimes during academic reading. Low achiever students, on the other hand, used both problem-solving and support reading strategies at a medium frequency level. Additionally, they employed global strategies sparingly or at a rate of low frequency, which sharply contrasts with the results of their counterparts. This suggests that global reading strategies did not receive

much attention in the classroom, or the strategies might not be presented in accordance with the interest of the group. Moreover, teachers may not be aware of these crucial strategies in which case they may not include them in their reading instruction. These rationales may have some relevance with the current study.

High achievers reported to use all eight problem-solving reading strategies with the mean of (4.45) at high frequency level for the following reasons. First of all, successful readers might ponder PROB strategies as key for reading comprehension. Second is that since proficient readers are aware of their dominant reading difficulties, they inclined to employ PROB strategies to solve their reading problems. In line with this, Baker (2008) asserted that readers who are highly aware of their difficulties may adjust their reading speed or look for background information in another text. Third, good readers understand how to apply reading strategies that solve problems which will aid in their comprehension of the linguistic input and acquisition of knowledge. Fourth, problem-solving techniques are also more directly related to particular learning tasks. So that successful readers use this to overcome their reading problems and understand the text easily.

The result of present study (i.e., PROB strategies were favored most by high achievers) aligns with the earlier studies conducted by Anderson (2003), Huang and Nisbet (2014), Shang (2018), Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) and Zhang and Wu (2009). They discovered that more successful readers adopt problem-solving reading strategies more often and they utilize them more broadly than unsuccessful readers.

When the high achievers' preference to the three reading strategy categories are ranked, the most preferred reading strategy category by high achieving participants of the current study was the problem-solving reading strategies followed by Global and Support reading strategies. It's interesting to note that this research finding follows the same category order as studies by Zhang and Wu (2009) and Shang (2018). The finding of the study of Zhang and Wu (2009) revealed that more proficient readers use problem-solving reading techniques more frequently and more broadly after conducting research on 270 Chinese EFL students. The present study, despite done long after, coincides in its result with that of the previous two.

Therefore, when reading academic texts, high achieving students of Wollo University are able to frequently determine the text's level of difficulty and select suitable reading strategies that either match the text's difficulty or aid them in meeting the challenge. Difficult and complex texts require undergraduates to utilize additional strategies to comprehend. This could be the reason for the high frequency of problem-solving strategies used by high achieving Wollo University students compared to both global and support reading strategies. To put it simply, when high achieving Wollo University students encounter difficulties in understanding academic texts, they tend to use more problem-solving reading strategies at high frequency rate than global or support reading strategies.

The second category of reading strategy claimed to be preferred most by high achievers was GLOB strategies. They employ global or metacognitive reading strategies with the mean of (3.98) at high frequency level. So that they are regularly adopting the strategy in academic reading. Some of the rationales for opting these strategies at the rate of high frequency are presented as follows.

The first is that successful readers are aware of GLOB strategies and pondered them as crucial for reading comprehension. Mokhtari and Sheorey (2008) described successful readers as those who are globally aware, capable of thinking through the reading process, using planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies, and encouraging global skills in addition to reading comprehension. Coinciding this, Anderson (2008) stated that proficient readers can monitor and coordinate strategies, consider issues, and come up with solutions by observing the necessary steps. Ghavamnia et al. (2013) also described Successful readers as those who employ metacognitive strategies effectively and approached reading consciously devoting more time and attention to meaning. Thus, students who are conscious about global strategies often tended to prefer metacognitive strategies. And those Students who preferred to use global (metacognitive strategies) scored higher on the reading comprehension test (Zhang, 2013).

Second, the successful readers' educational level and their background knowledge may be responsible for their preference for metacognitive techniques. Since the study's participants were first-year university EFL learners, it's possible to say that some of them were aware of the

demands of academic life and adapted to their new surroundings by managing their learning (Oxford, 1990).

Third, the high achievers come to reading materials already knowing how global reading strategies use to monitor their reading comprehension, how to organize their thoughts, analyze and evaluate the text faster of what they read. So that they are assumed as those who able to develop their efficiency in reading comprehension. In agreement with this, Phakiti (2003) stated, successful learners can access the metacognitive information stored in their long-term memory from earlier learning experiences. Because they may not have had enough exposure to the target language to have the chance to consciously pick it up, learners frequently use global or metacognitive strategies more than other strategies when learning a foreign language (EFL).

This finding of the present study is consistent with those of Baker and Brown (1984), Hsu (2007), Mokhtari, Reichard and Sheorey (2008), Phakiti (2003), Salataci and Akyel (2002), Zhang (2001) and Zhang and Wu, (2009) who discovered that high achievers in an EFL context use global or metacognitive reading strategies more frequently than low achievers. Hsu (2007), for instance, examined how Taiwanese students attending four-year technical colleges employed English reading strategies. The metacognitive strategy category was found as the one that is used the most frequently. Additionally, he discovered that effective learners typically employ particular types of strategies and do so more frequently than ineffective ones.

Next to PROB and GLOB category of strategies, the third most popular category of reading strategies used by high achieving subjects of the study was support reading strategies which are described as "basic support mechanisms intended to aid the readers in comprehending the text" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). These strategies seem to be simple or elementary, but they are of great help for the students' comprehension. In line with this, Cogmen and Saracaloglu (2009) reported that simple methods such as underlining, taking notes, or highlighting the text can help readers understand and remember the content.

High achievers claimed to use SUP strategies with the mean of (3.41) at medium frequency level. So that they employed these strategies sometimes, or they claimed to use SUP strategies moderately. This could be explained, in part, by the impact of the value they offer to themselves. That is, the level of the participants may be a factor in why supporting strategies are not used

frequently. The participants are college students, so they might think these tactics are elementary ones. In agreement with this, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) pointed out that supporting strategies are typically associated with techniques used by language learners at the beginning stages of their studies. However, inconsistent to the current study, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2001) on a study of undergraduate English language learners found “students attribute high value to support reading strategies regardless of their abilities” (p. 445).

On the other hand, low achieving participants ranked the three category of reading strategies as opposed to high achievers. While high achievers ranked GLOB strategies as their top strategies, low achieving students ranked them as their bottom ones. So that low achieving participants used GLOB strategies at low level. Because of this, they struggle to keep track of their reading comprehension, unable to set goals, poor in connecting new information to what they already know etc. As this situation hinders students' overall reading ability, it is well known that a lack of global reading strategies poses a serious threat to their ability to succeed academically. In accordance with this, Baker and Brown (1984) claimed that reading comprehension problems can result from students' inability to monitor their own reading comprehension.

As the result of Zhang (2013) revealed, students who preferred global (metacognitive strategies) scored higher on the reading comprehension test. However, the students who were not aware of metacognitive (global) strategies were likely to get low scores. Hence, students who lacked metacognitive strategies would encounter difficulty to assess the task and bring to bear the necessary strategies for its completion (Lessard-Clouston, 1997).

Due to the fact that the use of global or metacognitive reading techniques can support efficient reading, learners with lower proficiency levels may gain even more from the use of these strategies. Oxford (1990) noted that metacognitive strategies help any kind of students get past the novelty of learning new words, unfamiliar grammatical structures, perplexing writing systems, and what appears to be "nontraditional approaches" (p. 136). These and other benefits of the metacognitive or global strategies were not, however, known by low achieving students of the current study.

Low achievers do not opt for GLOB strategies for different reasons. First, they are unaware about global or metacognitive strategy which has a significant contribution for the successful language learning. As the result of Zhang (2013) revealed, the students who were not aware of metacognitive (global) strategies got low scores. Moreover, as the global strategies are higher level strategies that were more difficult for the low achieving students to master, they were utilized less frequently by them during academic reading in English. The fact that these students may not have been regularly taught how to read academic materials using global reading strategies is a potential second factor. Therefore, in order to support students in becoming successful readers in their academic endeavor and thereby get them to the appropriate level of reading proficiency, the issue of unsuccessful readers' (i.e., their dearth of global reading strategy use) needs to be addressed. To aid students in mastering the global reading strategies, frequent reading lessons emphasizing strategy awareness and knowledge of how to apply GLOB must be provided. Additionally, low achievers must practice global or metacognitive reading strategies as often as possible in their reading classes because the use of a global or metacognitive reading strategy is believed to be particularly beneficial for the use of problem-solving techniques and successful language learning (Alexander et al., 2000).

Next to the category of PROB and above to GLOB strategies, support reading strategy category was preferred by many low achieving subjects moderately. It is the second most popular category of reading strategies among low achieving subjects of the study. This finding corresponds with the result of Salataci and Akyel (2002) who discovered that In contrast to their high skilled counterparts who use global strategies more frequently, low level readers claim to be most familiar with support reading strategies. However, students who stick to the use of support reading strategies in their academic reading neglecting other strategies will not bring success in their reading. Zhang and Wu (2009) argued that readers with low proficiency often try to use specific techniques that are not helpful to understand a text. To help them with their reading assignments, these students frequently utilize simple reading techniques and tools, such as underlining and circling textual content. Simple support strategies are typically used by students who have low reading strategy awareness, according to Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) report. Since locating textual information takes less time and effort than deciphering implicit information, it is perhaps feasible for them. Thus, Ethiopian EFL low achieving students appear

to decide what they should learn, how to overcome obstacles to reading, how to organize their reading process, and how to assess their reading progress.

5.4.2.1. The Most Favorite Strategies of High and Low Achievers

The two groups also exhibit dissimilarities in their choice of most favorite as well as least favorite individual strategies. The top reading strategy claimed to be employed by successful readers in the current study was visualizing strategy (from the category of PROB strategy). As their bottom strategy, they preferred to the strategy of reading aloud (from the category of SUP strategy). The unsuccessful readers, on the other hand, ranked setting purpose as their bottom strategy (from the category of GLOB) while preferring the rereading strategy as their top one (from category of PROB strategy).

Not all Students might be accurately applying strategies to the reading task because they are not always aware of their choice, and the effect a strategy has on their learning. This was observed in the current study result in that unlike low achievers', strategies reported to be used by high achievers are more useful to enhance text understanding. This notion would perhaps be clearer when comparing the ten top and ten bottom strategy choices of high and low achieving group of the current study.

The ten top strategies reported by high achievers are: Visualizing, Reading slowly and carefully, Focusing after distractions, Guessing meaning, Rereading, Previewing, Analyzing and evaluating, Concentrating on content, Setting purpose for reading and Pausing and thinking about what is read. They were reported in descending order as the most frequently used strategy at the high level. These ten strategies of high achievers seem to contribute to the learners' reading process and higher language achievement compared to low achievers' top strategies which are: rereading, using references, reading slowly and intently, translating, adjusting speed, Underlining and circling, Visualizing, Taking advantages of text features, Reading aloud and Trying to keep focused after distractions in that order.

In order to elaborate further the comparison of strategy choice effectiveness between the two groups, it would perhaps be sufficient to illustrate a guessing strategy as an example taking from the above selected top strategies of the groups.

To many students, the root of reading difficulties is a failure to apply the proper strategies, the most common of which is guessing. Students who are unaware of the contextual guessing strategy and do not know how to use it may make inaccurate guesses. In this study, high achievers favored to the strategy of guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words in the text at high frequency as opposed to low achievers. The preference and frequent use of guessing strategy, according to Zhang and Wu (2009), has a tremendous value for students' lexical competence and their understanding of academic text. So, high achievers usually try to adopt various guessing clues to deduce the meaning of new words. One of these clues is punctuation marks, the knowledge and the use of which aid students infer the meaning of the target word from a written context (Nuttal, 1982). Punctuation marks are useful to clarify and to communicate meaning.

Therefore, learners who realize that words are essential to reading try to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words using various techniques improve their reading comprehension. Alderson (2000) claimed that vocabulary is one of the most crucial pillars of reading comprehension. As a result, students must use guessing strategies to solve their reading problems while reading in order to improve their vocabulary knowledge, which in turn will help them better understand the text and develop their vocabulary (Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2005).

Underachievers, on the other hand, did not indicate guessing strategy as one of their top ten reading technique. This implies that they were unaware of the strategy, nor were they employing in their academic reading. This might be one of the grounds for their reading comprehension failure. For Haastrup (1991, cited in Abebe, 1997), guessing failure is reading failure. Thus, finding the elements (conditions) that contribute to guessing failure has positive value.

Instead of guessing and other effective reading technique, Low achievers claimed to employ rereading, adopting reference materials, translation and so on to be their top reading strategies. These strategies are not as effective as their counterparts' top strategies in attaining comprehension. For instance, low achievers' claim to use translation strategy as one of their top reading strategies jeopardize their reading success. This is because, although more teachers and students have voiced their disapproval of the translation strategy, these underachievers continue to employ it despite the fact that it goes against the fundamental tenants of the most widely used communicative teaching pedagogies in Ethiopia. This may affect their capacity to comprehend

what they read. Therefore, teachers can attempt to deter weak readers from using the translation strategy when administering reading comprehension exams.

5.4.2.2. The Least Favorite Strategies of High and Low Achievers

The five reading strategies least frequently reported to be employed by successful readers were, in ascending order, Reading aloud, Translating, Using typographical features, Thinking of information in both languages, and Skimming through text characteristics. On the contrary, low achievers reported using the strategies of Setting purpose, Adopting prior knowledge, Analyzing and evaluating, Thinking of information in both languages and Using context clues in that order. These reading strategies were reported to be used less frequently by the participants of the two groups of the study and used less than other strategies.

When scrutinized the five least chosen strategies of each group, a sound variation exists in the type of category and in the frequency they were used. High achievers' report of least strategy use revealed that "Reading aloud and translating" fall under the category of support reading strategy with low usage. The strategies "Using typographical features" and "Thinking of information in both languages" fall under the category of GLOB and SUP respectively with medium usage. Only one strategy, "Skimming through text characteristics" which pertain to the category of GLOB fall under high usage in terms of frequency.

As opposed to this, low achievers asserted that "Setting purpose for reading" was their least favorite activity. With the exception of the support reading strategy "Thinking of information in both languages," all other reading strategies least preferred by low achievers are grouped under GLOB. Moreover, all five of the least preferred reading strategies are used infrequently (low usage). This suggests that those who are in low achieving group do not have much knowledge about the global reading techniques.

In order to account the effectiveness of least used strategies, comparing the decision of the two groups in using the purpose-setting strategy as one of the least or bottom strategies helps much. While high achievers reported to use setting purpose strategy at high frequency level, low achievers claimed to employ it at low usage. The use of setting purpose reading strategy is, however, crucial for helping students focus their energy in the right place (Oxford, 1990: 158).

When students are reading with purpose, they will discover whether their reading is guided towards a specific objective. They also are able to concentrate on their reading. Students can set goals and objectives if they are aware of the purpose of the reading. They can concentrate on what they want to get out of reading as a result. Nonetheless, low achievers of the current study are unaware of this strategy nor do they use it actually, for they do not have a clear goal for their reading activity while reading. Students who hardly set purpose during reading are not able to identify what they are looking for and weed out information that might not be distracting (Brown, 2001: 306). This might be caused by inadequate practice over the strategy which usually lead students to ineffective reading. As the finding of the research Hudson (2007) Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) revealed, inexperienced readers are unable to adapt their reading strategies to their reading objectives.

Apart from the difference in strategy use between the two groups, in the current study both successful and unsuccessful readers were found to be active users of some similar strategies. Rereading strategy, for example was one of the two reading strategies used by both higher and lower achievers at high-frequency level. These results suggest that almost all EFL learners, both high and low achievers, reread sentences they did not understand while reading a text. This might indicate a lack of ambiguity tolerance among the participants. In fact, this observation runs counter to Brown's (2000) research, which showed that effective readers are those who can tolerate ambiguity in any reading text. Many researchers believe that it can be considered as a helpful strategy to read a passage multiple times, each time for a different purpose, such as to get the general drift or the main ideas, to predict, to read for detail, or to write down questions (Oxford, 1990).

Rereading is a technique that skilled readers have been observed to use frequently when they run into reading difficulties (Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). The students' extensive use of this technique can be read as a demonstration of their awareness of the value of employing specific reading techniques to aid in improving comprehension when necessary. However, it should be noted that unnecessary rereading will impede effective reading comprehension and fluent reading. This is perhaps what low achievers have done in their academic reading and failed to apply these techniques to bring success in their reading test. The rationale is that as Lessard-Clouston (1997) states that there is always a possibility that good

language learning strategies are also used by bad language learners, but other reasons cause them to be unsuccessful. One of such causes is that considering Rereading the text as the only strategy which students can use to solve their reading difficulties.

Generally, as the results of the overall computational analysis of the responses from the group participants for the three categories showed, 26 out of 30 reading strategies (86%) were reported to be used by high achievers at high frequency scale, which is above the mean of 3.5. Additionally, they claimed the other four reading strategies—two for low frequency scale and two for medium frequency scale—of their choice. Contrarily, underachievers reported using 18 reading strategies (60%) at low frequency, nine (30%) at medium frequency, and just three (10%) at high frequency. Moreover, strategies by both achievers most used were Problem-Solving Strategies, but least used strategies were mostly Support reading strategies by high achievers and global Reading Strategies by low achievers. Besides, none of the strategy items have very high standard deviations. It appears from this that there is little variation in the answers that the participants provided for each of these tactics. Though similar research was done by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) and Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), their participants' choices for the most and least effective strategies were very different. This may have happened because the context, culture, and personality of the present study and the other two studies differ.

Additionally, the overall mean value for students with high proficiency across all three categories of strategy ($m=3.93$) was higher than the overall mean value for students with low proficiency ($m=2.41$). The former is in high usage and the latter is in low usage. The result suggests that effective readers were more aware of strategy use than less effective readers (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). In addition to awareness of strategies, effective readers realize when and how each strategy should be applied (Anderson, 1991; Samuels et al., 2005; Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002). Thus, they employ reading techniques to derive a comprehensive understanding of the text. Low proficiency learners, on the other hand, use them to construct meaning from the text in a fragmentary manner that is concentrated on lexical-level meaning (e.g., translating, checking a new word list, focusing on each word's meaning). This finding is consistent with Saricoban (2002) who discovered that successful and unsuccessful readers employed different strategies. Successful readers preferred reading techniques like analyzing arguments, concentrating on descriptions, and using particular verb tenses because these techniques made it easier for them to

comprehend the author's intentions and message. On the other hand, unsuccessful readers concentrated on the verb tenses. For instance, they concentrated on verbs that indicate mental processes and actions. Therefore, low achievers require special consideration when it comes to the application of reading strategies.

The use of strategies may therefore affect readers' performance on the reading test. As pointed out by Ajideh and Nourdad (2019), Dodeen (2015), Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), readers who successfully adopted the strategies were better able to understand written text. For instance, during the reading task, half of the participants in the current study appear to have ineffectively used their RSs, which led to subpar performance. The results showed that students are more concerned with learning how to use strategies appropriately and effectively than they are with knowing which strategies are the most successful. In accordance with this, Anderson (1991) argues that understanding what strategies to employ is important, but understanding how to do so is even more crucial. As a result, this study tends to give circumstantial support to the notion that the level of reading comprehension attained may depend on how RCSs are used.

However, many researchers argue that possessing a large number of strategies does not always imply that learning will be facilitated. Some samples, despite using a lot of strategies, were unable to achieve high achievement scores. According to researchers in the field of reading cited by Alsamadani (2009), such as Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), indicating a decrease in the use of strategies is not always indicative of ineffective learning. The success of learning is not always assured by frequent use of strategies. Certain students can be seen working eagerly and utilizing a variety of strategies in class, but they do not do so in an efficient manner. This shows that other factors that have an impact on learners' comprehension must be taken into account because frequency results alone cannot fully explain strategy use. As to Alsamadani, "the more the better" is not always the case in strategy use.

5.4.3. Students' Response for the Third Research Question

The third research question aimed to determine if there was any significant difference between reading strategy used by high and low achieving levels.

As the independent sample test revealed, there is significant difference between high and low achiever students in employing the overall reading strategy use and the three main reading strategy categories. The use of reading strategies by students with higher reading performance and lower reading performance was found to differ in a statistically significant way at the .01 level. This suggests that the difference in reading strategy use between students with higher and lower reading achievement was significantly related to reading performance. This statistically significant differences in their use of reading strategies at .01 sig level is meant that High proficiency readers employ global, problem-solving, and support reading strategies more frequently than lower proficiency readers, which sets them apart from low proficient learners in this regard. Hence, it is possible to assert that there is a connection between students' academic achievement and their use of reading strategies. This is due to the fact that more successful students not only employ these techniques more frequently but also very differently from less successful students.

Knowing a relationship is significant does not tell us whether the effect is strong or weak. It was necessary to calculate an effect size. An effect size measure used in connection with the t-test is called Cohen's *d*. The result of the effect size is 1.442. The interpretation means that there is a strong relationship between reading strategy use and reading achievement among the samples of the present study.

In general, as the results show, students with higher reading scores used reading strategies more frequently than those with lower reading scores. It suggests that those who performed better on reading tests employed more strategies. The findings are in line with those of a number of earlier studies, including Baker and Brown (1984), Carrell (1989), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Kim (1992), cited in Cohen and Macaro (2007), and Griffiths (2003), which discovered that high achieving groups employed significantly more strategies than low achieving groups.

Nevertheless, this finding is incongruent with that of Anderson's (2003) and Shmais (2003) who reported that better readers use only more cognitive (problem-solving) reading strategies than poor readers, and it constituted significant differences only in the use of cognitive reading strategies between the two groups. And the results of their study, which verified that there was no significance difference in the use of global and support reading strategies between high achiever students and low achiever students, are at least partially at odds with the findings of the current study. This means that there is no relation between achievement in their study's result and the use of global and supporting reading strategies.

5.4.4. Students' Response for the Fourth Research Question

The purpose of the fourth research question was to find To what extent students' reading strategies predict students' performance in reading comprehension test. So, in order to see which reading strategy predicts reading proficiency most, regression equation was used. Before computing the regression equation, a Pearson product moment correlation was run to compute the coefficient (r) values.

The Pearson correlation between Scores of the overall reading strategies and scores of reading achievement is 0.947. This relationship is significant at P-value < 0.01 level (2-tailed) indicating that there is a significant positive relationship between reading achievement and the scores of the overall reading strategies. This finding aligns with Phakiti (2003), Liu and Zhang (2008), Saeedeh (2013) and Y. Wang and Liu (2010) which revealed a statistically significant and positive correlation between the results of reading comprehension tests taken by EFL students and their general use of reading strategies. It also demonstrated that proficient readers who use reading strategies score high on reading comprehension tests, compared to their low-ability peers.

The result was also expressed at the coefficient point of the three reading strategies separately. The correlation coefficient of results of reading comprehension test of the students and their problem-solving or cognitive reading strategy use is coefficient point ($r= 0.895$). This coefficient means that there is a strong, positive relationship between reading achievement and problem-solving reading strategy use. Hence, the higher students' score in reading comprehension test, the more frequently they use the problem-solving reading strategies. In other words, reading

comprehension tests were performed more successfully by language learners who used problem-solving reading techniques more frequently. Results from earlier studies on learning foreign or second languages corroborate this conclusion (Hong, 2007).

Reading success is significantly correlated with problem-solving or cognitive reading strategies because PROB strategies are crucial to language learning. Cognitive strategies have a direct impact on language acquisition and are closely linked to particular learning tasks (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). This study reveals that when reading, students use a range of cognitive strategies. It can be inferred that the use of cognitive reading strategies is crucial when administering reading comprehension tests because these strategies are all positively correlated to reading accomplishments and are therefore crucial for facilitating comprehension. A similar result was found by Dallagi (2021) who showed a positive and strong correlation between proficiency and the Problem-solving reading strategies (Cognitive reading strategies).

Another positive and moderate relation with coefficient point ($r=.754$) was also observed between students' reading scores and their supporting strategy use. This coefficient indicates that students who score low in reading comprehension test employ the support reading strategies less frequently and vice versa. This happened because students assume that the use of supporting reading strategies is more important to their learning process. In relation to this, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) says, supporting strategies are essential to aid learners comprehend written text successfully. The finding of Dallagi (2021) revealed that no statistical relationship between proficiency and Support (SUP) strategies, which implies that university level students are not interested in them or do not consider them important.

Regarding the relation between scores of reading achievements and use of global or metacognitive reading strategies, the result revealed a strong, positive relationship, for their correlation coefficient pointed ($r=.945$). This means that the higher students' reading scores the higher the global strategy they use and vice versa. This result implied that successful readers reported their higher awareness of reading strategies than unsuccessful readers. Therefore, poor readers should be encouraged to be aware about and apply the global reading strategies to improve their comprehension because the knowledge and application of global strategies, which are sophisticated reading techniques frequently used by proficient readers, are signs of strong

reading ability. As noted by Alexander and Jetton (2000), superior reading comprehension and effective learning are characterized by awareness of using reading strategies.

Thus, underuse of RCSs, particularly the global reading strategies or monitoring strategies could have been the cause of the participants' subpar performance on the reading assignment. As to Baker and Brown (1984), readers' awareness of the degree to which comprehension is occurring during a reading task is known as the process of monitoring the cognitive process.

Therefore, as many researchers have suggested, the efficient application of reading strategies heavily relies on the readers' capacity for monitoring their comprehension (metacognition). This finding is in agreement with Zhang and Seepho (2013), Ghavamnia et al. (2013) who found that students who opted to use metacognitive strategies typically received higher scores on the reading comprehension test. The reading task's low usage of these metacognitive strategies also points to the inefficiency of other strategies. Thus, as it has been suggested by many researchers, the effective use of reading strategies relies heavily on the readers' comprehension monitoring (metacognitive ability).

Overall, as the coefficient result showed, there is a significant correlation between students' use of global, problem-solving, and support reading strategies and their reading scores. Thus, a significant correlation was found between reading performance and reading strategy categories. That is, the reading comprehension scores rise along with the frequency of reading strategy use.

Based on the findings of the study, it would seem that readers' reading strategies, metacognitive awareness, and reading proficiency are strongly correlated. Essentially, readers who are more successful than those who are less successful appear to employ strategies more frequently and in greater quantities. Additionally, more proficient readers have a higher level of metacognitive awareness of the strategies they use (Baker & Brown, 1984; Garner, 1987; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995), which increases reading ability and proficiency.

The results envisaging the presence of a significant correlation between reading strategy use and reading performance conducted in different contexts came to the same conclusion. Thus, the findings of this study are consistent with those of the following studies (Baker & Boonkit, 2004; Barrot, 2016; Li, 2010; Liu & Wang, 2008; Liu & Zhang, 2010; Huang & Nisbet, 2014;

Madhumathi & Ghosh's, 2012; Meniando, 2016). The finding of this study is, however, in contradiction with those of Belilew (2015); Shang (2010) and Zuweldi et al. (2018) who reported no significant relationship (positive or negative) between students' use of reading strategies and their reading comprehension test scores. The variance finding appears to support Oxford's (1990) claim that people from different cultures approach learning tasks in various ways.

The correlation was concerned with the magnitude and direction of the relationship. However, regression is a statistical method used to determine the strength and characteristics of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Using the data of correlation, the researcher came up with a regression equation for acting the prediction. In regression, researchers use the relationship between two variables to predict the value of one of the other variables.

Relating to the research finding on strategy category which predicts the reading ability of the EFL students, the study uncovers that both global and problem-solving reading strategies are the most predictive reading strategy categories toward the students' reading achievement. This finding is partly consistent with other studies (Huang & Nisbet, 2014, Hong-Nam, 2014) who found problem-solving strategy as a sole predictor of reading ability of the participants and it contradicts with the study by Saeedeh (2013) who find that only global reading strategy use could be a predictor of the students reading scores. This contradictory finding can be caused by many possible factors, including language and reading proficiency level, cultural setting, text difficulty, types of reading tasks, and the students' learning styles.

5.4.5. Students' Response for the Fifth Research Question

The objective of the fifth research question is twofold. The first is to identify whether the reading strategy used by high achievers correlates significantly with reading test scores, and the second is to find out whether the reading strategy used by low achievers correlates significantly with reading test scores.

Based on the overall result of correlational analysis, it can be said that there is significant correlation between reading strategy use (High achievers and Low achievers) and reading test scores. It is proven from the result of data analysis that The statistical analysis on correlation used by high achievers were all positively correlated to the test scores ($r=.562$, $p=.01$) which is at

0.05 significance level. Likewise, low achieving students' reading strategy use were all positively correlated to the test scores ($R=.704$ $p=.000$) which is at 0.01 significance level. Nonetheless, the two groups vary in strength. According to Evans (1996) suggested guide, any correlation coefficient found in between (0.40 - 0.59) can be interpreted as moderate. And any correlation coefficient found in between (0.60 - 0.79) is strong. Thus, when we looked the correlation coefficient of high achievers ($r=.562$), it fell in between (0.40 - 0.59). So that the correlation coefficient is moderate whereas the correlation coefficient of low achievers ($R=.704$) which fell in between (0.60 - 0.79) is strong. This indicates that the strategies that students used when taking the test were generally related to the ones that they used when reading academic materials. Therefore, the strategies that the participants of the study employed to take the test may be similar to the ones they used to read the textbook passages or other school related materials.

Since the students used the strategies in their academic reading, they might be able to apply it in their reading comprehension test. The strategy used in this research consist of three types: GLOB strategies, PROB strategies, and SUP strategies which were used by high and low achievers were correlated to their reading scores. High achieving students' use of GLOB were significantly correlated to their scores. Similarly, low achieving students' use of GLOB were also significantly correlated to their reading scores. The significance value of (0.00) for each proficiency level is less than (0.001). The implication is that the application of global reading strategies by both high and low achievers is significantly positively correlated with their comprehension level. In other words, students' reading comprehension test scores improve the more they apply the global reading strategies.

However, there is a variation between correlation of significance between using PROB strategies by high and low achievers and reading comprehension scores. High achieving students' use of PROB were significantly correlated to their scores whereas low achieving students' use of PROB were not significantly correlated to their scores. This result shows that there is a positive relationship between high achieving students' use of problem-solving reading strategies and their comprehension level. The more the problem-solving reading strategies high achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores increases or vice versa. So that there is a direct relationship. Nonetheless, there is a negative relationship between low achieving

students' use of problem-solving reading strategies and their comprehension level. The more the problem-solving reading strategies low achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores decreases. So that there is an indirect relationship between low achieving students' reading strategy use and their reading scores. They are thus inversely related.

The correlation results of high and low achieving participants' reading scores and their support strategy use is quite opposite to that of PROB strategy use of the groups. That is, while high achieving students' use of SUP were not significantly correlated to their reading scores, low achieving students' use of SUP were significantly correlated to their reading scores. This finding denotes that high achievers' comprehension level and their use of support reading strategies are negatively correlated. Reading comprehension scores of high achievers decline with increased use of support reading strategies. So that there is an indirect relationship between high achieving students' strategy use and their reading scores. In contrast, there is a positive relationship between low achieving students' use of support reading strategies and their reading comprehension scores. The more the support reading strategies low achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores increases. So that there is a direct relationship between low achieving students' support reading strategy use and their reading scores.

Despite the fact that students might be using various strategies when taking examinations, some of the strategies they used when reading academic materials remained beneficial in helping them improve their understanding of the test reading passages, which in turn helped them perform better on the reading comprehension test. In relation to this, Zhang and Wu (2009) said that test-oriented instruction gives students the chance to get practice applying test-taking techniques while also improving their reading comprehension skills.

In conclusion, while a noteworthy correlation was observed between the overall utilization of reading strategies and the overall performance on reading tests, there was no significant correlation discovered between the reading performance of high and low achievers and the specific reading strategy categories they employed. This shows how much more assistance students need in using reading strategies is something that educators and researchers should provide. Hence, it is recommended that reading strategy instruction focus on increasing students' knowledge of the range of reading strategies they can use depending on the reading scenario.

Also, it is advised that teachers support their students in using a range of flexible reading strategies to improve their reading comprehension and performance. The relationship between reading performance and strategies must also be understood by them. To this end, Ghavamnia et al. (2013) asserted that improving reading comprehension, particularly for less proficient readers, requires an understanding of the relationship between proficiency and strategy use.

5.4.6. Students' Responses for the sixth Research Question

The sixth research question sought answers on why and how high and low achieving students employ reading strategies during academic reading. In addressing this research question, the findings of the interview analyses were used. A discussion on the major results of the interview queries is presented as follows.

A) Students' Interest in Academic Reading in English

Reading interest has been used to refer to reader perception in regards to the degree to which a reader enjoys reading or considers it potentially exciting or interesting (Thomas, 2001), and level of interest in reading is one of the main issues that causes variation in students' reading habits and performance (Mauli et al., 2014). When scrutinized high and low achievers' responses of the interviews to the query that concerns their interest in reading academic materials, the result revealed, all of the high achievers enjoyed reading. They also unanimously agreed that their interest in reading motivates them to reading. Thus, vis-a-vis interest, having motivation is important to read academic materials (Uso-Juan, 2006). Nonetheless, more than half of the low achievers had no interest in reading, nor did they have motivation in it. Students' motivation to reading might arise from the availability of successful readers at home to emulate. Moreover, students' interest in what they are reading will be advanced when they believe the reading will be beneficial to them. This is why the topic given in the classroom should be the one the students think they need. Additionally, It might be promoted by class teachers providing high motivation to their reading and providing them pertinent materials which they are interested in. Low-achievers would have passion to read when the text is a kind of their interest. As stated in Carrell (1998), when students are not interested in the text they read, they will be unwilling to use the strategies, which often results in the failure of reading comprehension.

Correspondingly this, Dennis (2008, cited in PourhoseinGilakjani & Sabouri, 2016) suggested that students' interest and motivation are very crucial in enhancing reading comprehension skill. This is meant that it will be difficult for readers to focus on their comprehension if they find the reading material boring. Readers' reading comprehension may suffer as a result. However, students can grasp and retain the information more readily if the reading material is interesting and engaging to them.

B) Students' Challenges in Reading Academic Materials

As the responses of the interview revealed, there are plethora of factors influencing students' reading performance. The major ones are poor language performance, dearth of awareness and ineffective use of reading strategies, and methods of teaching reading strategies. Since students' poor language proficiency is that which the majority of interviewees expressed as their serious problem, a brief discussion on it is presented in this section.

According to Alderman (2008, cited in Samperio, 2019), students' poor language performance is derived from a dearth of motivation, effort, and effective use of learning strategies. Many scholars argue that students' poor language performance can jeopardize their reading performance. Researchers among whom Huang and Nisbet (2014), Mauli et al. (2014) claimed that the biggest barrier to students' success in reading is their poor language skills. According to Lee (2017), there are six skills that are considered to be fundamental for reading comprehension: decoding, fluency, vocabulary, sentence construction and cohesion, reasoning and background knowledge, and working memory and attention. These abilities are somehow connected to the overall students' language abilities. Hence, it is very unlikely to acquire these skills for those who are weak in their language performance. This is because understanding of text is determined by the ability of readers' interaction "with a message encoded by the writer concentrating on his/her total prior experience and concepts he/she has attained, and the language competence he/she has achieved" (Goodman, 1973, p.162). Thus, a good language competence is crucial for understanding texts (Griffiths, 2013). However, as witnessed in their interview responses, low achievers do have grave language problems. So that they cannot be good at those skills mentioned above. This may contribute to the low score they acquire in reading test.

C) Approaches to Reading

The field of LLS research is not yet sufficiently apparent as to why students select and adopt particular strategies over others (Gu, 2005). Many scholars investigated the issue and revealed in their finding that students' academic and language success are mainly the grounds for the variation of their strategy use. According to Chamot et al. (1999), Hong-Nam (2014), the quantity and variety of strategies utilized, how the strategies were applied to the task, and whether or not they were appropriate for the task were all different between more effective learners and less effective learners. In the subsequent section, a discussion on reasons given by high and low achieving students to prefer the reading strategies is presented.

Students' perception on reading is the first area where high and low achievers' selection of reading strategies diverge. Poor readers believed that reading was only about decoding, while good readers believed that reading was related to comprehension. They alter their tactics in response to these perceptions. That is, poor readers tended to be bottom-up strategy users whereas successful readers tended to be top-down strategy users.

Therefore, various researchers described successful and unsuccessful readers in their strategy use differently. Block (1986), for example suggested that readers who are more successful employ general techniques like anticipating content, recognizing text structure, identifying main ideas, drawing on prior knowledge, monitoring comprehension, and responding to the text as a whole. Less proficient readers, on the other hand, rely on local techniques like questioning the meaning of specific words and sentences, rarely integrating prior knowledge with the text, and failing to concentrate on the main ideas (Ibid). Similarly, Singhal (2001) draws the conclusion that more proficient readers use cognitive, memory, metacognitive, and compensatory strategies than less proficient readers. Less proficient readers typically concentrate on local issues like grammar, sound-letter correspondence, word meaning, and text specifics (Ibid). Currently, successful readers are also viewed as those who bring their life experience to the text they are reading. This goes with the modern conceptions of reading which viewed it as a process in which meaning is constructed by the reader who brings prior knowledge to the text (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007; Mehdi, 2017).

The case of the current study result is not quite different. As mentioned earlier, the study interview uncovered more and profound information regarding the chosen strategies of the high and low performers. Accordingly, high achiever interviewees use more and diverse reading strategies than poor achievers. One of the key reasons why high achievers consistently outperformed low achievers in the examinations is that high achievers employ a more and variety of tactics more frequently than low achievers. The kind of strategies high and low achievers utilized are top-down reading strategies and bottom-up strategies respectively. High achievers tended to use top-down strategies, for they are meaning seekers. Conversely, low achievers tended to employ bottom-up reading strategies because they are language structure oriented. Consequently, high achievers understand the significance of the strategies (i.e., helping students to make meaning), how to use them, and when they are best employed, which is often not the case with poor readers (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002). This depicts that using reading strategies, such as knowing a student's academic background, is just as important to test success as content knowledge. That is to say, test performance or test scores involve a wide range of variables, such as linguistic knowledge, world knowledge, analytical skills, time management skills, reading tactics and so on (Cohen, 2006; Dodeen, 2015; Ajideh & Nourdad, 2019).

Thus, reading is not merely a matter of having much content knowledge and high language level, but also of having the ability to use it strategically. Strategic reading, according to Okasha (2009), is using a variety of strategies and skills to construct meaning, and strategic readers are those who intentionally select and use strategies in their reading tasks in a way that is appropriate and effective. That is, when students used effective reading techniques, they ought to be able to accurately read text from print and other sources. These students engaged with the text as readers, and their deliberate actions improved their reading comprehension. Therefore, in order to meet these reading requirements, students would need to possess strategic knowledge, i.e., efficient reading techniques. This suggests that reading difficulties may be caused by incomplete understanding of the reading process rather than just by poor skill acquisition or ability.

D) Strategies Employed Prior to Reading

People who are learning a second language should bring a variety of learning techniques with them. Usually, successful students frequently utilize global or metacognitive tactics to improve their reading comprehension since they are aware of how difficult yet crucial they are. These students are able to support themselves for future learning successfully because they are able to decide what is best for themselves when the course material and teacher are unable to meet their needs. In relation to this, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) stated that students can learn to select the best metacognitive techniques to help them construct meaning from the texts they are reading if they are cognizant of the different metacognitive methods they can use.

High achievers and low achievers can be distinguished by how well they choose their approach to achieving their goals (Samperio, 2019). The common explanation for this is that students who are more aware of the appropriate learning strategies to use given the environment vary their use of strategies. For instance, successful learners often utilize global or metacognitive techniques more frequently in an EFL context than they do with other strategies because they know they do not have had enough exposure to the target language to have the opportunity to consciously acquire it. This is what the current study has discovered, with which the finding of Phakiti (2003) aligns, for it revealed that in an EFL environment, top achievers use global or metacognitive reading strategies more frequently than low achievers.

Students who adopt global methods (metacognitive strategies) are very good at developing the fundamental reading abilities and performing better on reading comprehension exams (Zhang, Seepho, & Zhang et al., 2013; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Such readers who are aware of metacognitive strategies have specific reading objectives and are aware of how to achieve those objectives. These diligent students are steadfast in sticking to their cognitive plans for reading activities, are able to adjust their techniques when necessary, assess themselves on their own initiative, take corrective action when necessary and reflect on their reading long after reading is concluded (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Hence, one of the key characteristics that separates effective learners from those who struggle with learning is the metacognitive abilities that allow pupils to become aware of their own thinking and learning processes (Samuels et al., 2005).

The low achieving respondents of this study, however, lack this essential reading strategy. As a result, they were unable to comprehend even simple texts written in English. A rationale for this to happen is that they do not have awareness about the importance of these strategies and hence, they do not practice global or metacognitive reading strategies as frequently as possible both in and outside of their reading classes. So, encouraging EFL students in general and unsuccessful ones in particular to practice more metacognitive reading strategies in classroom reading activities help them know how to read and be able to deal with a text independently. Scholars among whom Alexander et al. (2000) stated that global or metacognitive reading strategy is crucial in helping learners improve their performance, particularly in making use of problem-solving strategies effective and in bringing success in language learning.

Moreover, as it has been suggested by many researchers, the effective use of reading strategies relies heavily on the readers' comprehension monitoring (metacognitive ability). The low achiever students low use of RCSs, particularly the global reading strategies of monitoring could, therefore, have been responsible for why the participants performed poorly in the reading task. This, as the interviewees verified, have resulted from little teachers' attention to strategy teaching. The results of studies by Salataci and Akyel (2002) and Zhang and Seepho (2013) supported the notion that teaching students' metacognitive reading strategies increased their performance on reading comprehension tests.

E) Strategies Employed during Comprehension Difficulty

The two groups approached to problem-solving strategies when they faced text understanding difficulties. The sources of these difficulties are, however, slightly different to various researchers. According to Behroozizad and Bakhtiyarzadeh (2012), the reading comprehension difficulties that students in EFL settings face are caused by a variety of factors, including poor text interpretation, a lack of vocabulary, the adoption of ineffective reading strategies, and weak grammar skills. Similarly, Koda (2007) listed the factors that contribute to students' reading comprehension deficit involving vocabulary knowledge, prior knowledge, metacognitive information, and reading strategies. Mehdi (2017) asserts that insufficient vocabulary, ineffective lexical items, grammatical complexity, language accessibility issues, low reading proficiency, lack of background knowledge, and learners' disinterest are the typical reading challenges faced by EFL learners. Likewise, high and low achievers of the current study mentioned similar

sources but with varying degrees. These students apply problem-solving techniques to lessen the understanding gap that these sources have contributed to. However, only the subjects' approaches to addressing comprehension issues brought on by a lack of vocabulary, ineffective use of reading strategies and dearth of prior knowledge are covered in the part that follows.

It is obvious that comprehension is the ultimate goal of reading. In the process of meeting this goal, the role of knowing meaning of words in the text is irreplaceable. Thus, readers cannot overestimate the importance of vocabulary for the comprehension of the text. It is actually impossible to know every word that could appear in a text. Language learners need a vocabulary size of at least 10,000-word families to understand academic literature (Schmitt, 2000). The majority of EFL students find it tough to learn these various vocabulary sizes. Students must therefore use contextual guessing techniques to determine the meaning of new words.

When faced with unfamiliar terminology, successful readers employ purposeful measures like contextual guessing techniques. In order to decipher the literal and implicit meaning of unfamiliar words, they made use of the surrounding context, as well as the placement and structural roles of those words within paragraphs or clauses. All of these cues would eventually point them in the direction of the target words' most similar meanings. The frequent use of this strategy could become their reading behavior. So, while reading, they come up with these tactics and start applying them often. In this study, high achievers were able to decipher words more precisely and extract more meaning from the text by using contextual guessing techniques. In relation to this, Kaivanpanah and Alavi (2008) stated that the habit of successful readers that other people need to possess is contextual guessing strategy, which refers to the use of previous knowledge and linguistic signals to infer the meaning of new words of the text.

Normally, successful readers can actually comprehend a lot of reading passage through systematic guessing without necessarily comprehending all details (Oxford, 1990: 90). This is because high achievers are conscious of how to guess word meaning via various contextual clues and regularly use them to solve their vocabulary problems. Students who are able to build their vocabulary using contextual clues would be at ease to understand the written material and strengthens their vocabulary (Grabe, 2009). Consistent with this finding, Baker and Boonkit (2004) discovered that the high achieving respondents tended to use guessing meaning from the context in which it appears rather than just guessing the unknown words.

Moreover, high achievers of the current study appeared to approach their own reading comprehension challenge using problem-solving techniques considerably more successfully than the poor achievers. They claimed to use skimming to acquire the gist of the text, scanning to find specific information, and inferring to deduce the meaning of new things from the available information, concentrate thoroughly, predict outcomes, and other related techniques. Coinciding with this, Erler and Finkbeiner (2007), Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) and Tracey and Morrow (2006) in their research found that successful readers can distinguish between important and irrelevant information that is pertinent to their reading goals, predict what will happen next, pay due attention, read with cautiously and other reading skills. High-achieving students can also draw connections between their past knowledge and the new information in order to better understand the text's contents. This outcome is in line with Pressley and Hilden's (2006) discovery that skilled readers can use prior knowledge to increase the significance of their reading.

Low achievers, on the other hand, reported that they do not frequently employ both inference-based strategies and referential meaning strategies, which in the researcher's opinion are crucial for extracting meaning from written material. Instead, they heavily rely on dictionaries to resolve their comprehension issue because the unsuccessful learners believed that word knowledge is their main foundation for comprehension. This finding is consistent with Zhang's (2001) and Zhang and Wu (2009) results those struggling readers mostly turned to dictionaries for help. They also use techniques like translation and paying attention to specific words, which, according to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), are inefficient techniques. Because of this, their reading does not support them in using tactics like skimming and text prediction that would enable them resolve their reading comprehension problems independently. Additionally, low achievers read quickly since they are just concerned with finishing the text. They do not read purposefully and slowly to create meaning. A reading style that targets making text meaning gives students greater opportunity to concentrate on creating meaning rather than fluent decoding (Grabe, 2009).

By and large, in support of quantitative data, the response of the participants in the interview revealed that more problem-solving reading strategies were claimed by high achievers than their counterparts in this study, which is in agreement with Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), Mokhtari

and Sheorey (2002) who found that more successful readers adopt problem-solving reading strategies more often and they do so more broadly.

F) Strategies Adopted to Support Comprehension

In the interview response, both high and low achievers reflected to exploit certain SUP strategies to back up their text understanding. Only two of the support reading strategies (adopting reference or dictionary use and the use of translation) are presented for discussion hereunder.

In relation to dictionary use, both high and low achieving groups stated that they uniformly resorted to dictionary to help them find the meaning of unknown words. This often results in the improvement of their vocabulary power. The two groups difference lies on the type of dictionary they use, however. High achiever interviewees realized that understanding words' meanings of written texts improves comprehension. So, they make use of monolingual dictionaries, which, they think, are very helpful to fully understand the meaning of new words in the text. Nonetheless, all low achiever interviewees have rarely looked up a monolingual dictionary; instead, they consulted only a bilingual dictionary without which they really cannot understand the text and get the points of the text. The use of Monolingual dictionaries is helpful because a single word has numerous meanings some of which learners require to know. Students who frequently use bilingual dictionaries, however, rely on a one-to-one word correspondence between the definition of an unfamiliar word in the second language and translation in their native tongue.

Scholars such as Nunan (1991) argued that learners who struggled with language used dictionaries more frequently than those who learnt it well. In actuality, a dictionary is a valuable resource for improving reading comprehension. In addition to definitions, dictionaries provide information on how to spell words correctly, when to use them in specific contexts, and what synonyms and antonyms they have. And hence, using it may benefit students, especially, the English-English dictionary for the advantages that high achievers identified, one of which is 'memorizing the detail definitions of the word'. However, knowing a word is complex in that it entails not only the ability to recognize its form, or memorizing its definition provided in the dictionary, it also includes knowledge of usage of the word, e.g., formal/informal usage in the communication which learners cannot obtain from dictionary. Thus, dictionary does not

guarantee understanding the text in total, for it cannot deliver the secondary meaning of words; i.e., the contextual and cultural background of words in texts.

Besides bilingual dictionary, poor achievers frequently use translation techniques during reading, whereas high achievers seldom ever do in the current study. This result is consistent with Zhang's (2001) and Zhang and Wu (2009) observations that is, failing students commonly employ translation into L1 in their reading. The reading comprehension of the underachievers may be compromised by this circumstance. According to Chamot (2005), a successful reading approach is a key component of understanding written content. If so, poor achievers need to receive training on how to use reading strategies for academic texts efficiently.

G) Methods of Teaching Reading Strategies

Researchers have been in conundrum over the idea that effective reading strategies can teachable as of 1970s. In one of the recent studies done by Griffiths (2013), it was disclosed that effective tactics can be taught and acquired. In this study, high and low achieving interviewees were in different view over the kind of teaching strategies their teachers were teaching. While high achievers admitted that their teachers taught them various reading strategies implicitly, low achievers were unaware of this.

When the teacher is not administering appropriate teaching strategies that fit all his class students, the effectiveness of the strategy would be questionable. Good teachers provide students with appropriate ways of instruction to use reading strategies as efficiently and effectively as possible, and thereby they can promote independent learning. According to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), teachers should adhere to the following steps when instructing students in reading strategies: “(a) describe what the strategy is, (2) explain why the strategy should be learned and used, and (c) provide examples of the circumstances under which the strategies should be used” (p. 6). Thus, teachers can combine direct and indirect approach instruction to assist language learners in general and less successful learners in particular (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). The end result of such comprehension education should be student ownership of the tactics and abilities, as well as knowledge of when comprehension fails and how to fix it.

Research into reading has found that effective readers are conscious of the strategies they employ and use those strategies effectively and flexibly (Garner, 1987; Noli & Sabariah, 2011). These reading strategies could be taught to unsuccessful readers so that they can become more successful in their reading (Samuels et al., 2005). However, not all students will benefit from a strategy in the same manner. A learning strategy that works well for one student might not work well for another. Even unsuccessful L2 learners are sometimes discovered to use many strategies, although they use them in a random, untargeted, inefficient, and ineffective way (Oxford, 1990). Teachers must therefore help their students identify the reading techniques they currently employ, teach them how to choose their reading strategies wisely, and provide them with training on how to utilize them successfully. With the current teachers' knowledge of the subject, as interview result revealed, this will not come true. Thus, teachers must first be aware of the importance of reading strategies in EFL instruction before assisting their students in acquiring various reading strategies that are relevant to their learning styles and needs (Grabe, 2009; Sheory & Mokhtari, 2001).

The process of teaching reading is made easier when the sort of reading methods students employ and how they contribute to reading are known (Oxford, 1990). Therefore, teaching reading skills to students is something that is highly anticipated of all course instructors (Vacca, 2002). However, only a small percentage of teachers really use reading strategies in their classes since most teachers are unaware of how their pupils are using reading strategies (Ibid). This could threaten students' comprehension of what they are reading and prevent them from being able to resolve their reading problems on their own.

Many teachers, therefore, expect their students to take in all the information in the curriculum. As a result, several students are adept at reviewing and revising, which are considered forms of rote learning, or the memory of data through repetition (Himsel, 2012). Such an approach has no practical impact on producing sufficient raw materials to build an accurate memory (Ibid). This indicates that not all teachers can realize the importance of teaching reading strategies. As a result, teachers do not allocate an ample time to teaching students how to truly extract information from texts. So, reading instruction is not being done well. According to the interviewees, teachers mostly use reading to clarify the word meaning of the text. As Allen (1983) noted, there are three unfortunate outcomes when the teacher takes advantage of the time

allotted for vocabulary explanations: "1) The students remain overly dependent on the teacher; 2) Opportunities for learning to use a dictionary are lost; and 3) No class time is left for the communicative use of the language" (p. 82).

Since most educators hardly ever instruct their pupils in reading strategies, a lot of students relied on their teachers for assistance in translating passages, getting new word pronunciation and meanings correct, and this may partially account for how they were taught to read. Reading instruction that emphasizes learning grammar rules, pronouncing words, expanding vocabulary, and memorization can actually perplex students about the nature and goal of reading comprehension and yield students who lack strategic competency. Such pupils will work hard and continuously concentrate on word and letter decoding rather than meaning and comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Karasakaloglu, 2012).

In fact, it can be helpful to assist pupils in many ways when they are unaware of a language structure or key term, but using the same methods repeatedly might get tedious. Ethiopian students are victims because the structure rather than the meaning of teaching reading comprehension is the main focus. Griffiths (2008:263) suggests that it is preferable to use a variety of strategies to accommodate the various learning styles of pupils rather than choosing one approach and sticking with it. Thus, teachers must adapt their approach to the circumstances and the needs of the students.

Despite severe in grade schools, reading strategies are not taught as the strategy requires even in higher institutions in Ethiopia. The teachers' methods for teaching reading strategies were not well suited to the wants and interests of the failing students. Because they were not taught how to read independently, students who were spoon-fed by their teachers rely entirely on them for any reading difficulties they encounter. Perhaps as a result, even while reading strategies are implicitly taught to low achiever students in class, they nevertheless perceive them as not having been taught. However, the researcher firmly believes that reading strategies should be explicitly taught under the premise that students are not required to use any particular reading strategies and are instead allowed the choice to choose any that they deem appropriate for their learning styles. Moreover, although further evidence needs to be collected, there is a high tendency of favoring to grammar and vocabulary teaching in reading class. This occurs because of the

Ethiopian conventional methods of teaching and learning the English language; an educational system that prioritizes examinations at the expense of learning processes that involve critical thinking and cognition during learning process.

Summing up, the results of the interview revealed that the students who performed better spent more time reading, made a greater effort to learn new words via guessing strategies and paid more attention to the grammar and sentence structure of the languages they learned. According to Brown (2001), a learner's personal "investment" of time, effort, and attention into the second language in the form of a unique battery of strategies for understanding and producing the language will account for a large portion of their success in mastering the second language learning (in this case, a foreign language) they are learning.

However, the interview findings revealed that low achievers are less interested in reading than high achievers are. Therefore, EFL instructors should motivate their students via providing interesting reading materials during their class time as well as to be read outside of the class. The interview response also revealed that low achieving students have poor language competence. As a result, their reading abilities and their reading comprehension were gravely influenced. Many theorists and researchers believe that poor reading abilities and limited language knowledge are directly responsible for EFL learners' difficulties with reading comprehension (Hudson, 2007).

Furthermore, low achieving interviewees reflected their view during the interview that they approach academic English texts from the bottom up, and they are not aware of the techniques their English teachers employ to teach reading strategies. Students who frequently exhibit these behaviors when academic reading hardly ever use reading strategies. To this effect, their reading would be jeopardized to a large extent.

In the overall study result, the reading strategies reported to be used by the low achievers of the present study are inferior to those of high achievers in each of the three categories of Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002). This could be connected to the overall conduct they display during learning. According to Normazidah, Koo, and Hazita (2012 cited in Samperio 2019), low achievers have the following traits: they view English as a challenging subject to learn; they look to the teacher as an authority figure; they lack support for using English outside of the classroom; they are not

exposed to the target language; they have a limited vocabulary; and they lack the motivation to learn English, which results in a negative attitude toward learning English.

In the context of reading in an EFL setting, Carrell (1998) argues that problems that could prevent language learners from reading are caused by the inability to use reading strategies effectively; these problems include failure to monitor comprehension, belief that strategies won't improve reading, ignorance of text failure, lack of interest in the text, reluctance to use strategies, and preference for well-known but archaic strategies over less-known but more potent ones. The poor achiever interviewees had these habits in one way or another, which threaten their ability to properly communicate with the author or writer of the text and hinder their reading comprehension, both of which have a negative impact on their reading performance.

Having looked into the result and discussion, next is Chapter 6. In this chapter, summary of the study and the findings of the data analyses that had been made under quantitative and qualitative analyses are summarized and presented. Based on the findings, conclusions are drawn, addressing the intended objectives. In the end, implications, recommendations and areas for future studies are forwarded.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This thesis must be concluded, just as all research must, and the conclusion will be provided in chapter 6. The study's summary and the findings of the data analyses—which included both quantitative and qualitative techniques—are presented in this chapter. Conclusions are made that address the intended objectives in light of the findings. Finally, conclusions, recommendations, and directions for more research are provided.

6.2. Summary of the Study

The present study was an investigation to reveal what kind of reading strategies are generally used by Wollo University first year social science students enrolled in the course (FLEn 1011), and find out whether there are differences between high and low achieving students in the use of reading strategy while reading academic materials. It also explored the relationship between students' reading strategy use and their reading test performance with a focus on academic reading in an environment where English is a foreign language. Six basic research questions that the study was to answer were formulated in order to achieve these goals (See Chapter One, Section 1.4).

Primarily, the pilot study was carried out at Wollo University in the academic year 2021 with 22 first-year social science students. A questionnaire, the TOEFL reading test, and interviews were used to ensure that the necessary data was collected for the main study. The use of reading strategies by students was examined using the SORS questionnaire, which is a survey of reading strategies. The TOEFL reading test was used to evaluate the general reading ability of the students. Besides, six students were interviewed to determine their usage and perceptions of reading strategies.

Then, the main study was conducted on first year social science students at Wollo University in 2022/2023 academic year. Using random sampling technique, three sections from those who were taking Communicative English skills course were selected to participate in the study. In

total, they were 135 from which 60 samples were again taken, (high achievers =30, low achievers=30). The responses of these samples were taken into account when conducting the statistical analyses.

In order to analyze and interpret quantitative data, a variety of methods were employed. To compute the whole participants, high and low achieving participants' problem-solving, global, and support reading strategy use, descriptive statistics like frequency counting, mean value, and standard deviation were used. Independent t-test was also used to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in the strategies used by high and low achievers. Moreover, using Pearson product moment correlation, the relationship between students' reading performance and reading strategy use was determined. And regression was also used to determine which strategy predict students' reading performance. Nevertheless, to analyze qualitative data, thematic analysis was used.

Fundamental research questions serve as a foundation for summarizing the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analyses. Thus, under each research question, the conclusions drawn from the data analyses are summarized as follows.

The first research question is that “What Type and Frequency of Reading Strategies do first-year social science Students Use in their Academic Reading Process?”

This query aims to explore the frequency level, type or variety of reading strategies used by Wollo University first year social science students enrolled in the course (FLEn 1011). As the overall mean result revealed, the participant students reported to employ reading strategies in medium usage ($M = 3.18$), which suggests that first year social science students employ reading strategies sometimes during their academic reading. Regardless of their reading ability or gender, students prefer Problem Solving Reading Strategies over the other two strategy subcategories: Support Reading Strategies and Global Reading Strategies.

The second research question is that “What Type and Frequency of Reading Strategies do High and Low Achiever Students Use in their Academic Reading Process?”

As the overall mean result revealed, the high achiever students reported to employ reading strategies in high usage ($M = 3.93$ $SD = 0.904$), whereas the low achiever students claimed to

use these strategies in low usage ($M = 2.41$ $SD = 1.023$). This suggests that high achiever and low achiever students use these strategies at varying rates, with high achiever students being most frequent users and low achiever students with less frequent users.

When comparing the two groups' participants reading strategy frequency use at categorical level, the result revealed that high achievers employed reading strategies more often than low achievers in the categories of global, problem-solving, and support reading strategy use. They reported to adopt the first two reading strategies at a rate of high frequency and the last, at a medium frequency rate.

On the other hand, low achievers claimed to employ the category of GLOB reading strategies at a rate of low frequency and the categories of PROB and SUP reading strategies at the rate of medium frequency. Among the three categories, low achieving participants preferred GLOB strategies with ($M = 1.99$ $SD = 0.89$) least. This average percentage of students using the global strategy is thought to be a sign of how little they actually use it. Therefore, the majority of low achiever students underuse the global reading strategies. These students appeared to lack the opportunities that reading with global reading strategies could provide. In other words, they are unable to keep track of and assess their reading.

At individual strategy choice level, the most favored reading strategy of successful students in the current study was visualizing. As their least favored strategy was the strategy of reading aloud. The unsuccessful students, on the other hand, ranked setting purpose as their bottom strategy while preferring the rereading strategy as their top one.

The third research question is that “Is there any Significant Difference between High and Low Achieving Students in Reading Strategy Use?”

As the independent samples t-test run on high and low achievers' strategy use showed, problem-solving, global, and support reading strategies used by high and low achievers have statistical significance values of 0.000, which is less than the significance p-value of 0.01. This suggests that high achievers and low achievers use these strategies in very different ways. The fact that high achiever students use problem-solving, global, and support reading strategies more

frequently than low achievers, it is possible to say that these strategies are related to students' reading achievement.

The fourth research question is that “To what extent do reading strategies predict students’ performance in reading comprehension test?”

As the result depicts, there are strong positive relationship between the subjects’ use of global, problem-solving and support reading strategies and reading comprehension achievement with a correlation coefficient of (0.945, 0.895 and 0.754) respectively. For each, the statistical significance value is less than (0.01). The three category of reading strategies predict students’ reading ability. This finding demonstrates that the students' comprehension level and their use of global, problem-solving, or support reading strategies are positively correlated. The regression result also shows that the three types of reading strategies with varying degree influenced students’ reading achievements. Thus, global and problem-solving strategies predict students’ reading performance more than support reading strategies do.

The fifth research question is that “Is there any Relationship between high and low achieving Students’ Reading Strategy Use and their Reading Performance?”

This research question was targeting to identify whether the reading strategies used by high and low achievers correlate significantly with their reading test scores. When looked into the correlation between high and low achieving participants and their reading strategy use at categorical level, the result showed a correlational difference. High and low achieving students’ use of GLOB were significantly correlated to their scores (GLOB: $r=.611$ and $r=.667$) respectively. The significance value of (0.00) for each proficiency level is less than (0.001). It can be inferred that there is a significant positive correlation between the students' comprehension level and these global reading strategies. That is, perhaps, students’ reading comprehension test result improves with increased use of global reading strategies. In strength, however, unsuccessful students reading achievement and their global reading strategy use coefficient point is slightly greater than high achieving students. So that the relationship between reading performance and global reading strategy used by low achievers is stronger than the high achievers.

In the correlation between using PROB strategies by high and low achievers and reading comprehension scores, the result depicted that high achieving students' use of PROB were significantly correlated to their scores (PROB: $r=.479$, $p=.007$) whereas low achieving students' use of PROB were not significantly correlated to their scores (PROB: $r=.349$, $p=.059$). This result shows a positive relationship between high achieving students' use of problem-solving reading strategies and their comprehension level and a negative relationship between low achieving students' use of problem-solving reading strategies and their comprehension level.

A difference correlation of significance was also seen between using SUP reading strategies by high and low achievers and reading comprehension scores. High achievers use of SUP was not significantly correlated to their scores (SUP: $r=-.013$, $p=.945$). On the contrary, low achieving students' use of SUP was significantly correlated to their scores (SUP: $r=.582$, $p=.001$). This finding envisages that there is a negative relationship between high achievers' use of SUP reading strategies and their comprehension level. The more the support reading strategies high achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores decreases. Nonetheless, there is a positive relationship between low achieving students' use of support reading strategies and their reading comprehension scores. The more the support reading strategies low achieving students use, their reading comprehension scores increases.

The sixth research question was that what do Learners with High and Low FL Reading Proficiency say about their use of FL Reading Strategies while Reading Academic Materials?

This research question was to seek answers on How and why learners with high and low FL reading proficiency use FL reading strategies while reading academic materials in English. In order to meet this objective, students were asked different questions during face-to-face interviews.

In the first interview question that concerns students' interest to reading academic materials, it was discovered that their interest in reading academic materials in English was directly correlated with their reading proficiency. That is, students who were proficient readers are interested in reading in English because they knew that reading helps them for future success.

Students with poor reading skills, on the other hand, lacked interest in reading in English. Thus, it is very unlikely to see them using various reading strategies during academic reading.

In relation to role of reading skills for academic success, the interview response result revealed that as opposed to low achievers, high scorers in the reading test have the key opportunity to facilitate learning and achievement in other subjects as well. And failure to comprehend English text results into failure to understand other subjects.

The question that asks students to state the challenges they faced in their academic reading, both groups stated that language proficiency deficiency, lack of concentration, inadequate awareness of reading strategies and their application in various context, vocabulary deficits, and content difficulty were found as their major reading problems with varying degrees.

For example, in connection with strategies or techniques they utilize to learn and/or/ improve their English reading skills, high achievers reported that they attempt to guess meaning of new words while reading various academic materials while low achievers replied that they study and memorize words. Also, high achievers read whatever they got in the form of hard and soft copy whereas low achievers read whatever displayed in social media and improve their reading in English.

In the approach to Reading Academic Materials, the majority of high achieving interviewees reported to approach academic materials through the top-down and interactive approach whereas the majority of low achievers approached academic text via bottom-up method. Therefore, the type of reading strategies used by two groups' interviewees exhibit dissimilarity. As the results showed, high achievers outperformed their peers in all three of the category components, not just in terms of strategy frequency but also in terms of magnitude or number. It was also found that high achievers are more aware of these strategies and their application than low achievers.

To the question that aims at showing students' views concerning whether their teacher teaches reading strategies or not, all the high achievers responded positively indicating their teacher taught them reading strategies implicitly. However, many low achievers reported that their teacher do not teach them reading strategies because they were not taught reading strategies in the way they were interested (I.e., explicitly).

Therefore, high achievers expressed that their teachers taught them various reading strategies in the three phases of teaching, which are pre-reading, during which students are given an overview of the lesson, while-reading, during which students are given various reading activities, and post-reading, during which students are given various activities that aid in improving their evaluations. However, low achievers are unaware of their teachers' actions during these phases. Moreover, both groups member uniformly reflected in the interview that their teachers employed reading mainly to teach vocabulary and grammar. So, they taught students about meaning of words, formation of words... rather than concentrating on activities that can improve students' reading skills and enhance their reading comprehension abilities.

6.3. Conclusions of the Study

This study has provided a picture of reading strategies preferred by first-year social science students and by those who achieved high and low in reading test in Wollo University. The findings of this study provided a better understanding of reading strategies used by these students. The study also uncovers the relation between students' reading strategy use and their reading performance. On the basis of these findings, the ensuing conclusions are drawn.

As the overall mean result revealed, the kind of reading strategies and their frequency are reported to be generally used by Wollo University first year social science students in medium usage ($M = 3.18$). This suggests that students of Wollo University employ reading strategies sometimes while they are reading academic materials. Additionally, students, regardless of their reading ability, gender, field of studies and other variables prefer the Problem-Solving Reading Strategies subcategory over the other two, (i.e., Support Reading Strategies, and Global Reading Strategies).

Regarding the frequency of reading strategies high and low achievers use, the study revealed that high achieving participants employed reading strategies at the rate of high frequency ($M=3.93$) indicating that they utilize reading strategies regularly during reading academic English texts. Therefore, there is a reasonable awareness of all reading techniques among high achieving students, and they consider all of the skills to be roughly equally important. Due to their high usage of reading strategies, they can also be regarded as active readers. It was also found that the

high usage of reading techniques can improve students' comprehension, for it may have a direct impact on their reading performance.

On the contrary, low achieving participants adopted reading strategies at the rate of low frequency ($M=2.41$) suggesting that they utilize reading strategies occasionally during reading academic English texts. This envisages that low achievers are not aware of many reading strategies. Such students' low usage of reading techniques jeopardizes their reading comprehension which in turn affects their reading performance. Therefore, it can be concluded that the strategy use result of low achievers is not satisfactory.

At categorical level, out of the three strategy sub-categories, both problem-solving and global reading strategies were employed by high achieving participants at high frequency level. And support reading strategies were adopted at medium usage. Nonetheless, both problem-solving and support reading strategies were employed by low achieving participants at medium frequency level. And global reading strategies were adopted at low usage. PROB strategies ranked first in the choice of the two groups. It follows that when students struggle to understand academic texts, they are more likely to use problem-solving reading strategies rather than global or supportive reading strategies. This tendency or adherence by students to a particular strategy in their academic reading process cannot produce the desired outcome, which is a thorough understanding of the academic materials.

In comparison to low achievers, High achievers use many reading strategies of the SORS frequently. Reading strategies used by high achievers also outnumbered low achievers in terms of global, problem-solving and support reading strategy use. Therefore, it can be concluded that students who used more strategies and did so more frequently would succeed more at reading comprehension. It can also be concluded that high achievers have a higher level of metacognitive awareness of the strategies they employ, which has much contribution for their reading comprehension ability.

Concerning the difference between high and low achievers in connection of reading strategy use, a significant difference was observed between the two groups. That is, high achievers favored global, problem-solving and support reading strategies at high frequency rate whereas low achievers reported to use global reading strategies at low frequency level and the last two at

medium frequency rate. In addition to T-test result, The effect size is 1.442. This means that there is a strong relationship between students' reading strategy use and their reading achievement.

In relation to predicting strategy power result, it was found out that participants' reading strategies in general are correlated with reading achievement strongly, statistically, significantly and positively. Use of reading strategies is crucial to the process of language learning in general and reading in particular, as evidenced by the strong correlation found between reading comprehension achievement and strategy use. Moreover, the adjusted R squares of the two strategies global and problem solving for reading proficiency were superior to support reading strategies. The results of the adjusted R squares of the two reading strategies showed the strong predictor level of reading proficiency. This leads to say that reading strategies were good predictor to reading comprehension, for the result of predicted reading comprehension tests score was more than 56%. It means the three category of reading strategy influenced students' achievement in reading score.

However, the relation between high and low achievers' strategy uses and their reading test scores separately exhibited different results. Both high and low achieving students' use of GLOB strategies were significantly correlated to their reading scores. In strength, however, low achievers' reading achievement and their global reading strategy use coefficient point is slightly greater than high achieving students. So that the relationship between reading performance and global reading strategy used by low achievers is stronger than the high achievers. As opposed to this, high achieving students' use of PROB were significantly correlated to their reading test scores whereas low achieving students' use of PROB were not significantly correlated to their reading test scores. This suggests positive and negative relationship between the use of problem-solving reading strategies and reading test scores for high achievers and low achievers respectively. Moreover, high achievers use of SUP was not significantly correlated to their scores. On the contrary, low achieving students' use of SUP was significantly correlated to their reading test scores.

The results of the interview responses support the quantitative findings. That is, while high achievers are aware about metacognitive reading strategies and how to apply them to some extent, low achieving students do not know about them, nor do apply in their reading appropriately and effectively. More specifically, the low achievers do not know about global reading strategies, nor do they employ in their reading than the others. This jeopardizes their success in reading and their academic achievement. Even in their use of problem-solving and support reading strategies, low achievers are not as effective as the high achievers.

Consolidating the result of quantitative data, the interview results revealed that in the following four key areas, low achievers differ from their peers in a few key ways. Low achievers, in contrast to high achievers, are less interested in reading, approach academic English texts from the bottom up, have poor language competence, Ineffective use of reading strategies and unaware of the methods teachers use to teach reading strategies, which, in one way or another, may be the reason why they use different reading strategies. The finding also revealed that instructors taught students comprehension strategies implicitly with which low achievers are not comfortable. This is because they want guidance in choosing the right strategies via explicit strategy instruction.

Summing up, apart from providing useful information about the university high and low achiever students' use of reading strategies, the study's conclusion, which confirms that more reading-proficient students do in fact use high metacognitive strategies, has helped to advance research in this area. Moreover, students use strategies when reading texts in a foreign language, especially English, to help them understand what the texts are about. Every student uses a different set of reading techniques. It's possible that both high achievers and low achievers employ the same techniques. Higher and lower achievers would, to some extent, have different time allotments, reading frequencies, and strategy investments despite the fact that they both use reading strategies. Failure to use reading strategies could result from inappropriate use, a lack of motivation to use them, or a lack of interest in the reading material. Knowing the tactics would be useless if interest remained low.

6.4. Implications and Recommendations

In this study, an attempt has been made to demonstrate clearly the difficulties of students at freshman level in utilizing their reading strategies appropriately and effectively. It has also been revealed the students' dearth of consciousness in assessing their own reading performance. These difficulties importantly envisage the dearth of strategy use awareness input in the Ethiopian educational system, particularly in relation to how students can investigate critically their own strategy use and how they can look for clarifications for the limitation of success in their reading comprehension. Owing to these problems, therefore, it is significant to recommend the following points to raise an awareness of strategy use in the Ethiopian educational system.

First and foremost, this study might provide better understanding of the pattern of reading strategy use by Ethiopian high and low achieving students when reading academic text. The findings of this study could potentially assist EFL learners in transitioning from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach. When students are aware of the reading strategies they employ, they become less reliant on the teacher in the classroom and become more self-directed in addressing their language reading needs.

Students can be gradually taught how to evaluate not only their reading performance but also their strategy use at the higher levels (colleges and/or universities), where the cognitive development of the students is higher. Additionally, they should be taught how to assess which sets of strategies are effective for them and which are not, as well as how to modify and, if necessary, reject some strategies based on the results of this assessment. Additionally, if significant improvement in the students' reading performance at this level is to occur, they should first recognize their own role in the solution and take ownership of their own education. Once students are aware of advantages of using reading strategies in their reading process, they will be willing to and appropriately employ these strategies to facilitate their reading comprehension.

Teachers must be knowledgeable about issues related to strategy awareness in order to help students become more aware of these issues. This includes understanding how strategies affect the process and results of a particular learning activity (for example, reading) and how strategies relate to other factors like cognitive processing capacity. Teachers should also be aware that

every student is unique, and that this has an impact on learning, especially when it comes to using different language learning techniques in the classroom.

Differences in reading strategy proficiency in the classroom have significant implications for the conduct of reading lessons. Offering opportunities to apply reading strategies in ways that suit each proficiency level in mixed-ability classes can be challenging because high and low achievers have different reading strategies. Teachers must still, however, give both high and low achieving students relevant and appropriate learning opportunities because providing such opportunities for mixed-ability groups has a tremendous value to promote cooperative learning.

Furthermore, as the research revealed, there was a correlation between reading proficiency and the degree to which high and low achievers used reading strategies. In order to better understand how they employ their own strategies, students should be made aware of this and asked to review their results. Students who employed more reading strategies and were successful would receive positive reinforcement, which would encourage them to continue utilizing more appropriate reading strategies, and those who employed a low number of reading strategies would be encouraged to use more in the future and to broaden the range of strategies they used.

Therefore, teachers should motivate group work and assign successful students in these groups to provide scaffolding and support less able students to employ strategies effectively. It suggests that unsuccessful readers require instruction on reading strategies more than successful ones. The needs and individual characteristics of each student should be taken into account during this comprehension instruction. The strategies that teachers want to teach should also be critically examined by them in order to determine the contexts in which they should be used. Additionally, they ought to give all students the chance to put these techniques into practice both inside and outside of the classroom. Simply put, in order to help less successful students, succeed and master the reading skills, language teachers must incorporate reading strategies into their instruction of reading, take into account their students' reading strategies, and make an effort to realize and identify these strategies.

As evidenced by the open-ended SORS questions that students answered as well as the analyses of the student interviews, students employed certain reading strategies during the reading process, but far from enough. As a result, teachers of English reading courses are expected to

teach strategies. Thus, EFL teachers should primarily realize the way in which their students currently utilize reading strategies by investigating the reading techniques they employ at the start of lessons, attempting to identify the students' strengths and weakness, and providing opportunities for them to apply new methods and address their weakness. In addition, they should enhance their students' reading abilities by providing students with explanations on the purpose, application, and methodology of specific reading strategies as well as groups of strategies in the classroom, and by modelling various reading strategies for use outside of the classroom. Particularly, they need to offer rigorous training on making use of different kinds of global reading strategies with relevant reading exercises.

What is more, the necessity for teachers to emphasize the strategies—in this case, the global and problem-solving strategies/metacognitive and cognitive strategies—that have a strong correlation with students' proficiency levels has another significant practical implication. This could have educational implications for successful instruction and learning and assist students in improving their reading abilities.

Despite the fact that numerous researchers verified that less-proficient learners may benefit even more from the use of global reading strategies, low achievers in this study were not aware about these strategies, and hence they employ these strategies more rarely than other types of strategies. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers should primarily aware about the reading strategies. To this effect, they will alter their teaching style somewhat to accommodate their students' reading strategies and employ instructional materials and strategies accordingly. Then, teachers should train these students by focusing on these strategies because knowing and applying these strategies appropriately has a great contribution in the process of reading comprehension of English text.

Therefore, teacher training institutions, colleges, and universities in Ethiopia should provide regular and in-service training on language learning strategies as well as on the most up-to-date teaching and learning techniques for reading skills. This will help teachers update their knowledge, practically cultivate their teaching style, and manage academic challenges. Once teachers are well-versed in various reading strategies, they can suggest their students' various techniques to deal with different challenging reading tasks. if, for example, one tactic fails, they

ought to be able to recommend an alternate course of action. This enables teachers to impart language learning techniques in an efficient and successful manner.

Furthermore, it is crucial for language educators to pay close attention to their students, teach them the proper strategies, and encourage them to use them as frequently as possible because strategy use will result in improved language proficiency overall or in a particular skill area. In addition, they should create reading assignments that call for a variety of strategies from their students. They should hold a discussion session with them after the task is finished to go over the strategies they used and whether or not they were successful. Additionally, teachers should give their students the chance to self-reflect on the strategies they use, choose the one that works best for them, or discover alternative methods for completing a particular reading assignment.

In terms of the implications for material producers, material designers should make sure that the modules or materials they develop suit the needs and interests of the students as well as the learning styles of the students. In other words, the various assignments and exercises should be thoughtfully designed to engage students with a range of reading abilities and learning styles. Students should be required to use a variety of reading strategies or techniques in the tasks and activities that are created for them. To determine the benefits and drawbacks of their materials, reading skills course material creators should solicit teacher and student feedback. They will be able to produce better materials as a result, as well as advance their professional careers. Thus, giving students instructional materials along with a learning strategy is a good idea to yield better language learning results and idealized teaching fruit.

There are several recommendations for additional research based on interpretations of the study's findings. It is advised that this study be replicated first, with

- A) A number of university-level EFL students participate in the study;
- B) The SORS is used in conjunction with other data collection methods, such as diaries;
- C) Proficiency in other language skills, (e.g., speaking, listening and writing) is linked to the utilization of language learning strategy.

Second, to more fully address the issues raised in this study, a longitudinal study that uses the same participants over an extended period of time is required. This will allow researchers to examine when participants' reading comprehension levels rise and the reading strategies they use, as well as compare the outcomes within and between different groups (gender and learners with different field of studies).

Third, a more thorough examination of the factors affecting the acquisition of English reading skills is required. The use of various reading strategies may be influenced by affective elements like anxiety, motivation, and self-efficacy. To create a more accurate and comprehensive picture of what happens to a person as they learn reading skills in English as a foreign language, language teachers and researchers must take into account as many variables as they can.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Survey of Reading Strategy Questionnaire

Dear Students:

Depending upon your language learning experience and needs, you may be using various types of reading strategies. The following questions are, thus, aimed at obtaining information on the way of using reading strategies to achieve comprehension in reading. It has no any sort of evaluation intention and you are not evaluated based on the response you give to the questions.

The information will be used only for the purpose of the doctoral study and will be treated with strict confidence. Your participation in completing this questionnaire is voluntary and it will be of utmost importance to the success of the study.

Thank you very much for your willingness in advance!

Directions: Please read carefully each statement and choose one answer that tells how well the statement describes you in Reading. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Do not write your name anywhere in this paper.

Mark (^) after one of the options (Never or almost never do this, only occasionally do this, Sometimes do this, Usually do this, and Always or almost always do this) of each statement describing the extent to which you agree or disagree with.

Remember:

Never or almost never do this means that you are very rarely using strategies expressed in the statement.

Only occasionally do this means that you are rarely using the strategies.

Sometimes do this means that you are using the strategies about half the time.

Usually do this means that you are using the strategies more than half the time.

Always or almost always do this means that you are using the strategies almost always.

Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire will be a great contribution to the success of the study. Your responses will be kept confidential. Do not write your name.

Thank you in advance!

Id. No----- Sex ----- Age-----

No.	Item	Never or almost never do this	Only occasionally do this	Sometimes do this	Usually do this	Always or almost always do this
1.	I have a purpose in mind when I read.					
2.	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.					
3.	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.					
4.	I like an overview of the text to see what it's about before reading it.					
5.	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.					
6.	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.					
7.	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I'm reading.					
8.	I review the text first by noticing its characteristics like length or organization.					
9.	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.					
10.	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.					
11.	I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.					
12.	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.					
13.	I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.					
14.	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.					
15.	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.					
16.	I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.					
17.	I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading.					
18.	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.					
19.	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.					
20.	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.					

No.	Item	Never or almost never do this	Only occasionally do this	Sometimes do this	Usually do this	Always or almost always do this
21.	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.					
22.	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.					
23.	I check my understanding when I come across new information.					
24.	I try to predict or guess what the content is about when I read.					
25.	When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.					
26.	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.					
27.	I check to see if my predictions or guesses about the text are right or wrong.					
28.	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.					
29.	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.					
30.	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.					

Open-Ended Question

31. Specify any reading strategies you use other than those listed above.

Appendix B: The three Categories of Reading Strategies

The category of Problem-solving strategies

7. I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading
9. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.
11. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.
14. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading
16. I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading
19. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read
25. When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding
28. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases

The following reading strategies fall under the category of Global strategies

1. I have a purpose in mind when I read
3. I activate my background knowledge
4. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it
6. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose
8. I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organizations
12. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore
15. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding
17. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading
20. I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information
21. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text
23. I check my understanding when I come across new information
24. I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read
27. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong

The following reading strategies fall under the category of Support strategies

2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read
10. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.
13. I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read
18. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read
22. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.
26. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.
29. When reading, I translate from English into my native language.
30. When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.

Appendix C: Reading Comprehension Test

Time Allowed = one hour

Dear Students,

The purpose of administering this test is to collect data that will be used in a doctoral study under the title Exploring the relation between reading strategy use and reading performance among first year Wollo university students.

The answers you provide will be kept with utmost confidentiality and used only for the purpose of the study. Each answer earned marks that was computed in the final exam of the course. Thus, writing your name or your ID number anywhere in the test paper is important.

But, participation in the study is still voluntary. Therefore, if you do not want to participate, you can decide not to participate.

Thank you very much for your willingness in advance!

Directions: this test consists of four short passages. Each one is followed by several questions about it. And you are to choose the one best answer,

(A) , (B), (C), or (D) to each question. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that matches to the letter of the answer you have chosen.

Please respond all the questions according to the passage. If you have any questions, late the teacher know immediately.

You can now start doing the questions.

Every year about two million people visit Mount Rushmore, where the faces of four U.S. presidents were carved in granite by sculpture Gutzon Borglum and his son, the late Lincoln Borglum. The creation of the Mount Rushmore monument took 14 years-from 1927to 1941-and a million dollars. These were times when money was difficult to come by and many people were jobless. To move more than 400,000 tons of rock, Borglum hired laid-off workers from the closed-down mines in the Black Hills area. He taught these men to dynamite, drill, carve, and finish the granite as they were hanging in midair in his specially devised chairs, which had many safety features.

(9) Borglum was proud of the fact that no workers were killed or severely injured during the years of blasting and carving. During the carving, many changes in the original design had to be made to keep the carved heads free of large fissures that were uncovered. However, not all the cracks could be avoided, so Borglum concocted a mixture of granite dust, white lead, and linseed oil to fill them.

(14) Every winter, water from melting snows gets into the fissures and expands as it freezes, making the fissures bigger. Consequently, every autumn maintenance work is done to refill the cracks. The repairers swing out in space over a 500-foot drop and fix the monument with the same mixture that Borglum used to preserve this national monument for future generations.

1. This passage is mainly about
 - A. The visitors to the Mount Rushmore monument
 - B. The faces at the Mount Rushmore monument
 - C. The sculptor of the Mount Rushmore monument
 - D. The creation of the Mount Rushmore monument
2. According to the passage, Borglum's son
 - A. is dead
 - B. was a president
 - C. did maintenance work
 - D. spent a million dollars
3. The men who Borglum hired were
 - A. trained sculptors
 - B. laid-off stone masons
 - C. black Hills volunteers
 - D. unemployed miners
4. It can be inferred from the passage that
 - A. the heads are not as originally planned
 - B. the workers made mistakes when blasting
 - C. the cracks caused serious injuries
 - D. the designs had large fissures in them
5. Borglum's mixture for filling cracks was
 - A. very expensive
 - B. bought at Black Hills mines
 - C. invented by the sculptor himself
 - D. uncovered during carving
6. Today, Mount Rushmore needs to be
 - A. protected from air pollution
 - B. polished for tourists
 - C. restored during the winter
 - D. repaired periodically

7. Which of the following is true according to the passage?
- A. It took forty years to create Mount Rushmore monument
 - B. Borglum was proud as some workers were killed during carving
 - C. Maintenance work is done to refill the cracks every autumn
 - D. There were 14 faces carved at the Mount Rushmore monument

Vocabulary and Reference Questions

8. The word “devised” in paragraph one, line 7 is closest in meaning to _____
- A. designed
 - B. described
 - C. decorated
 - D. elevated
9. The word “concocted” in paragraph two, line 12 is closest in meaning to _____
- A. carried
 - B. prepared
 - C. prevented
 - D. covered
10. The word “expands” in paragraph three, line 14 is closest in meaning to _____
- A. dilates
 - B. enlarges
 - C. contracts
 - D. shrinks
11. The word “preserve” in paragraph three, line 17 is closest in meaning to _____
- A. prevent
 - B. keep
 - C. show
 - D. destroy

12. The word “these” in paragraph one, line 4 refers to _____
- A. faces
 - B. dollars
 - C. times
 - D. workers
13. The word “they” In paragraph one, line 7 refers to _____
- A. Black Hills
 - B. chairs
 - C. features
 - D. men
14. The word “fissures” In paragraph two, line 11 refers to _____
- A. designs
 - B. cracks
 - C. heads
 - D. carvings
15. The word “them” In paragraph two, line 13 refers to _____
- A. cracks
 - B. Borglum
 - C. mixtures
 - D. fissures

Questions 16-25 are about the following passage.

Line..... When another old cave is discovered in the south of France, it is not usually news. Rather, it is an ordinary event. Such discoveries are so frequent these days that hardly anybody pays heed to them. However, when the Lascaux cave complex was discovered in 1940, the world was amazed. Painted directly on its walls were hundreds of scenes showing how people (5) lived thousands of years ago. The scenes show people hunting animals, such as bison or wild cats. Other images depict birds and, most noticeably, horses, which appear in more than 300 wall images, by far outnumbering all other animals.

Early artists drawing these animals accomplished a monumental and difficult task. They did not limit themselves to the easily accessible walls but carried their painting materials to spaces that (10) required climbing steep walls or crawling into narrow passages in the Lascaux complex.

Unfortunately, the paintings have been exposed to the destructive action of water and temperature changes, which easily wear the images away. Because the Lascaux caves have many entrances, air movement has also damaged the images inside. Although they are not out in the open air, where natural light would have destroyed them long ago, many of the images have (15)

deteriorated and are barely recognizable. To prevent further damage, the site was closed to tourists in 1963, 23 years after it was discovered.

16. Which title best summarizes the main idea of the passage?

- (A) Wild Animals in Art
- (B) Hidden Prehistoric Paintings
- (C) Exploring Caves Respectfully
- (D) Determining the Age of French Caves

17. In line 3, the words pays heed to are closest in meaning to _____.

- (A) discovers
- (B) watches
- (C) notices
- (D) buys

18. Based on the passage, what is probably true about the south of France?

- (A) It is home to rare animals.
- (B) It has a large number of caves.
- (C) It is known for horse-racing events.
- (D) It has attracted many famous artists.

19. In line 6, the word depict is closest in meaning to _____.

- (A) show
- (B) hunt
- (C) count
- (D) draw

20. According to the passage, which animals appear most often on the cave walls?

- (A) Birds
- (B) Bison
- (C) Horses
- (D) Wild cats

21. In line 8, the word They refers to _____.

- (A) walls
- (B) artists
- (C) animals
- (D) Materials

22. Why was painting inside the Lascaux complex a difficult task?

- (A) It was completely dark inside.
- (B) The caves were full of wild animals.
- (C) Painting materials were hard to find.
- (D) Many painting spaces were difficult to reach.

23. According to the passage, all of the following have caused damage to the paintings EXCEPT _____.

- (A) temperature changes
- (B) air movement
- (C) water
- (D) light

24. What does the passage say happened at the Lascaux caves in 1963?

- (A) Visitors were prohibited from entering.
- (B) A new lighting system was installed.
- (C) Another part was discovered.
- (D) A new entrance was created.

25. The words by far outnumbering in line 7 are closest in meaning to _____.

- (A) as many as
- (B) greater than
- (C) less than
- (D) as excessive as

Questions 26-39 refer to the following passage.

The reason for the extinction of species and for the rapid rates of change in our environment are currently the focus of much scientific research. An individual species susceptibility to extinction depends on at least two things: the tax on (the biological group- kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, or genes) to which a species belongs,

(5) and the overall rate of environmental change. Fossil evidence shows that more mammals and birds become extinct than do mollusks or insects. Studies of the extinction of the dinosaurs and other reptiles during the cretaceous period show that a changing environment affects different taxa in different ways. Some may be dramatically affected, others less so.

(10) The best way to answer the question of what causes an extinction is to combine fields of inquiry and a variety of viewpoints Using the fossil record and historical documentation, the different rates of the extinction of various taxa and different responses to environmental change can be detected. Then the evolutionary development of the different species can be compared, and

(15) reties that may be disadvantageous can be singled out. Finally researchers can use mathematical formulate to determine whether a populations likely to adapt itself to the changing environment or disappears. As more of this information is collected, specialists in different fields- e.g., physiological and behavioral ecology, population ecology community ecology, evolutionary biology and systematic, bibliography,

(20) and paleobiology- will work together to make predictions about the broader changes that might occur in the ecosystem.

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

- (A) Assessment of the work of specialists concerned with ecology
- (B) A discussion of possible causes of extinction, and of ways to make predictions about environmental change.
- (C) The changing aspects of our environment.
- (D) A comparison of the extinctions rates of different taxa

27. The word susceptibility in line 3 is closest in meaning to

- (A) Insensitivity
- (B) Receptiveness
- (C) Immunity
- (D) Vulnerability

28. An example of a taxon would be

- (A) A phylum
- (B) The rate of environmental change
- (C) A fossil
- (D) Studies of extinction

29. The author compares mammals and birds to

- (A) Mollusks and insect
- (B) Phylum and class
- (C) Dinosaurs and reptiles
- (D) Ecologists and biologists

30. It can be inferred from the passage that a significant event to the Greccaceous period was

- (A) The appearance of many taxa
- (B) The dramatic effect of the dinosaur on the environment
- (C) The extinction of birds
- (D) The extinction of dinosaur

31. It can be inferred from the passage that dinosaurs
- (A) Included species that were mammals
 - (B) Were better represented in the fossil record than other species
 - (C) Possessed disadvantageous traits
 - (D) Were not susceptible to extinction
32. The word dramatically in lines 9 means
- (A) Strongly
 - (B) inspiringly
 - (C) flimsily
 - (D) visually
33. The word fields in line 11 is closest in meaning to
- (A) areas
 - (B) meadows
 - (C) studies
 - (D) careers
34. From the passage it can be inferred that disadvantageous traits are
- (A) occurring at different rates
 - (B) a contributing cause of extinction
 - (C) adaptable
 - (D) learned by mathematical formulas
35. The expression singled out in lines 15 is closest in meaning to
- (A) Isolated
 - (B) Blamed
 - (C) Seen
 - (D) Divided
36. According to the passage, the likelihood of a population becoming extinct can be
- (A) Lessened by the efforts of a few concerned specialists
 - (B) Unaffected by environmental change
 - (C) Determined by mathematical formulas
 - (D) Almost impossible to ascertain

37. The word broader in line 20 is closest in meaning to

- (A) Fatter
- (B) Extra
- (C) Wider
- (D) Many

38. At present much attention has been offered in the field of scientific research to find out_____

- (A) more mammals and birds become extinct than do mollusks
- (B) evolutionary biology
- (C) The cause for the extinction of species and for the rapid rates of change in our environment
- (D) The right way of classifying animals

39. The word detected in line 13 according to the passage means

- (A) Indicated
- (B) Witnessed
- (C) Distinguished
- (D) A and B could be possible answers.

Questions 40-50 refer to the following passage.

The period of the American Revolution was a time of contrasts in American fashion. In urban centers, women enjoyed a wide range of expression in the fashions available to them, even though shortages might force a young lady or wear an outfit made from the bright red uniform of her British beau. The patriots, however, tended to scorn (5) fashion as frivolous in time of war. In remote area, patriotic groups led boycotts of British goods and loomed their own woolen cloth.

In selecting cloths, stylish American ladies depended on “fashion babies”-foot- high dolls illustrating the latest Paris styles. This infatuation with the fashion trends of the “continent” remained intact well into the twentieth century. Indeed, even today, (10) New York’s fashion industry has not fully escaped the tyranny of French design.

Mourning garments were almost impossible to obtain since black cloth had to be imported from England: black arm bands were introduced as a substitute. Gauze, indispensable for petticoats, aprons and ladies headgear, was also in short supply. There was also a taste for outlandish accessories and fanciful detailing features in (15) hats, elaborate buttons, and gaudily patterned fabrics. These excesses were called “macaroni” and are immortalized in the song Yankee Doodle.

40. Which of the following is the most appropriate title for this passage?

- (A) A Revolution in Fashion
- (B) Clothing Shortage of the Revolution
- (C) Clothing styles in Revolutionary America

(D) Conflict in the Fashion Industry

41. The word beau in line 4 is closest in meaning to

- (A) Male friend
- (B) Husband
- (C) Father
- (D) Son

42. Which of the following can be inferred from the passage about people's attitudes toward fashion?

- (A) They varied according to political beliefs
- (B) They were determined mainly by geography
- (C) They corresponded to a person's social standing
- (D) They were a matter of personal taste.

43. The word loomed in line 6 is closest in meaning to

- (A) Grew bigger
- (B) Wove
- (C) Picked
- (D) Quilted

44. What were cloths made from in rural areas?

- (A) Home-made wool
- (B) Imported British goods
- (C) Cloth stolen from the British
- (D) Gauze

45. "Fashion babies" were

- (A) dolls for children
- (B) 12 inch figures used to display cloths
- (C) Life-sized models dressed in current styles
- (D) Illustrations from fashion magazines

46. The word tyranny in line 10 is closest in meaning to

- (A) Domination
- (B) Bossiness
- (C) Importance
- (D) Evilness

47. Which of the following can best be said about the Paris fashion industry?

- (A) It has come to the forefront only recently, compared to New York.
- (B) It has long exerted a powerful influence on American fashion.
- (C) It retains its taste for gaudy, “macaroni” type excess.
- (D) It is unable to break from New York’s influence.

48. Black armbands were worn to show

- (A) The tyranny of Paris fashions
- (B) Imported cloth from England
- (C) Fanciful detailing
- (D) Mourning

49. The word elaborate in line 15 is closest in meaning to

- (A) Gay
- (B) Vulgar
- (C) Intricate
- (D) Square

50. It can be inferred from the passage that “macaroni”

- (A) Was named because of its resemblance to the continent of Europe
- (B) Was a very short-lived and ill-conceived fashion trend
- (C) Had a more mundane application to petticoats and aprons
- (D) Was not the fashion style of avowed patriots.

Appendix D: Students' Interview Questions

This is to kindly request you spare some time and respond to this interview questions modified from Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). I would like to ask a few questions about your own reading strategies. All your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality.

I. What is your name? How is today? Are you feeling good? How did you get Wollo University? How did you find the courses given in the university? Now, I want you answer the following questions with the same mood.

1. Do you enjoy reading in English? Why and Why not?
2. What is the role of reading skill for your academic success?
 3. What are the major challenges you face while reading academic materials?
4. What are the strategies you employed to improve your Academic reading Ability?
 5. How do you read often? Why?
 6. What do you do first when you are reading a text in English? Why?
 7. What do you do when you do not understand the text you are reading? Why?
8. Do you use support strategies such as dictionaries and taking notes? How?
9. Does your teacher teach students reading strategies? Why and why not?
 10. How does your teacher teach you reading strategies?

Appendix E: SORS Validation Form

Dear ,

I am currently in the process of checking the face and content validity of an adapted survey instrument I am going to use for collecting data for my Ph.D. thesis entitled “Exploring the Relation between Reading Strategy Use and Reading Performance Among First Year Wollo University Students “.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relation between high and low achieving students in terms of reading strategy use.

To attain this objective, Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) is used. The questionnaire is administered to First year social science students who are taking the course-Communicative English Skills. This inventory requires students to answer 30 -item questions on their reading strategy use on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (“Never or almost never do this” to “Always or almost always do this”.

In addition, one open-ended question is added by the researcher in order to elicit any additional strategy used by the participant students.

I have attached a special form for your use in commenting on the survey items. As you review the proposed items, please feel free to comment based upon the following criteria:

Face validity: Does the instrument "look like" it is measuring what it is supposed to measure?

Content validity: Are the items representative of concepts related to the dissertation topic?

Clarity: Is each item in the instruments clear? Is the language/wording appropriate? Other: Please make any additional suggestions you feel appropriate.

Please delete those items you feel inappropriate.

Sincerely,

Thank you in advance for your great helps

Musema Aman, PHD Student

1.I have a purpose in mind when I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

2.I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

4. I like an overview of the text to see what it's about before reading it.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

6. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

7. I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I'm reading.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

8. I review the text first by noticing its characteristics like length or organization.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

9. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

10. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

11. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

12. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

13. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

14. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

15. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

16. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

17. I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

18. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

19. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

20. I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

21. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

22. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

23. I check my understanding when I come across new information.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

24. I try to guess what the content is about when I read.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

25. When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

26. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

27. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

28. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

29. When reading, I translate from English into my native language.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

30. When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.

APPROPRIATE? Yes/ No CLEAR? Yes/No

Comment (if any)

Open ended question

31. Specify any reading strategies you use other than those listed above.

Appendix F: Cronbach Alpha Result of the Pilot Study

Strategies	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha Result
Global reading	13	0.84
Problem-solving	8	0.90
Supporting reading	9	0.74
Total	30	

Appendix G: Results of the Open-Ended Questions

The following presents number of responses of (high and low achievers), frequencies and categories of strategies.

No.	Items	High achiever respondents	Low Achiever Respondents	Suggested Category of Reading Strategies
1.	I read short stories and fables found in the academic materials to be acquainted with English culture.	3	1	Problem-solving
2.	I watch English language TV programs, movies, films and read subtitles to better my speed	1	4	Problem-solving
3.	I read manuals or instructions of equipment, recipes, prescriptions of tablets...	3	1	Problem-solving
4.	I use reading to practice pronouncing difficult English words	1	3	Support
5.	I use notebooks to memorize meaning of words, messages or points of the text.	1	4	Support
6.	I use my English grammar knowledge to comprehend reading texts	1	2	Global
7.	I read the e-mail messages of my friends and foreigners	3	1	Support
8.	I check for messages on mobile phones.	2	3	Global
9.	I usually read the posts and communicate with people through social media in English	2	4	Global
10	I read some difficult words using dictionary	2	3	Support
11	I read English newspapers to develop my vocabulary capacity.	4	1	Problem-solving
12	I browse internet to develop my reading skills	3	1	Problem-solving
13	I use Google translator to remove word meaning difficulty.	1	3	Support
14	I chunk long sentences into smaller ones.	2	-	Problem-solving

Appendix H Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Reading Strategy Result (Pilot Study)

Strategy of Category	Number of Items	Total sum		Mean	SD Deviation	Frequency Level
Global	13	944		3.31	0.125	Medium
Problem-solving	8	639		3.63	0.202	High
Supporting	9	619		3.13	0.188	Medium
Total	30	2202		3.34		

Appendix I: Results of the Open-Ended Questions

The following presents number of responses of (high and low achievers), frequencies and categories of strategies.

No.	Items	High achiever respondents	Low Achiever Respondents	Suggested Category of Reading Strategies
1.	I read short stories and fables found in the academic materials to be acquainted with English culture.	3	1	Problem-solving
2.	I watch English language TV programs, movies, films and read subtitles to better my speed	1	4	Problem-solving
3.	I read manuals or instructions of equipment, recipes, prescriptions of tablets...	3	1	Problem-solving
4.	I use reading to practice pronouncing difficult English words	1	3	Support
5.	I use notebooks to memorize meaning of words, messages or points of the text.	1	4	Support
6.	I use my English grammar knowledge to comprehend reading texts	1	2	Global
7.	I read the e-mail messages of my friends and foreigners	3	1	Support
8.	I check for messages on mobile phones.	2	3	Global
9.	I usually read the posts and communicate with people through social media in English	2	4	Global
10	I read some difficult words using dictionary	2	3	Support
11	I read English newspapers to develop my vocabulary capacity.	4	1	Problem-solving
12	I browse internet to develop my reading skills	3	1	Problem-solving
13	I use Google translator to remove word meaning difficulty.	1	3	Support
14	I chunk long sentences into smaller ones.	2	-	Problem-solving

Appendix J: Difficulty level

No.	Right upper	Right Lower	Total	Difficulty level	Discrimination Index
1	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
2	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
3	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
4	3	6	9	0.75	-0.5
5	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
6	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
7	4	2	6	0.5	0.33
8	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
9	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
10	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
11	2	4	6	0.5	-0.33
12	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
13	6	4	10	0.83	0.33
14	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
15	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
16	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
17	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
18	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
19	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
20	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
21	4	3	7	0.58	0.17
22	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
23	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
24	5	1	6	0.5	0.67
25	5	3	8	0.67	0.33

No	Right Upper	Right Lower	Total	Index Difficulty	Index Discrimination
26	6	3	9	0.75	0.5
27	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
28	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
29	1	5	6	0.5	-0.67
30	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
31	5	2	7	0.58	0.5
32	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
33	4	3	7	0.58	0.17
34	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
35	5	4	9	0.75	0.17
36	1	4	5	0.42	-0.5
37	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
38	6	4	10	0.83	0.33
39	6	4	10	0.83	0.33
40	5	4	9	0.75	0.17
41	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
42	5	4	9	0.75	0.17
43	5	4	9	0.75	0.17
44	5	4	9	0.75	0.17
45	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
46	5	4	9	0.75	0.17
47	6	4	10	0.83	0.33
48	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
49	5	3	8	0.67	0.33
50	5	3	8	0.67	0.33

Appendix K: Results of high and low achieving students

High Achieving Respondents	Results/100	Low Achieving Respondents	Results/100
1	87	1	45
2	83	2	35
3	71	3	42
4	80	4	47
5	77	5	41
6	71	6	41
7	84	7	38
8	74	8	45
9	71	9	35
10	71	10	49
11	72	11	37
12	73	12	44
13	88	13	45
14	74	14	46
15	78	15	42
16	75	16	48
17	75	17	43
18	71	18	38
19	80	19	54
20	72	20	46
21	74	21	43
22	72	22	50
23	72	23	52
24	71	24	50
25	81	25	54
26	74	26	53
27	74	27	56
28	83	28	52
29	89	29	58
30	80	30	46

Appendix L: Sample Responses of High Achiever Transcription

Interview 1:

Interviewer: Do you enjoy reading in English?

S1: Yes of course! I enjoy reading in English.

Interviewer: What makes you enjoy reading in English?

S1: As you know, English is an international language so we have to have good knowledge of it. Reading is a tool for increasing a learner's linguistic proficiency because it enhances writing, broadens vocabulary, teaches grammar, and helps with pronunciation when reading aloud. So, in my opinion, reading is a fundamental skill that is crucial to the development of English language proficiency. I like to read, so.

Reading is also a communication tool, so it improves our communicative competence as well. I can improve my written communication skills and comprehension when I regularly read letters, messages, emails, etc sent by foreigners. I like to read, so.

Interviewer: What is the role of reading skill for your academic success?

S1: Almost all of our professors offer us modules or reading materials to use as references because we are university students. We must possess strong reading abilities and be active and effective readers if we are to comprehend the reading materials and arm ourselves with crucial knowledge. Therefore, the skill of reading plays a significant role in improving our academic performance.

Interviewer: What are the major challenges you face while reading academic materials?

S1: difficulty of subject content (Difficulty of vocabulary, lengthy and detailed text, complicated grammatical structure) are the most serious challenges I come across while reading academic materials.

Moreover, since I am not aware of the reading strategies, I am relying exclusively on my linguistic knowledge.

Interviewer: What are the strategies you employed to improve your Academic reading Ability?

S1: I do not go to dictionary to see every unknown word, instead, I use contextual clues. This helps me to retain many words with me for long. Also, I ask my teacher or someone to tell me the right meaning of the word or feedback on my own reading activities. And I attempt to have a habit of reading. Even if I don't have any objectives, I just go to the library to read. I feel bad when I am not reading. I am self-motivated.

Interviewer: How do you read often? Why?

S1: Usually, I don't want to read every single sentence in a passage in its entirety. I prefer to emphasize the passage's main point instead. As soon as I see the topic I need to read, I make an effort to remember every idea associated with it. I read in this manner because it helps me understand what I'm reading.

Interviewer: What do you do first when you read a text in English? And why?

S1: I do different things prior to my reading. One is ascertaining whether I read for purpose. I do this to direct my reading and be enthusiastic in what I read. The other is asking myself what I already know to use my experience or general knowledge to help me comprehend the content of the text, and ask myself what I want to learn about the topic. While I am doing reading comprehension activities, I read the questions first, then focus on the answers. I do not like to read the whole thing. Rather, I preview the headings, illustrations, images of the text and see the page or the chapter (how long it is) before reading. Then I quickly read the comprehension questions to know what to focus on before reading in details. Next, I skim the text to find the gist, and scan for specific information, or skip unimportant words. Furthermore, I frequently decide to vary my reading based on the type of text. I skim through it quickly when I only need to find one particular piece of information. However, I choose to read very carefully and multiple times when, for instance, I have to read about a complicated legal provision.

In addition, I know various reading technique that helps me simplify my reading comprehension. One of them is the use of contextual clues. I utilize this strategy to better my text understanding.

Interviewer: What do you do when you do not understand the text you are reading?

S1: My text understanding usually fails when I come across unfamiliar words, when I lose concentration and while I face a difficult text. In the case of unfamiliar words, I try to guess the meaning of the word using various techniques of contextual clues. One of them is looking at the definition of concepts and the other is scrutinizing the given examples. Thus, I usually look at definitions of various terminologies. This helps me guess the meaning of unfamiliar word. I also see the examples given in the text to determine the meanings of an unknown word.

I sometimes rely on punctuations to make myself clear in the meaning of unknown words.

In fact, vocabulary is the hard part for me. While reading I underline the vocabulary and make a list. Then I write it in English and in my language definitions and I study them. Regarding losing concentration, I often break my reading and listen music or read any entertaining text. This helps me pay attention to what I am reading for second time. I also read slowly and carefully written materials. And I reread the text until I feel I understand.

And during text difficulty, I many times Pause my reading and think about what I read. I do this to address the difficulty. This helps me think various strategies that support my understanding problems.

Furthermore, I visualize information while reading. I do this to remember.

Interviewer: Do you use support strategies such as dictionaries and taking notes? How?

S1: Yes, I use. When I know what the text is about, I read the key parts more carefully making notes. I find that making notes is a really good way to remember the content of the texts.

I also use a dictionary to check words if I believe that they are very important or appear in the text very often. But the kind of dictionary I use is E-dictionary, that is, English to English. I do this to improve my way of reading and pronounce some difficult words well. It also helps me to get the detail definitions of words with examples. When I use English to English dictionary, it presents me the meaning of words in sentences. So that I could know a word's various meaning and its language type. If, for example a word is noun or verb, the dictionary tells us in detail about this. Hence, it is useful to look up the meaning of unfamiliar words in an English-to-English dictionary because it gives us detailed information about the word. However, an English

to Amharic dictionary only provides the meaning of the word. I can only understand a word's meaning with the help of this dictionary. However, understanding a word's meaning in isolation is not as crucial as understanding the context of a sentence.

Using charts, tables, and lots of color is another support technique I like. I can better organize my thoughts and retain what I read thanks to it. Furthermore, I pick up knowledge from others or friends by posing challenging conceptual queries that I have learned from the readings.

In addition, when using other strategies do not support me to comprehend the idea of the text, I try to grasp the essence of the difficult notion or theory via mother tongue.

And when I am reading academic materials, I like underlining and circling the information which I think important. I use this method to remember what I read by the time I read the same text the other day and helps me to save my time.

Interviewer: Does your teacher teach students reading strategies? Why and why not?

S1: yes, to some extent. He knew that reading strategies do have a great contribution to simplify the comprehension of the text.

Interviewer: How does your teacher teach you reading strategies?

S1: First, the instructor started the reading session by posing a question. He requested that we read the passage's title and let him know what we thought it would say. Some of us answered this question correctly, but the majority of us remained unresponsive. Then, only when the course material specifically directs it, does he give us a detailed lecture on various reading strategies. Prior to performing the tasks, he makes an effort to familiarize me with the subjects covered in these materials.

Additionally, the instructor frequently presented various and interesting stories in the form of quiz to assess our level of understanding of reading strategy use and fill our gap. In addition to these, the instructor allows us to be free. In reading class, I have got freedom to practice reading skill activities. Besides, the teacher gives us enough time to comprehend and respond each question and activity.

What is more, he arranges for us to discuss various topics and tasks in pairs and groups. He could satisfy the interest of those who preferred group learning by doing this. Students who prefer group instruction might learn a lot from one another. They may share ideas and learn from one another. For instance, a learner may need help from a more experienced one if they are unable to use a particular strategy on their own.

Appendix M: Sample Responses of Low Achiever Transcription

Interview 7

Interviewer: Do you enjoy reading.

S7: yes, I enjoy reading. But it is to some extent.

Interviewer: Why?

S7: Because it helps me to remember the information I read earlier from the teaching materials. This supports me to score good grades because most of the time, the examinations are emphasizing on content. So, I enjoy reading to some extent, for it helps me to pass the exam with average result.

Interviewer: What is the role of reading skills for your academic success?

S7: as you know, the major goal of any reading is to comprehend the written text. This is not, however, attained without possessing reading skills. Learners who are not good at various reading skills confront comprehension failure which has a direct influence on their academic failure. When there is no understanding of what I read, there won't be any academic Success.

Interviewer: What are the major challenges you face while reading academic materials?

S7: One is that when I read something in English, I often think in my native language. So, when I lose translation of meaning, it weakens my motivation in that reading. The other is poor concentration during reading. I poorly concentrate during reading. This usually leads me to failure in my understanding or miss the main idea of the text. Another is that I do not possess ample reading skills to comprehend what I read. Usually, I need a long time to understand the central idea of a reading passage. The reason for this was the lack of reading techniques and strategies. Moreover, shortage of words and lack of knowledge about language structure are also the challenges that obstruct my understanding of the academic text.

Interviewer: What are the strategies you use to improve your academic reading ability?

S7: I have a list of unfamiliar words that I found when I read. I always attempt to memorize them. In addition, to be honest, I spent my time mostly by watching English movies, TV programs and face books. I use screen displays of TV and mobile as reading materials. I consider this as my reading so that I improve my reading these ways. As I mentioned earlier, I am not good reader of written text. That does not mean I do not read totally. I read notes I research and find on the internet. Moreover, despite the fact that I frequently practice to have guessing skills, I could not manage it. I am still living with the problem. So, I determine to continue combating until I manage.

Interviewer: How do you read materials often? Why?

S7: I take a long process to read text. Usually, I am frustrated by the fact that I did not transfer the strategies I used when reading in my native language to reading in English. Instead, I identify every small unit such as letters in the text, builds up words into sentences and sentences into text, Meaning is gained on each phase along the process in isolation. So, I read word by word,

stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item until I finish reading. Thus, I strictly adhere to the details.

Interviewer: What do you do first when you read a text in English? And why?

S7: prior to my reading, I want to ensure whether the content of the reading material is difficult in its organization to me or not. If it is very difficult, I read it; if not I reject. Moreover, prior to my reading, I want to ensure whether the reading material suits me in its linguistic and content difficulty. If it goes with my competence, I start reading. Otherwise, I leave it aside.

Interviewer: What do you do when you do not understand the text you are reading?

S7: While reading, although I try to maintain my concentration, I frequently lose concentration. During this time, I develop anxiety and break my reading and postpone to the other day. In addition, I read the material again, and try to get the meaning of the text. If I am unable to find the meaning, I often take the material to somebody else to get help or use the dictionary as help. When I encounter difficult text, I often read slowly and cautiously to remove understanding deficit.

Interviewer: Do you use support strategies such as dictionaries? How?

S7: Yes. In fact, I frequently use dictionary when I am reading. The kind of dictionary is English to Amharic. So that I easily get the meaning of L2 words in my own native language.

I support my reading by reading aloud. I sometimes read and make rough notes without referring to the text. Moreover, I summarized the notes in my own way to see them when necessary. Sometimes I use acronyms.

I also underline, color and circle to important points. I do this particularly in the exam time.

Interviewer: Does your teacher teach students reading strategies? Why or why not?

S7: yes, very rarely., he teaches us only when the material is presenting them explicitly.

Interviewer: How does your teacher teach you reading strategies?

S7: the teacher focused on solving the reading tasks without employing any reading strategies. He tried to direct students to the content of the reading text. He emphasizes on knowledge or fact of the text. How we get the content of the text we are not taught.

When teaching reading, the instructor placed more emphasis on the target words' definitions than on the contextual cues for guessing. Perhaps this was due to the fact that teaching reading was primarily intended to help students improve their vocabulary. He also provided vernacular translations for the text's challenging words. Guessing the meaning of words or content would be meaningless during this time.