



EFFECT OF MOTIVATION ON READING COMPREHENSION FOR SUDANESE UNIVERSITY EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT



The lack of using motivation and reading strategies has a negative effect on reading comprehension. So this study aims at determining the effect of motivation on reading comprehension for Sudanese university EFL learners. It also aims at encouraging Sudanese university EFL learners to improve their reading comprehension. The descriptive analytic method is used. Two instruments are used for data collection: A questionnaire for 50 instructors and pre-post tests for 100 students. The sample of the study was 100 students from the Open University of Sudan-Faculty of Education-Level 3-Khartoum State. According to the statistical analysis for both the questionnaire and the pre-post tests, there is a great significant difference at 0.05 levels. And this supports the objectives and the research questions. The findings proved that both motivation and reading strategies help students to improve their reading comprehension. It also proved that the unmotivated students need praising and motivators. Based on the findings these points are recommended: - More motivation should be provided to students by both instructors and parents. Instructors should use reading strategies while teaching. They should also use visual or audio visual aids and other motivators (ICT). Instructors should have well planned organized lessons. They should also build a good rapport with their students and let them feel that they care about them and their success. Finally the ministry of higher education should make workshops for the untrained instructors and pay care for classroom environment.

Keywords: Reading Comprehension, Motivation, Sudanese University, EFL Learners.

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1 INTRODUCTION

This study aimed at investigating the effect of motivation on reading comprehension for Sudanese university students EFL learners. It aims to show the significance of using strategies in teaching reading comprehension and explain how teachers can motivate their students.

Learning a language is not an easy task as some people think. It is a complicated process that needs great efforts and patience. English language has four skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading). This research paper concentrates on reading motivation.

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is the urgent complaint of instructors and students that they face in teaching and learning reading comprehension. The problem is that many of the Sudanese university students find difficulty in reading comprehension. . This is one of the reasons that lets this study explains and investigates the reasons behind the difficulties of teaching and learning reading comprehension.

The two causes are the lack of motivation and the reading strategies.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is assumed to be beneficial to all those who are concerned in the field of language learning, particularly lecturers, planners, designers, trainers and learners.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To show the effect of motivation on reading comprehension.
2. To raise instructors awareness of the role of the reading strategies in improving reading comprehension.
3. To show the relation between motivation and reading comprehension.
4. To encourage the Sudanese university learners to improve their reading comprehension.

1.4 QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

1. To what extent does the use of motivation lead to a better reading comprehension of EFL Sudanese university students?
2. To what extent instructors of English language are aware of reading strategies?

3. What are the relations between motivation and reading comprehension?
4. To what extent are Sudanese university students of English language are encouraged to improve their reading comprehension?

1.5 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

To hypothesize that

1. Motivation has effect on reading comprehension.
2. Instructors are not aware of reading strategies in improving reading comprehension.
3. There are strong relations between motivation and reading comprehension.
4. Sudanese university students are not encouraged to improve their reading comprehension.

1.6 METHODOLOGY

The method which is used is the descriptive analytic method in conducting this study. The sample of the study is the students of the Open University of Sudan in Khartoum state.

In this study, primary and secondary sources of data collection are used.

1.7 TOOLS OF DATA COLLECTION

Data are collected by pre and post test for a group of 100 students and a questionnaire for 50 instructors.

1.8 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study is limited by both time and location. It is carried out on undergraduate students of EFL learners, at Faculty of Education, Open University of Sudan, distant learning, Khartoum State.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is one of the most significant factors in language learning, it is difficult for the low motivated students to learn English as a foreign language. Dornnyci (1994) unequivocally states that motivation is one of the main determinants of / second foreign language learning. Interestingly, motivation is perceived by Dornyci (2001) as cyclic, going up and down, affecting language achievement and being affected by it. Nikolov(1999) and Dornyci(2001) found that the most important demotivating factors for all age groups were related to learning situations such as materials, the instructor



or teaching methods and he added that these factors had great effect on language acquisition and achievement.

According to Seymour and Walsh (2006) motivation for learners is always a main element that affects their reading comprehension. Reading motivation is one of the main factors for foreign language learners that help learners to read more effectively. Wanly (2008) pointed out that learner who study a foreign language need to improve their reading ability in order to comprehend the texts. Rosenfeld, Leung&Oltman, (2001). Reading motivation as the large amount of motivation that students have to consider their positive or negative idea about reading. For instance, students who read for pleasure and employing strategies to support their comprehension are highly motivated reujkmu890aders. Student of this kind usually consider reading to be an important factor in their daily activity, accept challenges in the reading process and are likely to be successful readers. Additionally, reading motivation is one's own purpose, idea and desire related to the title, actions and the results of the reading. (Guthrie&Wigfield , 2000)

Students with low motivation in university have very low reading comprehension. Whether the focus of the approach is directed at parents, instructors, students or some other influence such as the curriculum or choice of text, there has always been a critical area of attention for reading comprehension. That area is the motivation of the students. It seems that instructors are constantly striving to find ways to motivate children to read. (Mc Ninch (1997)

2.2 READING MOTIVATION

Reading motivation is regarded as the most vital and necessary for learners in both classroom context and an extracurricular environment

Reading motivation is even important for learners since they have to be motivated in the English language learning and improve their reading comprehension. So, reading motivation is vital to the learners' ability to read and comprehend texts purposefully are crucial for EFL students. Accordingly, since the need for the academic success in all areas of learning, all English foreign language learners need

to enhance their English reading motivation for a better understanding of written texts.

According to Seymour and Walsh (2006), motivation for learners is always a main element that affects their reading comprehension, however, it has not been recognized that motivation is a main factor in reading comprehension.

Reading motivation is one of the main factors for foreign language students that help learners to read more effectively. Wang (2008) pointed out these students who study a foreign language need to improve their reading ability in order to comprehend the texts Rosenfeld, Leung and Oltman (2001).

2.1.1 MOTIVATION

The word motivation appears to be simple and easy but it is so difficult to define. It seems to have been impossible for theorists to reach consensus on single definition. Martin Covington (1998:1) states that motivation like the concept of gravity, easier to describe terms of it out ward, observable effects-than it is to define. Of course, this has not stopped people from trying it" A few definitions were found during research process:-

-According to Macmillan's dictionary (1979), to motivate means to provide with a motive; move to effort or action.

-Gardener (1985) states that motivation involves four aspects: a- a goal b- an effort c- a desire to attain the goal d- a favorable attitude towards the activity.

- Motivation is defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts Ames& Ames (1989).

-Oxford and Shearing (1994) defined motivation as a desire to achieve a goal combined with the energy to work towards that goal.

Furthermore, when we read or hear the word "motivation", many words and expressions are triggered in our minds:

Goal- desire- will- effort- ambition- energy- persistence-achieve inspire- reward. Indeed motivational issues take up the large part of our daily life. When we talk about likes and dislikes, interests, or wishes, we are in fact concerning ourselves with main motivational determinants of human being.



In short," the concept of motivation is very much part of our every day personal and professional life and few would ignore its importance in human affairs in general," Dornyei (2001:1).

In fact learning and teaching as a second/foreign language is no exception in this respect. When we think of how to encourage slow learners to work hard, how to create an attractive learning atmosphere or how to reward the hard working students we indeed deal with motivation.

Because motivation is one of the most significant factors in language learning, it is difficult for the slow motivated students to learn English as a foreign language. Dornyei (1994) unequivocally states that motivation is one of the main determinants of second/foreign language learning.

Interestingly, motivation is perceived by Dornyei (2001) as cyclic, going up and down, affecting language achievement and being affected by it. He also claimed that a demotivated person is someone who initially has had motivation to fulfill a goal or engage in an activity and has lost the motivation to do so because of the negative external factors which related to the environment in which learning takes place such as the classroom and the university.

Nikolov (1999) and Dornyei (2001) found that the most important demotivating factors for all the age group were related to the learning situations such as materials, the instructor or teaching methods and he added that these factors had great effect on language acquisition and achievement.

Thus, understanding the students' goals and motivation for learning English in addition to the demotivating factors help the instructors, educational policy makers and curriculum planners to improve students' proficiency.

Many studies Krusdenier (1985), Dornyei (1994) have demonstrated that measures of proficiency in the second/foreign language are related to motivational characteristics of students. In this respect, Corvia (1999) claims that a full understanding of students' motivation is necessary to maximize the English language results and positive outcomes. To emphasize the importance of identifying the students' needs and orientations, he cites an example of student at the college of nursing

in Holguim who rejected learning English because they did not find any relation between English and their own career and learning some irrelevant and unpleasant material would not satisfy their needs.

2.1.2. DIFFERENT KINDS OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is divided into four kinds, intrinsic, extrinsic, integrative and instrumental motivation. The following sections explain motivation in more details.

2.1.3. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Intrinsic motivation is defined as inner desire and internal needs. For instance, learners would study more if they have an individual interest in what they are learning about and are allowed to choose their own courses of actions.

Furthermore, the freedom to choose the courses of actions improves learning abilities and intrinsic motivation; as explained by the psychologists, that at the beginning of their development, children are very active, curious, playful and always be motivated for a long period of time in some different circumstances without any reward because they are allowed to do the actions they desired to do over and over. Intrinsic motivation has more impact than other factors to positively affect human because it elaborates inner interests, abilities, adaptations, and indications that are fundamental to the social and cognitive development Ryan & Deci (2000).

Intrinsic motivation refers to behavior that is driven by internal rewards. In other words, the motivation to engage in a behavior arises from within the individual because it is intrinsically rewarding. This contrasts with extrinsic motivation, which involves engaging in a behavior in order to earn external rewards or avoid punishments. This article, if you are reading it because you have an interest in psychology and simply want to know more about the topic of motivation, then you are acting based upon intrinsic motivation. "Intrinsic motivation occurs when we act without any obvious external rewards. We simply enjoy an activity or see it as an opportunity to explore, learn, and actualize our potentials." "Intrinsic motivation refers to the reason why we perform certain activities for inherent satisfaction or pleasure; you might say performing



one of these activities in reinforcing in-and-of itself' Hairul, Ahmadi, & Pourhossein, (2012).

2.1.4 EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Extrinsic motivation is related to the reward an individual will get as a result of any instrumental actions. Thus it does not basically refer to the determination in the activities or behavior. The extrinsic motivational factors need to be categorized in the area of their interest. Referring to the motivation that comes from outside rewards, such as money or grades. The motivation comes from the pleasure one gets from the task itself or from the sense of satisfaction in completing or even working on a task. Hopefully the results and suggestions of this research will help the relevant parties take several actions to improve the situations. Therefore, extrinsic motivation is the answer to help the students to feel more confident in answering mathematics examinations or quizzes Deci & Ryan (1985).

Hairul, Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012) stated that extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value. However, unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behavior as invariably non autonomous, proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous. For example, a student who does his/her homework only because he/she fears parental sanctions for not doing it is extrinsically motivated because he/she is doing the work in order to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, a student who does the work because he/she personally believes it is valuable for her chosen career is also extrinsically motivated because he/she too is doing it for its instrumental value rather than because she finds it interesting. Both examples involve instrumentalities, yet the latter ease entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the former involves mere compliance with an external control. Both represent intentional behavior, but the two types of extrinsic motivation vary in their relative autonomy.

2.1.5 INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

When students want to learn a language to become part of a speech community, they are well motivated. People who immigrate to new countries are some examples of people who may want to identify with the community around them. An important aspect of this form of language learning is using language for social interaction. So, Integrative motivation is integrating oneself within a culture to become a part of it. It is discussed that students who are willing to communicate with the native speakers of the target language would likely to have a stronger desire to learn the language, and studies showed that students of this kind achieve better success in their language learning. Some learners have a personal affinity for the people who speak a particular language. This is the second type of language learning motivation described by Gardner and Lambert (1950) it is called integrative motivation. Learners who are motivated want to learn the language because they want to get to know the people who speak that language.

They are also interested in the culture associated with that language. Integratively motivated learners may have significant others such as a boyfriend or girlfriend or family members who speak the language, and heritage language learners typically have a particularly strong integrative motivation for language learning. Several studies have found that language learners who are integratively motivated are more successful than those who are instrumentally motivated; it is likely that integratively motivated language learners are more successful because their motivation is stronger than that of instrumentally motivated students. In other words, integrative motivation is the attitude and interest towards learning a target language and to be associated with that environment Saville-Troike ((2005).

2.1.6 INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION

Instrumental motivation is defined as wanting to learn a language for the purpose of obtaining some concrete goals such as a job, graduation, or the ability to read academic materials. Gardner and Lambert (1972) explained that instrumental motivation is related to the desire and interest for improving the opportunities of job or



occupation, and is a desire for prestige. In other words, individuals who are instrumentally motivated commit a particular action because they see the activity as an instrument that leads them to achieve bigger rewards which is usually related to financial situations.

Hairul, Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012), said that people have many different reasons for studying a foreign language; sometimes people study a language for practical reasons while other times people have a special affinity for the particular language and its people. Language instructors are often very aware of the career advantages that language proficiency can bring, but too many language learners, studying the language is only an abstract undertaking required for an academic degree since the seminal work of Gardner and Lambert in (1972), language instructors and researchers have recognized the important role that motivation plays in language learning. Gardner and Lambert are responsible for proposing the most commonly used framework for understanding the different motivations that language learners typically have. They distinguish two types of language learning motivation: instrumental motivation and integrative motivation.

They agreed that learners with an instrumental motivation want to learn a language because of a practical reason such as getting a salary bonus or getting into college. Many college language learners have a clear instrumental motivation for language learning: They want to fulfill a college language requirement! Integratively motivated learners want to learn the language so that they can better understand and get to know the people who speak that language Hairul, Ahmadi, & Pourhossein (2012).

2.2 READING COMPREHENSION

According to Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012), Rahmani and Sadeghi, (2011), reading comprehension is defined to get the correct message from a text written language. Reading comprehension is an interactive mental process between a reader's linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and knowledge about a given topic. Reading comprehension as an interactive process, in which readers interact with the text as their prior

experience is activated. Moreover, readers construct meaning from the text by relying on prior experience to parallel, contrast or affirm what the author suggested in the text. Reading comprehension is defined as the level of understanding of a text/message. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written and how they trigger knowledge outside the text/message. Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly. If word recognition is difficult, students use too much of their processing capacity to read individual words, which interferes with their ability to comprehend what is read.

2.3 DIFFERENT MODELS OF READING COMPREHENSION

Reading is a cognitive process that consists of a reader, a text, and the interaction between the reader and the text. There are three models of reading process: the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model.

Read for details with bottom up processing, students start with the smallest units of language: letters, words, chunks, clauses and phrases, and try to understand what they mean before fitting them into the large text. A well known bottom-up comprehension strategy is scanning a text to find a particular word. This can help readers to clarify ideas, locate details or answer questions they have about. This reading model focuses on the smaller units of a text such as its letters, words, phrases and sentences. Then, a syntactic and semantic processing occurs during which reading reaches the final meaning. In this model, the reader reads all of the words in a phrase, or a sentence before being able to understand.

The bottom-up reading process begins with decoding the smallest linguistic units, especially phonemes, graphemes, and words, and ultimately constructs meaning from the smallest to the largest units. While doing this, the readers apply their background knowledge to the information they find in the texts. This bottom-up method is also called data-driven and text-based reading Carrell, (1989). The disadvantage of this model is that the readers will only be successful in reading if they accurately decode the linguistic units and recognize the



relationship between words. It is impossible for the readers to store in their memory the meaning of every word in a passage. It is also difficult to relate one word to the other words. It can be concluded that there are some arguments against the bottom-up model. In the reading process, the readers understand that what they have read is the result of their own constructions, not the result of the transmission of graphic symbols to their understanding, and that without their background knowledge; they cannot comprehend the texts Alimadi & Pourhossein, (2012).

2.3.2 TOP-DOWN MODEL

This model was defined as the idea of reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game in which the reader uses his/her background knowledge or textual schemata to connect with a text and to relate these to new or unexpected information found in the text in order to understand it. Top down model focuses on linguistic guesswork rather than graphic textual information. The readers do not need to read every word of a text, but rather, they concentrate on Journal of Education and Practice predicting the next group of words. Readers might start predicting from the title of the reading text, something that allows them to limit the scope of their reading. While reading, they may hypothesize the message the writer wants to convey and modify their hypotheses according to what they read in the text. Comprehension begins with higher levels of processing (making hypotheses), and proceeds to the use of the lower levels. Top-down and bottom-up are both strategies of information processing and knowledge ordering, used in a variety of fields including software, humanistic and scientific theories, and management and organization. In practice, they can be seen as a style of thinking and teaching (Ahmadi & Pourhossein (2012) and Nuttall (1996).

A top-down approach (also known as stepwise design or deductive reasoning, and in many cases used as a synonym of analysis or decomposition) essentially the breaking down of a system to gain insight into its compositional subsystems. In a top-down approach an overview of the system is formulated, specifying but not detailing any first-level subsystems. Each subsystem is then refined in yet greater detail, sometimes in many additional subsystem levels, until

the entire specification is reduced to base elements. A top-down model is often specified with the assistance of "black boxes", these make it easier to manipulate. However, black boxes may fail to elucidate elementary mechanisms or be detailed enough to realistically validate the model. Top down approach starts with the big picture. It breaks down from there into smaller segments (Ahmadi & Pourhossein,(2012); Nuttall, (1996).

2.3.3 INTERACTIVE MODEL

Interactive model is based on the interaction between the bottom-up and top-down models. The interactive model is a process based on information from several sources such as orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic knowledge, and schemata. While reading, decoding processes can support one another in a compensatory way. If, when reading word by word, readers with good bottom-up skills do not comprehend the texts, they need to use their prior knowledge (schemata) to assist them which is called interactive model Stanovich, (1980). This model is built on the interaction of the bottom-up and top-down models.

Nunan (1990) argued that efficient and effective reading requires both top-down and bottom-up decoding. L2 readers, for example, may use top-down reading to compensate for deficiencies in bottom-up reading. To achieve meaning, they use their schemata to compensate for the lack of bottom-up knowledge. It is the interactive model which is a process based on information from several sources such as orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic knowledge, and schemata. While reading, decoding processes can support one another in a compensatory way. If, when reading word by word, readers with good bottom-up skills do not comprehend the texts, they need to use their prior knowledge (schemata) to assist them.

Readers who rely on the top-down model use textual clues and guess wildly at the meaning, but they need to compensate for deficits such as weaknesses in word recognition and lack of effective bottom-up processing. The interactive model, which is the combination of the bottom-up and top-down processes, leads to the most efficient processing of texts. Knowing that the interactive model can help L2 readers in achieving successful reading, instructors



should find reading instructions based on this model to promote L2 readers' abilities. The reciprocal teaching approach is a type of reading instruction that is based on the interactive model. It covers four main reading strategies Stanovich, (1980).

2.4 READING AS AN IMPORTANT SKILL

Reading is an important skill to help people learn from human knowledge and experience. Through reading, knowledge has greatly contributed to the growth of mankind. Reading is the fastest and simplest way to raise people's educational level Hung & Tzeng, (2001). Reading is like opening the door of understanding to human's past, where it can serve as a looking glass for our present. Reading also stimulates the development of brain cells, reinforces language skills, enhances organizational abilities, improves one's temperament and poise, and provides strength to endure frustration. In short, reading is the best and only way of enabling humans to absorb new experience and replace old views.

2.4.1 THE PERSPECTIVES OF READING

To help students derive meanings from a text, an instructor has to understand the process of reading. Reading can easily be defined as the process in which a person receives and interprets a message from printed materials. Reading is a process of how information is processed from the text into meanings, starting with the information from the text, and ending with what the reader gains. Goodman (1976) and Smith (1973) indicated that reading is a language process, not merely the sum of various decoding and comprehension sub skills. In short, reading is the process of reconstructing the author's ideas and information.

Reading was traditionally viewed as a passive process in which the readers simply decode the written symbols without bringing their own knowledge to interact with the text Clarke & Silberstein, (1977); Riddell, (1976). Alderson (2000) called these readers passive decoders of sequential graphic-phonemic-syntactic-semantic systems. But after the emergence of the psycholinguistic model of reading Goodman, (1976); Smith, (1971; 1973), research on reading showed that reading is actually an active process, in which the reader creates meaning from the printed words. As Goodman (1976) described, reading is a psycholinguistic guessing

game, in which the reader actively interacts with the text to construct meaning. Goodman (1973) and Smith (1973) both elaborated the "psycholinguistic method" of reading and argued that it had provided new insights into the reading process as well as the process of learning to read. To sum up, reading is the act of constructing meaning while transacting with text. Just as we use information stored in background knowledge to understand and interact with the world around us, so do we use this knowledge to make sense of print.

2.4.2 MODELS OF READING

There are three theories or models of reading, i.e., schema theory, an interactive view of reading and views of metacognition in reading. Schema theory was the most prominent representational theory for reading researchers and educators during the late 1970s and early 1980s. Schema points to the reader's background knowledge structures. Schema theory refers to the role of background knowledge in language comprehension. It refers to the knowledge, background, and conceptual framework that a reader brings to a text. Schema theory is viewed as a psychological framework that covers both top-down and bottom-up processing. Carrell and Eisterhold (1988) proposed that "text itself does not carry meaning"; the text only offers guidance to readers to find out meanings. Comprehension occurs when readers' background knowledge interacts with texts. Schema theory stresses much more on top-down processing than on bottom-up one in the comprehension process.

According to Anderson (2003), top-down processing is an approach for processing a text in which the reader uses background knowledge, makes predictions, and searches the text to confirm or reject the predictions that are made. On the other hand, bottom-up processing is an approach for processing a text in which the reader builds up a meaning from the black marks on the page: recognizing letters and words, working out sentence structure Nuttall, (1996). Letters, letter clusters, word, phrases, sentences, longer text, and finally meaning is the order of bottom-up model for achieving comprehension Anderson,(2003).



Beginning with Rumelhart, researchers have proposed an interactive review of reading which argues that lower-level and high-level processes work together interactively as parts of the reading process Grabe, (1988). An interactive view of reading holds that reading is both “top-down” and “bottom-up”. Rumelhart (1985) indicated that part of the reading process involves interpreting graphic information from the page (bottom-up), and part of it entails using knowledge already present in the mind (top-down). According to Rumelhart (1985), both top-down and bottom-up models were linear models which passed information along in one direction only without the interaction of information contained in a higher stage with that of a lower stage to make up for the deficiency. Nuttall (1996) elaborated on the interactive model of reading, stressing that the reader continually shifts from one focus to another in the process of reading: adopt a top-down approach to predict the probable meaning, and then move to the bottom up approach to verify whether the prediction is what the writer means.

According to Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989), they explained the term metacognition refers to a reader's understanding of any cognitive process. Metacognition in the context of reading consists of (1) a reader's knowledge of strategies for learning from texts, and (2) the control readers have of their own actions while reading for different purposes. In brief, metacognition refers to awareness of one's own reading processes Brown, (1980). It means awareness of one's own understanding and non-understanding of reading strategies, and of monitoring comprehension during reading. Nuttall (1996) proposed that learners needed to understand how texts worked and what they did while reading. Meanwhile, they must be able to monitor their own comprehension. For example, students are able to recognize that they don't understand a text, and then adopt a strategy that will improve matters.

Reading, according to Gray (2000) is a highly complex activity, including various important aspects, such as recognizing symbols quickly and accurately comprehending clearly and with discrimination the meanings implied by the author. It also involves reacting to and using ideas secured through reading in harmony with the reading purposes and

integrating them to definite thoughts and action patterns Hems (2000).

Comprehension, according to Lawal (1997), is a construct of varying hierarchical degrees of intensity. Students are confronted with problems of understanding what they have read and this makes it necessary for instructors to be sensitive to the issue of reading comprehension. Several researchers Burmeister (1978); Smith & Barrette (1976); Spiro, Bruce & Brewer (1980); Unoh, (1980) have identified eight skills of reading comprehension. These involve locating details, recognizing the main ideas, drawing conclusions, recognizing cause and effect relationship, understanding of words in context, making interpretations and making inferences.

In developing reading comprehension skill, therefore, ability to read well and possess a good command of vocabulary should be seriously encouraged. Reading vocabulary is taken to mean the total number of lexical items somebody recognizes in a context Umolu, (1997). If the vocabulary is little he will read little; but a large vocabulary generates much reading. Sometimes a student may be faced with a totally strange and difficult text which may be made compulsory for him to read. In this case, he may find reading a Herculean task. On the other hand, if he forces such a text on himself, he may not be able to unravel the meanings (whether literal or implied) the words in the selections may have. Since the above experience is common among young learners, it behaves the instructors to find ways of getting the students to design their vocabulary so that they can recognize them whenever they meet such words in context.

2.4.3 DESIGNING VOCABULARY

Designing your own vocabulary activities as an instructor has the great advantage of exercising complete control over the input. But it can be very time consuming Redman, (2000). The combination of Instructor-designed context with the use of dictionary would make the task less cumbersome. The use of a well designed dictionary can be of a greater help to student to find answer or confirmation to his guesses especially where he has no Instructor or peer to ask and where a contextual guess work is impossible. A learner who makes good use of dictionary would be able to continue learning



outside the classroom, and this would give him considerable autonomy about the decisions he makes about his own learning. Also in the area of phonetic transcription and stress making dictionary provides a valuable learning tool. In spite of all these benefits, the use of dictionary can be hazardous to students if they are left to completely rely on it. It could make them become lazy and uncreative (Redman,(2000). Therefore, to reap the ultimate benefit of dictionary, students should be closely monitored; through designing a lexical context alongside dictionary. The above strategy can be used to teach phonetic, morphology, syntax (verb & adjective).

2.4.4 SCREENING FOR READING PROBLEMS IN UNIVERSITY

When RTI is implemented with fidelity in the early levels, the anticipated outcome is that students who are struggling readers will be identified early and provided intervention. Even with an effective RTI process in place in level 3, however, there will continue to be students in the later levels who require intervention to support their reading development. For universities, this means that a system for screening to identify struggling readers needs to continue beyond the early elementary levels into the middle of the universities levels. This article provides information about measures that can be used to identify students at risk for reading problems in the universities. Before reviewing these measures, however, it is important to first consider the nature of reading instruction at the high level and the characteristics of students who struggle with reading.

2.4.5 READING INSTRUCTION FOR EFL LEARNERS

The conceptual framework underlying RTI (Response to Intervention) stems from the preventive sciences approach. RTI is a tiered model of service delivery in which all students are provided with effective, evidence-based practices to support their reading development in Tier 1(Core Instructional Intervention). Historically, once students move into the higher levels, formal reading instruction ceases and reading becomes the means by which students learn content. In recent years, though, reading accountability measures that span the levels have placed a new emphasis on continued literacy instruction in the middle and high university

grades. For an RTI model to be effective in leading to improved student outcomes, the Tier 1 program in university must include evidence-based practices that support literacy development for adolescent readers. The recent emphasis on strengthening reading instruction in the early levels has demonstrated positive effects for improving reading achievement for students in level 1—3 Biancarosa & Snow,(2006). These gains do not hold past the 4th level, however, unless a strong, coordinated, and comprehensive focus on literacy instruction is maintained in the later levels Biancarosa & Snow, (2006). The development of a strong Tier 1 literacy program is an important first step for universities implementing RTI.

Although it is beyond the scope of this article to present a comprehensive plan for improving Tier 1 reading instruction, a synopsis of best practices is provided below.

2.4.6 WHICH STUDENTS ARE AT RISK FOR READING PROBLEMS?

Even with a solid instructional core in place, there will be students who struggle with reading. To develop and implement effective Tier 2 interventions, a system for identifying these students is critical. What are the characteristics of students who struggle with reading in the later levels? Though every individual student may have differences in their reading profiles, struggling readers in university will, in general, fall into one of the following categories: Late-Emergent Reading Disabled Students: These are students who were able to keep up with early reading demands but for whom later demands became too great. Several research studies confirm that there is a category of students who will progress as typically developing students or respond positively to early intervention, only to develop reading problems in the later levels.

Compton, Fuchs, Fuchs, Elleman, & Gilbert,(2008); Leach, Scarborough, & Rescorla,(2003); Lipka, Lesaux, & Siegel,(2006).

Instructional Casualties: Although there has been a strong emphasis on improving reading instruction in the early levels, not all universities have strong reading programs in place. There will continue to be students who have not been the recipients of strong reading instruction in the early levels who will require supports in the later levels Vaughn et al., (2008).



2.4.7 DEVELOPING A SYSTEM FOR SCREENING

A common question for universities related to screening is “Do we need to screen all of our students?” The short answer is yes. Universal screening is one component of a comprehensive literacy assessment system Torgesen & Miller, (2009) that can inform the development of a strong literacy program. Although universal screening may seem overwhelming to implement at the high level, the early identification of struggling readers allows universities to provide intervention and support to better meet the needs of their student population. Universities already collect an abundance of data that can be used to identify an initial pool of students who may require targeted reading interventions to be successful. General screening information from the previous year’s summative assessment can be used to identify students who did not meet or who only just met grade-level performance benchmarks Torgesen & Miller,(2009). When these results are reviewed at the end of the year they can help universities plan for the following year. For example, through this process an RTI team can determine approximately how many students will require intervention the following university year. This data should be confirmed by a benchmark test administered at the beginning of the next university year to all students. It is important to conduct beginning of the year assessments to confirm the previous year’s results, to screen students new to the university system, and to identify students whose performance may have deteriorated over the summer months.

2.4.8 WHAT SCREENING MEASURES WORK WELL FOR EFL LEARNERS?

State assessment data provide an overall measure of which students are not meeting grade-level benchmarks. Additionally, many universities now administer benchmark assessments in the fall that are used to predict performance on state assessments administered at the end of the university year. Examples of these measures include the following:

Alternate forms of state assessments: In Idaho, for example, an alternate form of the state assessment can be administered in the beginning of the university year to identify students who will need

support as well as to identify content areas that may require more focused instruction.

State-aligned benchmark assessments: These include measures such as the Northwest Education Association’s Measures of Academic Performance (MAP) assessments and CTB/McGraw Hill’s Acuity Assessments.

Curriculum-based measurement (CBM) reading assessments: In later grades, these include oral reading fluency measures and maze measures. Student performance can be compared to published norms. Numerous measures have been developed in reading for upper levels. A review of these measures can be found at the National Center on Student Progress Monitoring.

Identifying the Specific Reading Problems of Struggling Students the measures discussed above will provide an initial sort of the students-quickly distinguishing those who meet performance benchmarks from those who do not and will require intervention. For universities to plan for and provide appropriate interventions, it will be important to determine the nature of a student’s particular reading problem. The following measures (summarized in Table 1) may be used to inform this process.

Informal reading inventories (IRIs): An IRI is an individually administered reading assessment that allows a reading specialist to assess a student’s strengths and needs in a variety of reading areas. Several published IRIs are available.

Decoding measures: Research suggests that some older students who struggle with reading have decoding problems. Assessments such as the Test of Word Reading Efficiency Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, (1999), the Scholastic Phonics Inventory (Scholastic, n.d.), and the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test- Revised/Normative Update Sutton, (1999) can be used to identify students who continue to struggle with basic reading skills.

Comprehension measures: Both informal and formal measures can be used to identify students who will struggle with reading comprehension. In the content areas, a maze procedure or a Content Area Reading Inventory CART; Vacca & Vacca, (1999) can be administered to identify students who will likely have difficulty comprehending content area texts



without receiving additional support. Formal measures of reading comprehension can identify students who struggle with reading more generally. A test bank of assessments developed by the National Institute for Literacy provides information on a variety of reading assessments appropriate for use with older readers.

Fluency measures: The role that fluency plays in the older grades is unclear. Although oral reading fluency has been shown to be highly correlated with reading performance, some researchers caution that a focus on fluency when reading to learn does not promote the use of good comprehension strategies such as rereading, asking questions, and summarizing key points Samuels, (2007). Fluency measures can be used as part of an IRI to inform the assessment of a student's reading difficulties, but interventions should not be limited to increasing a student's reading rate.

Interest inventories: Another common problem for adolescents with reading problems is a lack of motivation and engagement in university. Students who have difficulty learning to read often experience problems across the curriculum. Over time, the pattern of negative experiences with learning can lead to a loss of motivation and engagement. Identifying student interests to tailor interventions that are meaningful to the student represents one way that universities can increase student motivation Fink & Samuels, (2007).

2.4.9 DECODING MEASURES

It is very likely that struggling readers will experience difficulties in more than one area. This is why a comprehensive literacy program that supports literacy development in the Tier 1 program as well as provides targeted intervention in Tier 2 is needed to fully support students for whom reading is a challenge. Screening data should be maintained and analyzed to inform not only individual student decisions but also program development.

Reading is a lifelong activity. Those who enjoy reading derive pleasure and satisfaction from it. Adigun and Oyelude (2003) observe that skill in reading will not only assist students in organizing their thoughts and jotting down important facts while reading, but also equip them to comprehend entire texts.

2.4.10 CAUSES AND PROBLEMS

There are multiple reasons why some students have difficulty with reading comprehension. Some students have difficulties because they have not truly mastered reading fluently. When a student who is struggling to read words and focuses so hard on just saying the words correctly, they are not focusing on what they are reading. All of their cognitive ability is being put into properly calling out the correct words and little effort it put into the meaning of what is being read. This is especially true for students who have disabilities Woolley, (2010). Students who have cognitive disabilities, working memory problems, and difficulties with making inferences are also likely to have comprehension difficulties. An example of a student would be a student with autism. This student's cognitive abilities may make reading comprehension a difficult task Jitendra & Gajria, (2010).

Poor reading comprehension may also be related to a lack of prior experiences or a lower socio-economic environment. Jitendra & Gajria (2011). To be able to properly comprehend what is being read, students are often required to make connections with what is being read to their own lives and experiences. If a student has not had many experiences or comes from a background that is very different from what is being read in the story, understanding is going to be a very difficult task. This component of reading comprehension is often called activating prior knowledge. Some students simply do not have this prior knowledge. Some students do have this knowledge but they lack the skills needed to activate it.

Vocabulary is also an important component to reading comprehension. Some researchers believe that vocabulary is the strongest component of proper reading comprehension and studies have shown that students who have a large working vocabulary receive better grades than students who do not Stahl & Fairbanks, (1986). Students should be able to know the meanings of 90%-95% of the words in a text to be able to gather meaning from the text Yildirim, Yildiz, & Ates, (2011). If a child is reading, and does not understand what two or three of the words mean, then they may be able to gather some meaning out of the text to understand it. However, if a child is



reading does not understand what the majority of the words mean then it is going to be very difficult for them to understand what they are reading. Individuals who have comprehension problems generally have a more limited vocabulary than those who do not have comprehension problems Yildirim et al., (2011).

Reading strategies are tools that instructors use to help students learn to read and comprehend what they are reading. There are hundreds reading strategies available to help students with their comprehension at different levels and with different types of text Prado & Plourde, (2005). One problem with strategy use is that it is often not taught explicitly enough or it is taught incorrectly. When teaching a student a strategy, the strategy has to be taught with detailed and explicit instruction. The student has to be shown how to use the strategy through modeling, have supported practice, and independent practice with feedback. The strategy may also have to be generalized to other settings. It is being found that some students with reading or comprehension difficulties are either not taught strategies at all or they do not know how to use them properly. Many students with disabilities are taught strategies but they do not know how to recall that strategies when they are engaged in reading Jitendra & Gajria, (2011).

2.5 COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES FOR EFL LEARNERS

Reading comprehension is a process that involves memory, thinking abstractly, visualization, and understanding vocabulary as well as knowing how to properly decode Ness, (2010). Explicitly teaching students strategies can help them do all of these things better and become more independent readers. Reading comprehension strategies also encourage students to become more responsible for their own learning, once the student has mastered the strategy. Also, research has shown that when students receive proper reading comprehension strategy instruction and then use these strategies, not only does their comprehension decrease but so do their vocabulary, decoding, problem solving, team work skills, and self-esteem Ness, (2010).

There are hundreds of strategies that claim to help students improve their reading

comprehension. Four of these general strategies are visualization, summarization, making inferences, and making connections to one's own life and experiences Moore & Lo,(2008). Visualization involves students creating mental pictures in their mind while they are reading, or stopping at certain points in a reading selection to make these visualizations. Visualization is taught by instructor's modeling this strategy explicitly and by having students practice with supports. Students can even draw or create pictures of their visualizations until they have learned to simply visualize in their own minds.

Summarization is teaching students how to summarize what they have read to themselves. Instructors model this by reading a passage, stopping at certain points then explaining aloud what they have read. This is done again through modeling and much guided practice. Students can practice by reading a passage and then telling a partner or an instructor what they have just read Prado & Plourde, (2005).

Making inferences is taught by an instructor reading a passage aloud to a class that has some of the details missing. The story's context can guide the students to the details that are missing. The Instructor again models and guides the students to ask themselves appropriate questions to try to fill in the important details. There are graphic organizers that ask certain questions that students can use as a guide after reading a selection. They can use these questions until they are able to formulate their own questions Prad & Plourde, (2005). Teaching students to make connections to their reading is done in a similar way. The Instructor reads a passage aloud, stops at a certain point, then says how they can relate what they have read to their own life. The Instructor does this often, and then gets the students involved by asking questions. All four of these strategies are sometimes combined to create one larger strategy once they have all been taught and mastered separately Prado & Plourde, (2005).

One of these strategies is called Rainbow Dots Moore & Lo, (2008). This strategy uses colors and manipulative objects to help students monitor their use of each of these strategies. It also lets instructors know which strategy each student is using



and when. Each of the four strategies, visualization, summarization, making inferences, and making connections visualization, making connections, they are to place the appropriate dot next to the selection they read when they used this strategy Moore & Lo, (2008). For example, if visualization is assigned a red dot and summarization is assigned a green dot, and a student visualized a boy swimming during a particular passage, then the student would place a red dot next to the passage. By doing this, the Instructor can then go back and ask the student about the strategy they used to make sure it is being used correctly.

Graphic organizers are another popular strategy that can be used for most genres and can be adapted in many ways. They are commonly used for reading comprehension and there are many different types. Graphic organizers for reading comprehension are generally systems that help students organize what they are reading. Commonly used graphic organizers in the low levels are for problems and solutions, cause and effect, comparing and contrasting, and sequential order Jitendra & Gajria, (2008).

A type of graphic organizer that is extremely common in primary grades is the story map. A story map organizes story-grammar elements in a visual way Stagliano & Boon, (2009). Each story- grammar element has a heading on a piece of paper that cues the students to fill in each element as they read a passage or selection. Generally, story elements include setting, events, characters, problems and solution. Story maps can have other elements, depending on the grade level of the student and the passage being read. Story maps encourage students to read for the information Stagliano & Boon, (2009). Using manipulative is also a strategy that helps increase reading comprehension, especially for students in the lower levels. Using manipulative objects helps making a story more concrete. This can be done through the use of puppets who act out the story or through simple objects such as picture cards that show settings or character feeling Woolley, (2010). This also helps students move into the visualization strategy as well.

A strategy that is used for students who have average decoding skills but struggle with comprehension is the RAP strategy. This strategy can

be used for students at any level, but is most commonly used in the lower levels and with older students who have learning or cognitive disabilities. RAP is an acronym that stands for read, asks and put. During reading, students are taught to read just one paragraph. At the end of the paragraph, they ask themselves questions about what they read, the main idea, and details about the paragraph. They then summarize the information by putting it into their own words. Once the strategy has been taught, students can use it independently Hagaman, Luschen & Reid, (2010).

Teaching reading strategies to students in the lower levels is very important. Students learn most of what they need to be successful in university during their lower levels years. Once students have reached their secondary years, it is expected that they already know how to read and comprehend. Much of the more likely to be more successful and more time can be spent on the student learning the content Ness, (2011).

Reading comprehension is important for students because they are focusing less on learning skills like reading and writing, but more on actual content. These students need to be able to generalize all of the reading and writing skills they should already know to be able to be successful in the content areas. However, some students do not properly understand the strategies they were taught or they were never taught strategies at all. High level age students can learn strategies that can help them be successful. They are also still able to use the strategies they learned and used in the lower levels. Some of the strategies that university students learn are the same strategies they used previously, but they may be used in a different way Jitendra & Gajria, (2011).

Graphic organizers are still used in the high levels; they just may be used in a different way. Some of the graphic organizers may be specific to content or a certain textbook. They also often have more writing and less graphics. Graphic organizers for high level students may be broken down in a way that organizes a textbook chapter or section. It may have a place for headings and vocabulary words that students can identify at a later time if they are unfamiliar with the words. Graphic organizers like



these are similar to study guides, which are very popular in university.

Important vocabulary words, answer short questions, or summarize certain pieces of text. Study guides can be used during or after reading. A study by Lovett in (1988) showed that students who used a study guide out performed students who did not use a study guide in a science classroom as cited by Jitendra & Gajria, (2011).

Acronyms are often used in reading comprehension strategies. An acronym that has been found to be successful with high level students is the TELLs strategy Ridge & Skinner, (2010). TELLs stands for Title, Examine, Look, Look, and Setting. Each word is a sequential step that is used in the strategy process. The first step is title. Students are taught to look at the title of the selection and generate clues or guess what the material is going to be about. The second step is examined. During this step, students skim the passage and look for clues about the content. During the third step, students are supposed to look for important words that may be repeated often. This step is important because it may activate a student's prior knowledge. When students look again, they are looking for words that they do not know the meaning of and are supposed to write these words down, and then find their meaning. This is because if a student does not know the meaning of the words, it will be extremely difficult for them to understand the content. Finally, during the final step, setting, and students are to read the passage again and look for information related to setting. This can be places, dates, descriptions, or time periods. This step may also engage a student's prior knowledge. When using TELLs, students essentially read the passage at least three times, thus giving them a Wailer & Polite, (2010). ART stands for ask, read, tell. This is a simple strategy that is easy for students with disabilities to understand. It involves activities before, during, and after reading that help students enhance their comprehension. During the Ask step, students are taught to read the selection's title and ask themselves questions about the title. Some instructors require students to write these questions down. This allows instructors to see that the student is actually using the strategy properly and students can then come back and try to answer the questions

later. When focusing on the second step, read, students actually read the selection and stop at the end of each paragraph. At the end they are to ask themselves if what they are reading makes sense before continuing on. During this step they are to also underline any unknown words to look up or figure out their meanings from context clues. The third stage is told. When students are finished reading, they are to tell themselves what they read. Some instructors have the students write down a summary, tell a partner, or tell the Instructor themselves what they have read. At this time, students can also go back and answer the questions that they had asked themselves during the ask step. The Art of Reading Program has been found to be most effective at the secondary level when used in conjunction with a peer discussion strategy in which students examine the questions they posed to each other and discuss what they have read McCallum et al., (2010). Plan is another strategy that is especially helpful for secondary students when trying to comprehend what they are reading in textbooks Educational Research, (2008).

2.6 READING STRATEGIES

Literature on reading strategies has been abundant in recent years though different people have addressed the issue from different perspectives. Some researchers attempted to identify reading strategies available to various groups of readers (Anderson, (1991); Block, (1986, 1992); Young & Oxford (1997). Others based on their theoretical and empirical research, recommended strategies and techniques that can be used to facilitate reading comprehension. Still others have investigated the effects of various reading strategies on improving comprehension (Afflerbach, (1990); Nolan, (1991).

Reading strategies which is defined varies from researcher to researcher. According to Cohen (1986), reading strategies refer to those mental processes that readers consciously choose to use in accomplishing reading tasks. As Block (1986) defined, reading strategies are techniques and methods readers use to make their reading successful.

These methods include how to conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how readers makes senses of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand. Just as Anderson



(2003a) explained, to achieve success, readers should take the active role in strategic reading, learning how to use a range of reading strategies that serve their purposes.

2.6.1 THE ROLE OF READING STRATEGIES

Often the term skill and strategy are used interchangeably, but there is still difference between both of them. An important distinction can be made between strategies and skills McDonough, (1995). Strategies can be defined as conscious actions that learner takes to achieve desired objectives, but a skill is a strategy that has become automatic. This characterization underscores the active role that readers play in strategic reading. Anderson (2003) emphasized that as learners consciously learn and practice specific reading strategies, the strategies move from conscious to unconscious, also from strategy to skill. The goal for explicit strategy instruction is to move readers from conscious control of reading strategies to unconscious use of reading skills.

2.7 CATEGORIES OF READING STRATEGIES

The categories of reading strategies vary from different researchers. Global reading strategies and local reading strategies are generally accepted Block, (1986). Barnett (1988) suggested that global strategies are top-down strategies and local strategies, bottom-up strategies. Mokhtari and Richard (2002) defined three broad categories of reading strategies in terms of metacognition: global reading strategies, cognitive strategies and supportive strategies.

Different researchers have established the classification schemes of language learning strategies. O'Malley, Chamot and their colleagues identified twenty-six strategies and classified them into three types: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies. Based on Chamot and O'Malley's classification scheme, Oxford (1990) developed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), and listed over 200 specific strategies that may be applied to second language learning. In the Oxford model, strategies can be classified into two broad categories: (1) direct strategies, which can be further divided into memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies; and (2) indirect strategies, which include

metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

Chamot and O'Malley (1994) proposed an instructional method for limited English proficiency students at intermediate and advanced ESL levels, known as the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). In a CALLA model, learning strategy instruction is embedded in daily lessons as an integral part of the regular class routine. The CALLA lessons are divided into five phases: Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Follow-Up Expansion.

ESL/EFL learners usually employ a number of language learning strategies during their reading processes.

2.7.1 READING STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION

Reading is regarded as a complex process and the prime objective of reading is comprehension. A dozen of studies have proved that reading strategies are effective in promoting comprehension Anderson, (1991); Carrell et al., (1989); Paris, Lipson & Wixson, (1983). Besides, considerable research documents that good readers are strategic readers who use more strategies than poor readers as they read (Dole et al., (1991); Irwin & Baker, (1989); O'Malley et al., (1985). Therefore, teaching readers how to use specific reading strategies should be a prime consideration in the reading classroom Anderson, (1999); Oxford, (1990). In addition, reading instructors should be aware of the need for students to become effective strategy users through explicit Instructor modeling in reading instruction Richards & Renandya, (2002).

2.7.2 TRANSACTION READING STRATEGIES ACROSS L1 AND L2

ESL/EFL reading theory has been influenced greatly by the theories of first language reading. The psycholinguistic perspectives of reading have directed the development of ESL/EFL reading to a large extent, and have dramatically changed the theory of ESL/EFL reading from a bottom-up model to "reading as an interactive process" (Eskey & Grabe, (1988); Grabe, (1991). Besides, Carrell And Eisterhold (1988) argued that the schema theory model also provides insights to second language reading that efficient comprehension requires not only one's linguistic knowledge but the ability to relate the



textual material to one's own knowledge. What is more, the interactive model of reading has led many researchers to emphasize that efficient and effective second language reading requires both top-down and bottom-up strategies operating interactively (Carrell & Eisterhold, (1988); Eskey, (1988); van

2.7.3 EXPLICIT STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

It refers to the instruction of reading strategies in an explicit way which involves (1) describing the strategy and its purpose — why it is important, when it can be used, and how to use it, (2) modeling its use and explaining to the students how to perform it, (3) providing ample assisted practice time — monitoring, providing cues, and giving feedback, (4) promoting students' self-monitoring and evaluation of their strategy use, and (5) encouraging continued use and generalization of the strategy in other independent learning situations Beckman, (2002).

According to Tierney, Readence & Dishner (1995), the explicit strategy instruction aims to help students develop reading comprehension skills and strategies that can be applied to other reading situations without Instructor support. Throughout the 1970s and early 1980s, several studies began to explore whether students could be made aware of reading strategies or be taught skill that would transfer to independent reading situations through explicit strategy instruction. From then on, "Explicit Teaching" was recommended as effective reading instruction for teaching selected reading strategies and skills.

2.7.4 SELECTED READING STRATEGIES

Taiwan students have learned English for two years when they entered junior university, but the English classes in the universities emphasize the speaking and listening ability based on the levels Curriculum Guidelines prescribed by the Minister of Education. Therefore, junior university students' English reading ability is at the beginning level. Based on the proficiency level of JHS students and the learning condition of reading in Taiwan, six reading strategies are adapted from Oxford's learning strategies (1990) and Anderson's reading strategy checklist (1991).

In addition to the six reading strategies selected for instructions, there were many other

reading strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) and Anderson (1991). The reasons why the researcher did not include them in strategy training were as follows. First, the total time spent on strategy training was not long enough to teach all reading strategies and make participants familiar with each of them. Each new strategy should be reinforced through a lot of practice. Furthermore, the training effects of those six reading strategies would be more significantly seen on the types of questions of the pre test and post test.

- a- **Predicting:** It is a general technique used in the reading process (Grellet, (1981). Smith (1988) also argues that prediction was viewed as the core and the basis of reading comprehension. NuttaLi (1996) explained that if a reader understands a text, he could predict with a fair chance of success what is likely to come next and what is not. It requires the readers to use schemata about the way stories work; the way texts are constructed, and the way people tend to think. Therefore, making prediction is effective to promoting readers' activation of their background knowledge, which is an important part in the process of reading.
- b- **Skimming:** By skimming, readers go through the reading material quickly in order to get the gist of it, to know how it is organized, or to get an idea of the tone or the intention of the writer Grellet, (1981). As EFL/ESL readers tend to process texts in a "bottom-up" manner Kern, (1989), learning to skim for the main idea is a good way to improve their top-down reading, which is beneficial to enhancing their comprehension of difficult texts. This is a practical strategy for EFL/ESL readers.
- c- **Scanning:** Scanning is a skill that requires glancing or reading quickly through a text to search for specific information. Scanning means when we read to find information, we move our eyes quickly across the text. We don't read every word or stop reading when we see a word we don't understand. We look for the information we want to find. Generally, scanning is a technique that



is helpful when we are looking for the answer to a known question. This is helpful when people take a test.

- d- Guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words from context:** Smith (1971) argued that the best way to identify an unfamiliar word in a text was to draw inferences from the rest of the text rather than looking it up in a dictionary. This view differentiates top-down processing from bottom-up processing to deal with unknown words, emphasizing the reader depends on the context to interpret words.
- e- Making Inference:** It is the process of creating a personal meaning from text. It involves a mental process of combining what is read with relevant prior knowledge (schema). The reader's unique interpretation of text is the product of this blending. Vonk and Noordman (1990) stated that the writer would leave implicit the information that was supposed to be derived from the text by the reader. Therefore, we see that the reader has to draw upon his prior knowledge or his understanding of the context to deduce the implicitly-stated information embedded in the text.
- f- Self-monitoring:** In order to check the student's awareness of reading strategies, an approach known as metacognitive theory was developed in the 1970s. Metacognition is knowledge about cognition Flavell, (1977). Metacognition in reading refers to readers' background knowledge of the text, their awareness of using strategies and of the importance of particular strategies. Researchers in second language education (Barnett, (1988); Kern, (1988) also pointed out that proficient ESL readers showed more awareness of their use of strategies in reading English than less proficient ESL readers. According to Oxford (1990), metacognitive strategies include three strategy sets: (1) centering your learning, (2) arranging and planning your learning, (3) evaluating your learning. In "evaluating your

learning" set are two related strategies: self-monitoring and self-evaluating, both aiding learners in checking their language performance. One strategy involves noticing and learning from errors, and the other concerns evaluating overall process. The research adapted the definition of self-monitoring due to JHS students' psychology and intelligent development.

3. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

For the sake of collecting and analyzing data and to ensure satisfactory results and effective evaluation, the descriptive analytic method is used and a questionnaire is constructed for instructors of the English Language who teach at the Open University of the Sudan in Khartoum State to collect data. The other tool for collecting data is pre and post tests for the students of the Open University of Sudan in Khartoum State faculty of education level three. The questionnaire was tested for validity and reliability to ensure the ability to achieve the objectives of the research. This chapter presents the methodology used in this study so as to achieve the objectives. A detailed description of subjects and setting are provided and data collection instruments are explained. Also, the chapter describes the validity and reliability of the instruments used to obtain the required information.

3.2 THE POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The population of this study consists of all Sudanese universities undergraduate students Faculty of Education- English Language.

3.2.1 THE STUDENTS

The population of this study consists of all Sudanese universities undergraduate students Faculty of Education English language.

3.2.2 THE INSTRUCTORS

Fifty instructors who teach English Language were selected randomly from all over branches of the Open University of Sudan in Khartoum State to respond the questionnaire. They had different experiences and qualifications.

3.3 SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

The sample of this study consists of 100 students from the Open University of Sudan-



Khartoum State- Faculty of Education and 50 instructors of English.

3.4 TOOLS OF DATA COLLECTION

3.4.1 THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire is a list of questions about a particular topic answered by many people. Nunan (1992:27) claims "a questionnaire is an instrument for the collection of data, usually in written form, consisting of open or closed questions and probes requiring a response from subjects.

The questionnaire contains (28) statements. It is requested from the study individuals to find their answers about what it describes all statements according to the like scale which consists of five levels (strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, strongly disagree). These statements have been distributed on four hypotheses as follows:

- . The first hypothesis includes statement (1-7).
- . The second hypothesis includes statement (8-14).
- . The third hypothesis includes statement (15-21).
- . The fourth hypothesis includes statement (22-28).

3.4.2 VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

To achieve validity the questionnaire adopted the following steps:

The questionnaire was seen by four judges who are university instructors with long experience in the field of ELT.

- a. The revised and evaluated final version of the questionnaire was distributed to instructors of the Open University of the Sudan-Khartoum State.
- b. he questionnaire was distributed personally and directly to the subjects of the study.
- c. The total number of the questionnaire that received from the respondents were (50) from the instructors.

3.5 RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Reliability means that the questionnaire should give the same result if it is applied in similar circumstances. It is a one criterion through which a test can be evaluated. Brown) (1988) defines reliability as" the extent to which result can be considered consistent and stable" To calculate the reliability of the questionnaire, a group of four English instructors is randomly selected. They were given copies of the questionnaire as a pilot test. Two weeks later, they were given the questionnaire for

the second time. Accordingly, the reliability of the questionnaire was achieved when the researcher compared the pre-test of the questionnaire to the second test to make sure that the items of the questionnaire are relevant to the particular area of the study.

3.6 PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTIONS

3.6.1 STUDENTS' TESTS

100 of students were selected from the Open University of Sudan faculty of education-level three-Khartoum State to sit for the pre-post test.

3.6.2 INSTRUCTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The copies of the questionnaire were distributed for about 50 instructors of English Language who teach at the Open University of the Sudan in Khartoum State. Few days later, all the copies of the questionnaire were collected.

3.6.3 RELIABILITY OF THE TESTS

The tests were reliable because the two reading passages have been taken from the course book designed for the same level of the faculty of education at the Open University of Sudan- Khartoum State. The pre-post tests have been judged by expert English Language instructors from the Open University of Sudan-Khartoum State.

3.6.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF INSTRUCTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher calculated the reliability co-efficient of the scale used in the questionnaire by alpha equation and the results were as follows:

Table (2) Reliability and Validity

Reliability Co-efficient	Validity Co-efficient
0.83	0.91

The results above show that all reliability and validity co-efficient for questionnaire are greater than (50%) and close to one . This indicates that is characterized by high reliability and validity and makes statistical analysis acceptable.

3.6.5 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Students' Pre-Post Test

The results of the reliability co-efficient of the scale used in the pre-post tests by alpha equation were as follow:



Table (1) Reliability and Validity

Reliability Co-efficient	Validity Co-efficient
0.77	0.88

The result in the table above show that all reliability and validity co-efficient for the pre-post tests are greater than (50%) and close to one. This indicates that the pre-post tests are characterized by high reliability and validity, and makes statistical analysis acceptable

3.6.6 STUDENTS' TESTS

A pre – post test were given to students. Pre-test was given to the students and they were unmotivated. The researcher wanted to see the impact of motivation on reading comprehension before and after motivation.

3.6.7 INSTRUCTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

28 items questionnaire was designed and distributed to English Language instructors who teach at the Open University of Sudan in Khartoum State. The questionnaire focused mainly on the items concerned with the research questions and hypothesis.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

It is aimed to present the results of the study statistically in this chapter. As it was stated before in chapter three, it was used two different procedures to analyze the collected data. The main goal of analyzing the data is to find out adequate and valid results in order to answer the research question which were raised in chapter one. In addition to that, the outcomes will help the user to draw the conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for future studies.

5 CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The conclusion of the study which the researcher has come to. The recommendation reflects the opinion so as to find serious solutions for the problem and the suggestions for further studies.

This study concentrates mainly on the impact of motivation on reading comprehension for Sudanese Universities EFL learners' undergraduate students.

The descriptive analytical method is used to conduct this study. The sample of the study was the students and English language instructors at the Open University of Sudan Khartoum state –faculty of education level three. Both primary and secondary sources are used to collect data for this study. The collected data analyzed statistically using the computer program (SPSS).

In general, the results showed that there is a great importance for instructors of English language to apply reading strategies in reading comprehension for students.

Besides, it showed that it is necessary to motivate students of the Sudanese universities so as to perform better in reading comprehension.

The result also showed it is very important to motivate the undergraduate students of the Sudanese universities to perform better in reading comprehension finally the results showed that instructors should motivate the unmotivated students of the Sudanese universities to perform better in reading comprehension.

Referring to the analysis of the instructors' questionnaire the value f chi-square for all phrases is 0.05. That means there is significant difference.

That means most of the instructors see that all the statement in the questionnaire are correct. And this supports the research hypothesis, the research objectives and answering the research questions.

And from the statistics analysis of students test (pre - post - tests), it is obvious there is a great significant difference at 0.05 level. and this result support the objectives of the research, and research questions, it approves that there is an impact of motivation on reading comprehension for EFL undergraduate students of the Open University of Sudan – Khartoum state faculty of education level three.

5.2 THE MAIN FINDINGS:

The findings that come out of the study:

- a. Reading strategies aim to help students to improve reading comprehension.
- b. Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, integrative and instrumental motivation make students achieve better success in reading comprehension.
- c. Undergraduate students are not motivated.



The unmotivated students:

- a. Need smiles and praising for their efforts when they struggle and even if they don't get right answers.
- b. Also need motivators of information and communication technologies (ICT) to motivate them to perform better.
- c. Need to know that their instructors care about and their success and this motivate them to work hard.
- d. It's important to draw the unmotivated students to classroom instructions so as to engage them by standing near them or asking them questions.
- e. Need their instructors to build with them good relationship so as to help them to do whatever needed from their instructors.
- f. Untrained instructors and classroom environment have great impact on the undergraduate students' educational motivation.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusion, the following points are recommended:

- a. Instructors should use reading strategies to help students to succeed in reading comprehension.
- b. More motivation should be provided to students to help them improve their reading comprehension.
- c. Undergraduate students should be motivated by parents and instructors.

Instructors are recommended to:

- a. Praise their unmotivated students' efforts when they struggle and even if they don't get right answers.
- b. Build a good relationship with students to help them to do whatever needed from their instructors.
- c. To use visual or audiovisual aids while teaching.
- d. To draw the unmotivated students to classroom instructions so as to engage them.

- e. To have a well plan organized lessons with clear objectives.
- f. To use motivators of information and communication technologies (ICT) to motivate the unmotivated students.
- g. To make their students feel that they care about them and their success.
- h. The ministry of education should make workshop to train the untrained instructors and pay care for classrooms environment and should be well equipped so that students find a real interest in practicing reading.

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