

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST



ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES IN READING
COMPREHENSION IN CASCADE TECHNICAL ACADEMY IN GHANA

EVANS ATTAH

2022

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES IN READING
COMPREHENSION IN CASCADE TECHNICAL ACADEMY IN GHANA

BY

EVANS ATTAH

Thesis submitted to the Department of Arts Education of the Faculty of
Humanities and Social Sciences Education, University of Cape Coast, in
partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a Master of Philosophy
degree in English Education

JUNE 2022

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this is the result of my original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree at this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature Date

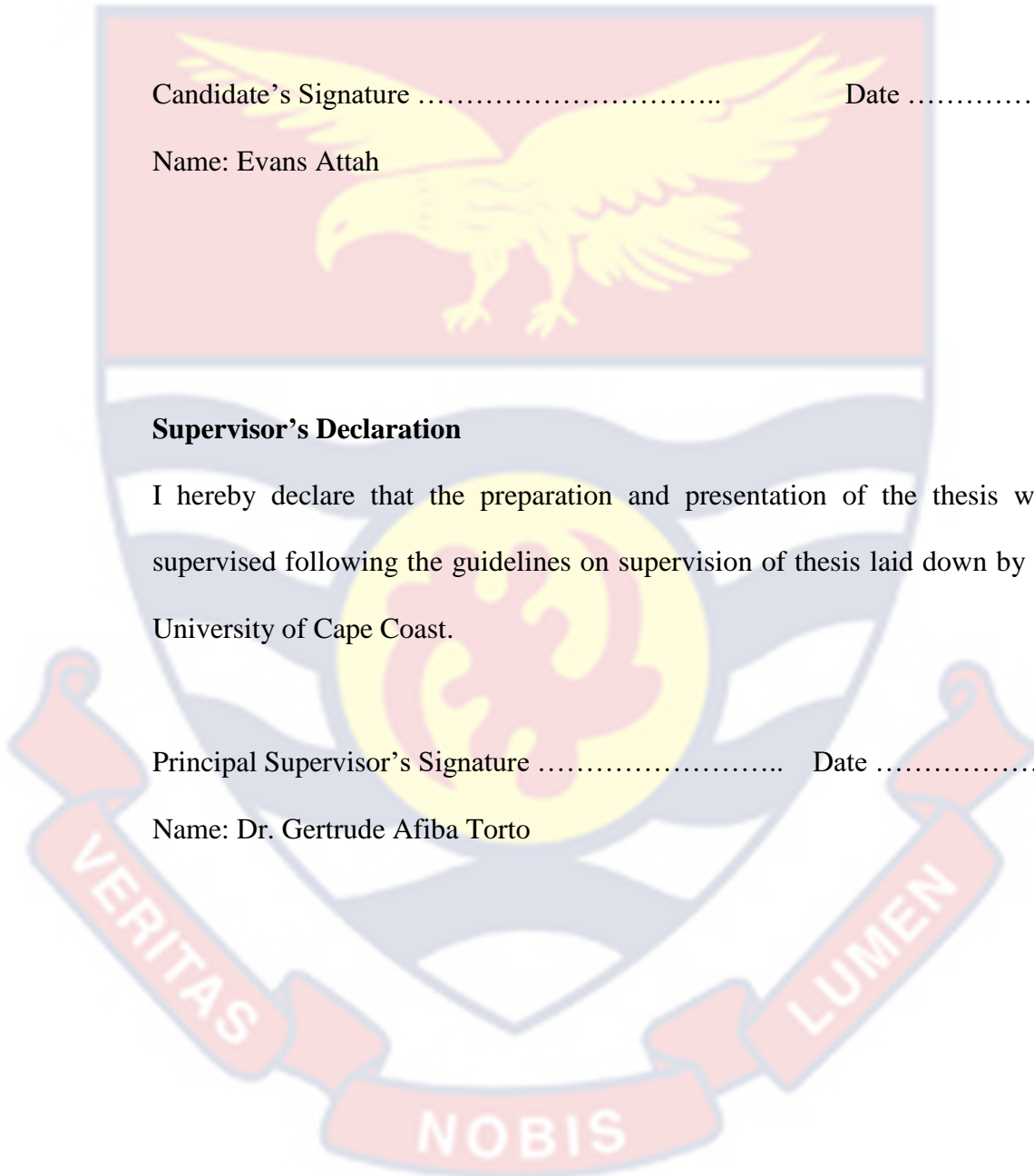
Name: Evans Attah

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised following the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature Date

Name: Dr. Gertrude Afiba Torto



ABSTRACT

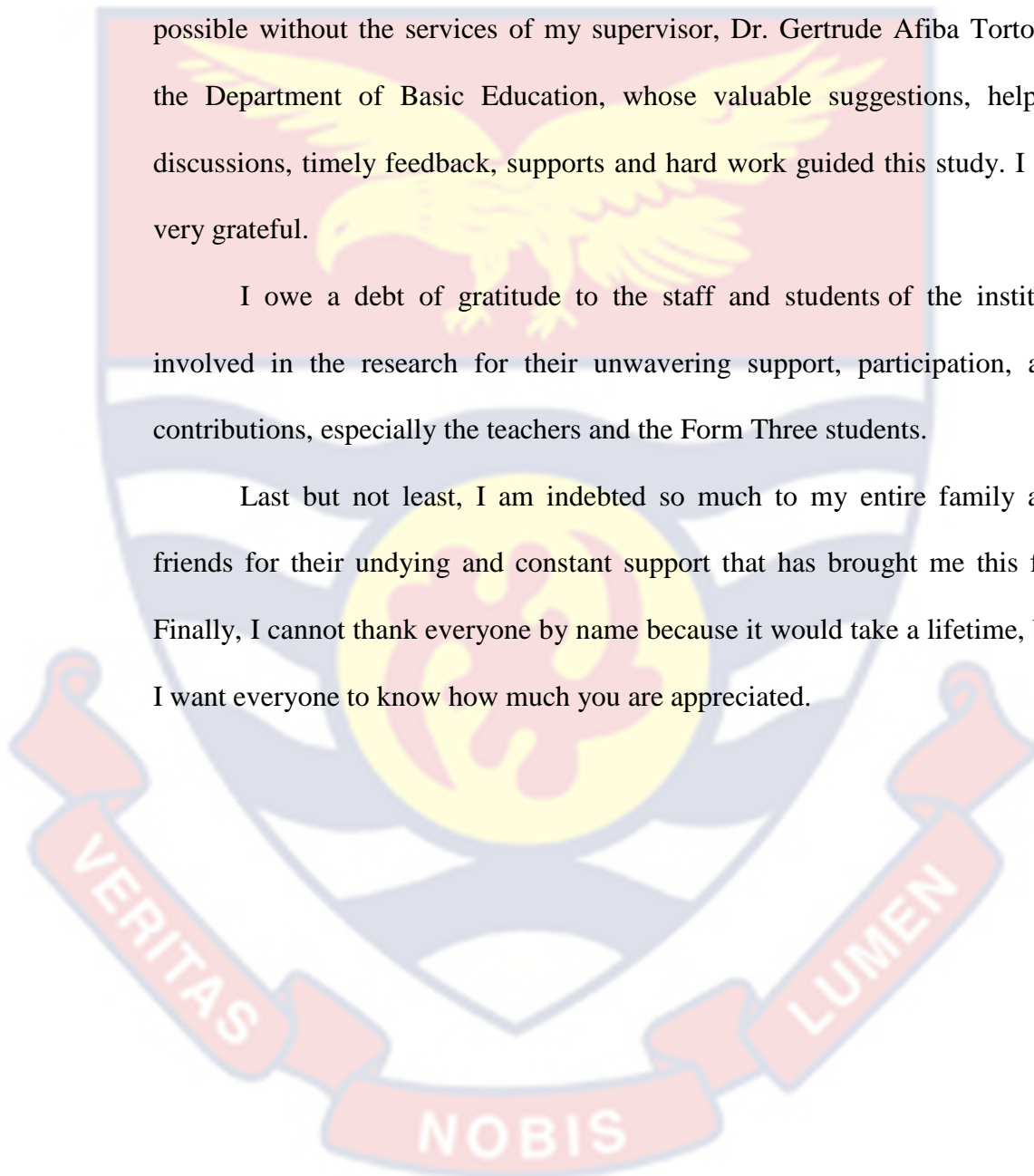
The study explored the teaching strategies for reading comprehension and their effect on students' academic performance at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym). Cascade Technical Academy represents a technical institute in Ghana. The study assessed teaching strategies that English teachers use to teach reading comprehension, perceived factors that influence the choice of teaching strategies, the perceived efficacy of the teaching strategies, and the effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension. The study was underpinned by the constructivist theory. A mixed-methods approach, questionnaires and observation checklists were used for data collection. The study relied on simple random sampling to select 80 Form Three students and five teachers of English were purposefully selected. Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were used for the quantitative analysis, while the qualitative data were grouped into themes. The study found from teachers' experiences that students had an average reading level, teaching strategies, duration, and the number of times teachers have reading activities to teach reading comprehension were average. Again, the study established that inadequate textbooks, time allocation, and absenteeism were some challenges teachers encountered in teaching English comprehension. Finally, it was observed that difficulty in pronunciation and the use of idiomatic expressions were sources of worry for students. Most students believe that reading comprehension directly impacts a student's academic performance, which influences other subjects of study. The study recommends that teachers help develop students' reading skills and comprehension of text on a daily basis to help improve students' performance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I cannot adequately express my thankfulness and appreciation to the Almighty God for his protection, love, and kindness extended to me throughout this ordeal. My completion of this work would not have been possible without the services of my supervisor, Dr. Gertrude Afiba Torto of the Department of Basic Education, whose valuable suggestions, helpful discussions, timely feedback, supports and hard work guided this study. I am very grateful.

I owe a debt of gratitude to the staff and students of the institute involved in the research for their unwavering support, participation, and contributions, especially the teachers and the Form Three students.

Last but not least, I am indebted so much to my entire family and friends for their undying and constant support that has brought me this far. Finally, I cannot thank everyone by name because it would take a lifetime, but I want everyone to know how much you are appreciated.



DEDICATION

To my wife, Martha, my two beautiful daughters, Shalom and Sharon, my family and all my loved ones.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	6
Purpose and Objectives of the Study	10
Research Questions	10
Significance of the Study	11
Delimitation of the Study	11
Limitations of the Study	11
Organisation of the Study	12
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Introduction	13
Overview	13
Theoretical Review	13
Constructivist Theory	13
Conceptual Review	19
Components of Reading Comprehension	19

Mental Representations	20
Content Literacy	21
Cognitive Processes	21
Cultural Background	22
Reading Comprehension in Second-Cycle Institutions	23
Pre-reading Phase	23
Reading Phase	24
Post-reading phase	24
Strategies for Teaching Comprehension	25
Retelling Assessment Strategy	26
Cloze Assessment Strategy	29
Informal Reading Inventory Strategy	31
Think-aloud	32
Forms of text in reading	34
Narrative text	34
Expository text	35
Procedural Texts	36
Reading Comprehension Models	37
Bottom-up model	38
Top-down model	39
Interactive model	41
Empirical Review	42
Gaps in Literature	51
Chapter Summary	52

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction	53
Overview	53
Research Design	53
Study Area	54
Population	55
Sample and Sampling Procedure	55
Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents	56
Data Collection Instruments	58
Questionnaire	59
Observation	59
Pre-Test of Instrument	60
Validity and Reliability	60
Data Collection Procedure	61
Data Processing and Analysis	62
Ethical Considerations	63
Chapter Summary	64
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
Introduction	65
Overview	65
Data Presentation	65
Analysis of the Research Questions	66
Research Question One	66
Research Question Two	72
Research Question Three	75

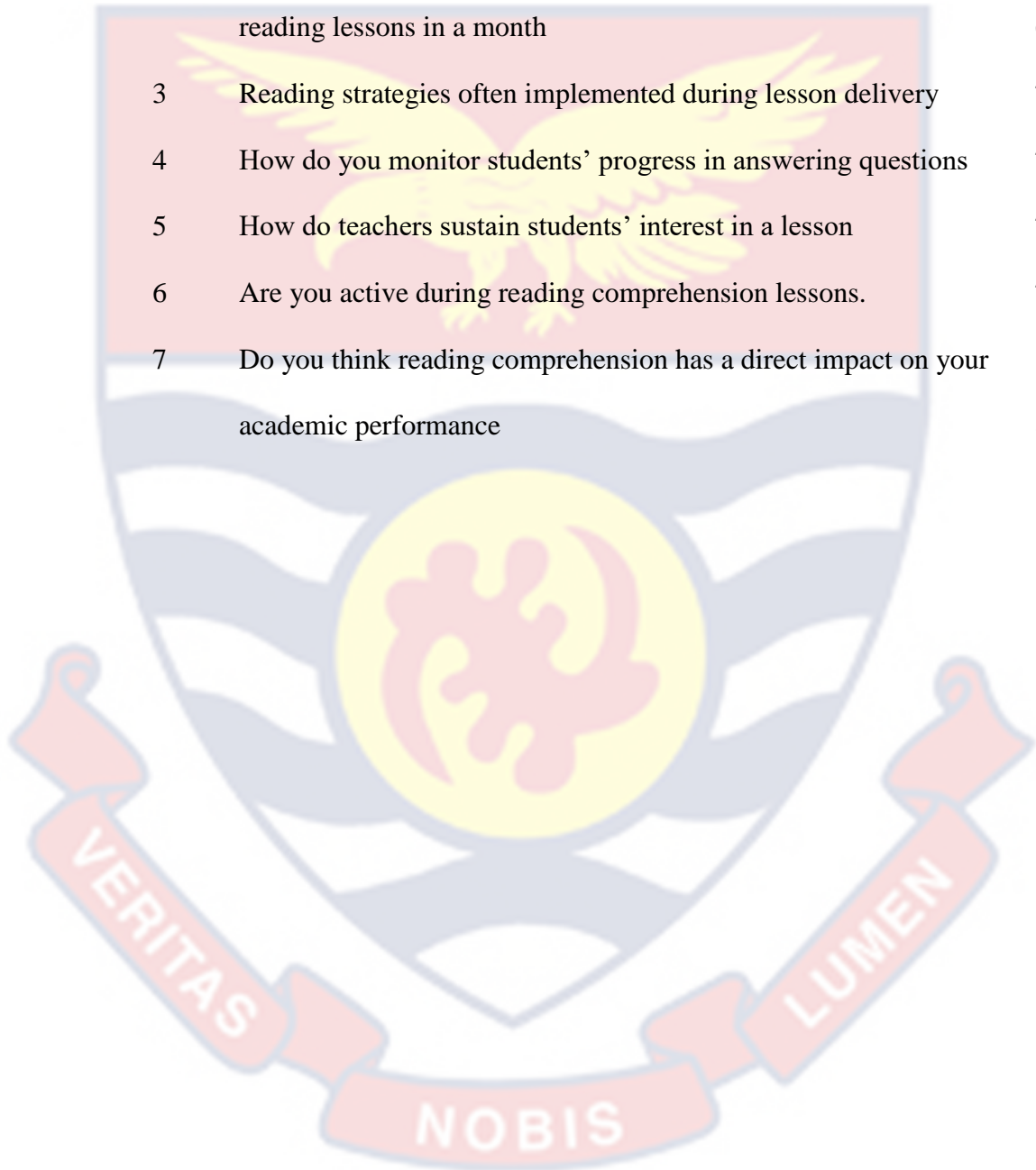
Research Question Four	77
Summary of Key Findings	82
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Introduction	83
Overview of the Study	83
Key Findings	84
Conclusions	85
Recommendations	85
Suggestions for Further Research	86
REFERENCES	87
APPENDICES	113
APPENDIX 'A': Questionnaire for Teachers of English	114
APPENDIX B: Questionnaire for Students	121
APPENDIX 'C': IRB Letter	127
APPENDIX 'D': Letter from Department	128
APPENDIX 'E': Supervisors Consent Letter	129

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Demographic Characteristics of Teachers	56
2 Demographic Characteristics of Students	57
3 Questionnaire Return Rate	66
4 How would you describe the reading level of your students from your personal experience?	66
5 Students who can comprehend reading with less guidance	67
6 Strategies used to teach reading comprehension	68
7 Time duration and meeting to discuss and plan teaching strategies with other teachers	70
8 Observation of the strategies in reading comprehension	71
9 Challenges teachers encounter in teaching English comprehension	73
10 What problems do students face during reading comprehension lesson	77

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	How often do you have reading activities in a week	68
2	How often do you have to organise students in groups during reading lessons in a month	69
3	Reading strategies often implemented during lesson delivery	75
4	How do you monitor students' progress in answering questions	76
5	How do teachers sustain students' interest in a lesson	78
6	Are you active during reading comprehension lessons.	79
7	Do you think reading comprehension has a direct impact on your academic performance	80



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Teaching refers to all processes and actions aimed at conveying knowledge, skills, and understanding at all levels of education. To put it simply, it motivates people to learn. So, if a pupil does not learn in a school setting, the teacher has failed to teach. The quality of formal teacher-student contact in which learning is the major product is known as teaching (Schindler et al., 2021). In essence, a teacher directs students' activities to promote learning. The direction can be explicit, oblique, systematic, or unstructured.

On the other hand, learning is how one's behaviour changes due to exposure to new situations. Behavioural changes or alterations are used to assess learning; however, not all learning opportunities exist, as behavioural changes might be beneficial or destructive. In any case, the goal of teaching is to ensure pupils learn; if this is not accomplished, the goal has been missed. Transferring or transmitting knowledge, attitudes, and skills in relation to reading comprehension is the main focus of the teacher (Collins, Brown, & Newman, 2018). According to Snipes, Soga and Uro (2007), it is "a scheduled meeting between the teacher and the student on a certain subject topic to facilitate learning through the use of appropriate methods and materials in a fairly conducive environment." As stated above, teaching is the systematic presentation of information, concepts, skills, attitudes, and strategies to learners at all levels of education. "A teaching act is a rational deed executed according to specific professional norms" (Raths, 1971). This means that in

reading comprehension, appropriate teaching strategies must be employed to make students read and comprehend a text.

This implies that for an activity to be classified as teaching, it must adhere to certain professional standards. It is a method of passing on information, attitudes, and abilities by demonstrating, informing, explaining, directing, clarifying, and evaluating. Teaching is a professional philosophy involving a methodical, reasonable, and organised process of conveying knowledge, attitude, and skills. Teaching is a science as well as an art; therefore, appropriate planning is required for effective teaching (Ojukwu, 2021). Reading and writing are linked because the brain detects a cadence associated with more complicated writing. Students from literate contexts often arrive at school with a broad understanding of printed language.

Teachers use teaching strategies, also known as instructional strategies, to deliver course information to keep students engaged and exercise multiple skill sets. Depending on the unit topic, grade level, class size, and classroom resources, teachers might employ a variety of teaching styles (Shukla & Dungsungnoen, 2016). The four language arts—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—are woven throughout the English Language Curriculum, making them essential for learning and demonstrating learning across all academic disciplines. Teachers are in charge of supporting pupils in mastering these four modes of communication.

Listening and speaking are the main forms of oral language acquisition, as they are acquired organically in the home and community before children enter school. Reading and writing are learned in distinct ways (Goodman & Goodman, 2013). Reading and writing are considered the

school's responsibility and are explicitly taught, according to Fillmore and Snow (2018), so these two modes are referred to as secondary modes. Readers with metacognitive awareness may keep track of their reading comprehension, recognising when it falters and knowing what to do about it. An experienced reader, for example, might re-read a paragraph more slowly or break it down into digestible chunks if it does not make sense. According to Pressley (2008), beginning training with individual comprehension strategies is effective. He asserts that developing strategic knowledge and skills requires time for pupils.

Writers gain knowledge and a better understanding of language by reading. They also learn their genre, expand their vocabulary, and, most significantly, find inspiration. Students cannot achieve the benefits of reading if appropriate teaching strategies are not put in place to enhance students' comprehension abilities in the reading class. Reading brings meaning to and gets meaning from printed or written material (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013). Through the reading activity, the students' minds are developed. Understanding the written word, phrases, clauses, and sentences is how the mind grows in its ability. Strategic readers' higher-order thinking improves their reading experience and responses to fiction and informational text. Furthermore, once students own the process, they take it a step further by applying what they know to the unknown and becoming creative thinkers who can assess problems safely, knowing that they have the skills and can acquire the knowledge needed to solve any problem encountered.

As a result, teaching children to read and comprehend using the appropriate instructional methodologies helps them improve their minds and language skills (Hogan, Bridges, Justice, & Cain, 2011). Everything a teacher

does in a reading lesson should improve students' ability to comprehend texts with increasingly complex content. The teacher's tactics, approaches, and instructional material will impact the teaching and learning process and student achievement. A good approach, material, and methods are required while teaching reading activities (Octaberlina & Asrifan, 2021). Teachers should be prepared with proper teaching strategies for reading comprehension, including helpful reading strategies, since these bring the class to life. Students must engage in active learning by establishing appropriate approaches and strategies. Students will be more engaged in the reading lesson if they participate in active learning; it helps them not be silent or passive in the teaching and learning process (Oczkus, 2018; Bean & Melzer, 2021).

Reading is a lifelong skill used in school and everyday life. According to Ritchie and Ryan (2021), reading is a fundamental life skill. It is a crucial component of a child's academic and life success. Opportunities for personal fulfilment and professional success will ultimately be lost if one does not read well (Bazarbaevna, 2017). Despite its importance, reading is one of the most challenging subjects (Bharuthram, 2012). The ever-increasing demand for high literacy levels in our technology culture exacerbates the problem (Küçükolu, 2013). Students must learn to read critically or analytically to get the most out of their content. Reading entails decoding and understanding decoded words (Hudson, Pullen, Lane, & Torgesen, 2008; Kriegeskorte & Douglas, 2019). As a result, we can conclude that a person has read when decoding and comprehension have taken place. There are two layers of reality to consider when reading: one that we can see and one that we cannot. The one we can see is the text, and the one we cannot see is the process that goes on in

decoding those tests. As a result, the reading's goal is to reveal and make clear the underlying meaning (Danaei, Jamali, Mansourian, & Rastegarpour, 2020). Therefore, appropriate teaching strategies should be employed by teachers of English to aid students in comprehending a text.

Sari, Pratiwi and Thereana (2019) asserts that all readers should try to understand what they are reading. Effective readers actively connect with the text and are aware of the steps they take to understand what they read. Teachers support students in developing their reading comprehension by teaching reading strategies. Studies have demonstrated that strategies including predicting, drawing conclusions, imagining, inferring, asking questions, and summarising improve reading comprehension (Amin, 2019; Al-Qahtani, 2020).

Research has proven that the think-aloud approach, group practice, partner practice, and autonomous use are all important ways to teach tactics regarding reading comprehension (Duke & Pearson, 2005). When children are taught comprehension skills systematically across the grades, they grow more competent, adaptable, and independent (Brevik, 2019). Students learn to use numerous methods flexibly and in combination to understand what they are reading once they have mastered individual strategies (National Reading Panel, 2000). Even high-achieving students benefit from specific strategy training and modelling (Duffy, 2002).

For a successful reading lesson, the teacher should know more about approaches, methods, and strategies that make a reading lesson successful (Masduqi, 2016). These strategies are appropriate to help the students get the meanings of individual words, paragraphs, and the entire text because they

will be exposed to the skills of comprehending texts. The student will get more detailed information about the text and comprehend it easily. These approaches will aid students in their quest to become specialists in text reading. Teachers will understand teaching methods, which will help them improve the teaching-learning process and make studying more appealing. As a result, the student's motivation to read will improve.

Statement of the Problem

A contemporary point of discussion and concern for educators and stakeholders is reading comprehension, which comprises several crucial components: the reader, the text, the activity, and the social context (Paris & Stahl, 2005; Duke & Pearson, 2009). In line with this, reading and comprehension are deemed essential to academic performance in Ghanaian schools. For many years, teachers and researchers have known that pupils' reading comprehension improves when they are interested in the reading content (Vlach & Burcie, 2010). Thus, when students are not interested in the reading material, they find it difficult to positively engage in reading activities for comprehension.

The reader interacts with the text during reading comprehension to create meaning (Brevik, 2019). Proficient readers employ a number of techniques that lead to active, deliberate, and self-controlled reading before, during, and after reading (De Milliano, Van Gelderen, & Slegers, 2016). Utilising background knowledge, summarising, forecasting, and checking predictions, elaborating, questioning, and obtaining information, asking questions and obtaining information, visualising or imagining, and establishing connections (Tercanlioglu, 2004; Friesen & Frid, 2021) are all

strategies that support successful reading. In addition to these tactics, researchers have discovered that skilled readers have a high level of metacognitive awareness (Al-Mekhlafi, 2018; Sheikh, Soomro, & Hussain, 2019; Bagci & Unveren, 2020). The strategy's lack of sources and resources represents its second primary problem. This is especially true given that there is only one supposed source of knowledge (DiBiase, 2019).

Also, it appears students are under growing pressure to read well. In line with this assertion, McNamara and Kendeou (2011) argue that it is critical to teach reading as a process, and strategy training has been demonstrated to influence students' enjoyment of reading to understand what is being read. However, the ultimate goal of comprehension education should be student ownership of the methods and skills, knowledge of when comprehension fails, and how to address and correct the problem. Students can be set safely on the path to becoming lifelong readers by being taught to employ various comprehension strategies and abilities. Many opportunities to read independently assist learners in coordinating the methods they have acquired, allowing them to tweak, modify, or change tactics and skills until they can make sense of the text.

The literature on the relationship between reading and students' general performance have been inconclusive. For instance, whereas some studies (Muhid, Amalia, Hilaliyah, Budiana, & Wajdi, 2020; Teevno & Raisani, 2017) found a strong correlation between students' reading comprehension and their performance, other studies (Gürses, & Bouvet, 2016; Kırmızı, 2011) found a negative and low relationship between students reading comprehension and their performance. This gap is worth exploring in

order to reveal the impact of reading and comprehension strategies on students' overall performance, mostly especially in the Ghana context. The assessment of strategies is to determine if teachers are teaching the subject the right way and, if so, what impact it had on students' academic performance of students at Technical Institutes. This is because, reading comprehension is an important part of the English language course in Ghanaian Senior High and Technical schools and it is very important in determining whether or not learners can progress to Ghanaian Tertiary Schools.

Additionally, in a recent study, Li et al. (2021) scrutinized empirical studies conducted over the years on the teaching strategies in reading comprehension and their effect on students' performance in various contexts, including the United States, China, Turkey, Singapore, South Africa, Iran, Canada, Israel, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Taiwan, Jordan and South Korea. However, it appears there is a geographical gap in literature as it has not been conducted in a Ghanaian context. This is significant because Ghana has its unique cultural and linguistic context, and it is essential to understand how teaching strategies in reading comprehension can be adapted to suit the Ghanaian context. Additionally, Ghana has been making significant strides in education, and it is crucial to examine the effectiveness of teaching strategies in reading comprehension in Ghanaian schools.

Despite evidence that reading improves students' academic performance, the number of pupils who read and comprehend in Ghanaian second-cycle institutions, including Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym), is alarming. The statistical information presented by the West African Examination Council over the past few years has revealed this. For

example, in 2019, 100,781 applicants (or 29.42%) had D7-E8 on the WASSCE English, whereas 74,038 candidates (or 21.61%) had F9. As a result, 51.03% of WASSCE candidates who took the exam failed the English language section. The percentage of candidates who failed the English language in 2020 was 48.96%. Even though there was a slight decrease in failures in 2020, it is far too insignificant to think that all is okay without investigating how to address the problems that account for the abysmal performance of students in the paper.

As an area of the English language that is tested, reading comprehension has a significant margin of fifty scores; therefore, it is a good indicator of a student's strengths or weaknesses in the language (Nakamoto, Lindsey, & Manis, 2007). In the case of Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym), a comprehensive examination of applicant grades in the English language over the years demonstrates that a significant number of candidates struggle with the language and, more specifically, reading comprehension. Reading comprehension samples from students' class exercises and assessments went a long way towards demonstrating students' issues in this area. These indicate that many students at the Technical Institute have problems with reading and comprehension. Reading cannot be separated from comprehension in a school setting when the subject in question is academic performance. Munawaroh (2017) and Kasper, Uibu, and Mikk (2018) revealed that teaching strategies significantly influence students' performance. From the above findings, it is evident that teaching strategies have a direct impact on students' academic performance, and hence a proper investigation to assess

the teaching strategies used in teaching reading comprehension at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym) is a call in the right direction.

Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The study aims to assess the teaching strategies in reading comprehension and their effect on students' performance at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym).

The study has the following specific objectives;

1. To find out teaching strategies used by teachers of English to teach reading comprehension
2. To find out the perceived factors that influence the choice of the teaching strategies in reading comprehension
3. To assess the perceived teaching strategies used by teachers of English in teaching reading comprehension
4. To examine the effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension.

Research Questions

1. What are the teaching strategies that teachers of English use to teach reading comprehension?
2. What are the perceived factors that influence the choice of teaching strategies in reading comprehension?
3. What is the perceived efficacy of the teaching strategies used by teachers of English in teaching reading comprehension?
4. What are the effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension?

Significance of the Study

The study has multifaceted rationales that are not limited to the following: Firstly, the Ministry of Education can leverage the findings to refine educational policies, ensuring the integration of effective teaching methodologies that align with the needs of technical institutes, thereby enhancing overall educational quality. Secondly, the insights gained can contribute to the advancement of Ghana's education system by providing tailored recommendations to address specific challenges in reading comprehension. English teachers stand to benefit directly by gaining a deeper understanding of successful instructional approaches, enabling them to refine their methods for more impactful teaching. Lastly, students will experience improved learning outcomes as a result of the implementation of enhanced teaching strategies, fostering better reading comprehension skills that are crucial for academic success and future accomplishments.

Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on the teachers' teaching strategies in reading comprehension and their effect on students' performance at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym) in the Ho Municipality of Ghana. The study focused on the reading comprehension aspect of the English language. The results from the study were limited to technical institutes in Ghana and focused on teachers of English in the technical institutes.

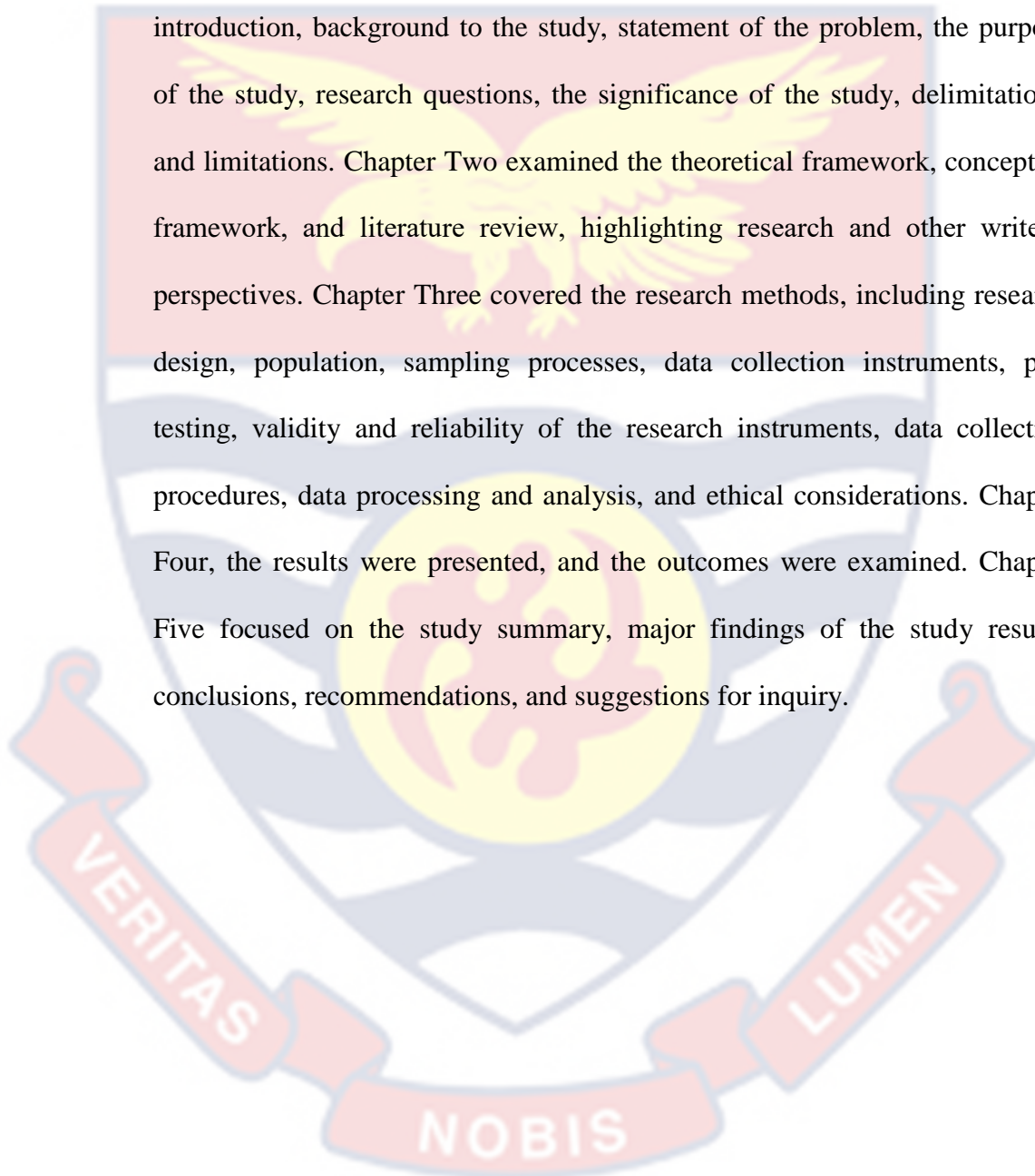
Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted only in one technical institute out of the many technical institutes in the country; hence, the findings may not be generalizable to other settings. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), a

study's limited external validity can result from its conducting it in a particular context that might not be representative of other contexts.

Organisation of the Study

The study was conducted in five chapters. Chapter One dealt with the introduction, background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, the significance of the study, delimitations, and limitations. Chapter Two examined the theoretical framework, conceptual framework, and literature review, highlighting research and other writers' perspectives. Chapter Three covered the research methods, including research design, population, sampling processes, data collection instruments, pre-testing, validity and reliability of the research instruments, data collection procedures, data processing and analysis, and ethical considerations. Chapter Four, the results were presented, and the outcomes were examined. Chapter Five focused on the study summary, major findings of the study results, conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for inquiry.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This research study serves to fill in the gaps in the assessment of teaching strategies used by English teachers in reading comprehension and their effect on students' performance in Ghanaian Technical Institutes, which other review-related literature paid less attention to. Teaching and learning theories were discussed together with constructivist theory and empirical studies on the key variables that aid reading comprehension in the English language.

Overview

This chapter reviews studies conducted by other researchers considered relevant to this study. The study focused on the theory used in the study, a conceptual review, such as components of reading comprehension, the context of the study, the pre-reading phase, post-reading phase, teaching strategies, and an empirical review.

Theoretical Review

Constructivist Theory

Jacobs (2016) indicates that a theoretical review is a perspective, a prospect, or a set of lenses to deal with research. It can therefore be considered an explanatory step in the research process. Cline (2011) opines that it narrows the study focus and, as a result, improves the clarity of the research problem. Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage, and Young (2020) postulate that a theoretical framework collects related concepts (or variables) and definitions to form propositions or hypotheses describing the relationship between the constructs.

A theoretical framework is a theoretical structure that holds or supports research work. The constructivist theory, which contends that humans can understand information they have created better, served as the foundation for this study. The learner is regarded as being the focus of the instructional process. Prejudices, experiences, the period we live in, and physical and mental maturity influence how we learn. When a learner is motivated, he or she uses willingness, determination, and action to gather, convert, formulate hypotheses, and use applications, interactions, or experiences to test these assumptions and draw accurate conclusions.

Two of the most influential personalities in the development of constructivist theories are Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. Both scholars believe that classrooms should be constructivist environments, but their theories differ, and there are differences in how constructivism should be implemented in classrooms. Piaget (1980) and Vygotsky (1978) believe that learners must be challenged to accept individual differences in a constructivist classroom, greatly enhance their commitment to study, develop new ideas, and build their knowledge through different activities. When a person connects with an experience, condition, or idea, Piaget (1964) believes that one or two things can occur. Whether the current experience is connected to the existing pattern or not (the assimilation process), the current pattern has been adjusted to suit the unique idea or experience (the accommodation or adaptation process). The use of new understandings of an existing scheme is assimilation.

Assimilation is based on a learner's ability to identify shared traits among items and relate new concepts to ones they already understand. Adapting available ways of looking at concepts that are not in line with

existing schemes is also known as adaptation. Reflexive thinking facilitates accommodation and changes in existing schemes.

Learners participate independently in constructive learning, work silently through specific tasks, allow their minds to screen through materials, and consolidate new ideas with old ones according to the principle of constructivism. As constructivism implies, learners are not “blank slates,” devoid of ideas, concepts, or brain structures. These imply that in the reading comprehension classroom, teachers of English must give students a chance to explore the materials and help them with constructive teaching strategies to help them be able to use the concepts and ideas that they may perceive to be able to comprehend the text. Furthermore, constructivists recognise that learners are not empty vessels or blank slates waiting for knowledge (Noureen, Bashhir, & Arshad, 2020). Instead, learners build new knowledge from diverse past experiences, acquaintances, and beliefs (Noureen et al., 2020). Gupta and Gupta (2017) agreed that, similar to how all cells develop from pre-existing cells in cell theory, information already exists in the human body, and all that is required are methods for investigation. This demonstrates that learners have a sense of self-awareness when they come to class. They generate their own knowledge rather than absorbing what their teachers tell them.

Scaffolding has the ability to be utilized in various sectors, age groups, and learning themes due to the simplicity of Bruner’s theory. English teachers must allow students to develop new ways and abilities to read and comprehend what they read regularly. To provide appropriate scaffolding regarding reading and comprehension skills, English teachers must be aware of the developmental state of the children in their care. Although this may sound

difficult for a single English instructor to accomplish, with the support of other people in the classroom, such as parents, helpers, or more knowledgeable students, they may improvise and provide scaffolding. Teachers may group children to help them study more effectively as they gain confidence and expertise in using the skills needed to read and comprehend. It is also critical for teachers to recognise when students are ready to learn independently and remove them from the scaffolding (Wheeler, 2017).

According to Smith and Elley (1995), constructivism focuses on learning processes rather than products. Therefore, appropriate teaching strategies must be at the heart of the reading comprehension lesson. Student mistakes are seen as opportunities to learn more about how students organise their experiential world. Instructional activities aim to meet real-world student needs and solve real-world challenges. Instead of being a transmitter of knowledge, the teacher is viewed as a facilitator of student understanding. According to Von Glasersfeld (1996), the teacher's responsibility is to offer students opportunities and incentives to generate meaning rather than simply disseminate knowledge.

Learning responsibilities and the collaborative nature of student work are the foundation of collaborative instructional strategies. Together, the student and the teacher must learn using these strategies, and the teacher must make sure that the learning process is facilitated. The methods are based on the idea that students should be taught in accordance with their nature and not what "others" want. The model for organising learning is thus based on the students' interests, background knowledge, and needs. The main goal of the strategies is to help students develop the ability to examine their learning

characteristics so they can learn through the process of learning how to learn. The prominent features of integrating new information with prior knowledge are critical thinking and collaborative learning.

The techniques have been referred to as interactive learning because of this. Facilitating the presentation of questions for small group work is part of the learning process. When reading, teachers should divide their class into groups and let the students work on tasks like skimming. Inquiry-based, case-based, problem-based, project-based, exploration-based, and just-in-time teaching are among the major categories into which the methodologies are divided (Sakata, 2019).

Hoover (1996) proposed four approaches for students to exhibit their constructive talents in learning contexts. To begin, learners build new understandings based on what they currently know. They bring information from previous experiences to the learning circumstances. Prior knowledge impacts new or modified knowledge due to their new learning experiences. Therefore, teachers of English must help struggling readers read and comprehend by reaching out to passages that contain vocabulary within the learners' current environment and sorting to engage learners with comprehension passages that appeal to their immediate environment and things they know. This will help learners build a strong interest because they will be driven to grow taller shortly to read and grasp difficult texts.

Second, if prior knowledge is important for learning, teachers must pay attention to it and build learning environments that take advantage of discrepancies between learners' current understandings and new experiences. This presents a dilemma for teachers, as they cannot assume that all students

comprehend information differently. To supplement the explanations, children may require a variety of experiences in order to reach different levels of comprehension. This will help the teacher in the reading comprehension class focus on the individual rate of development when it comes to reading comprehension and vary the tasks for individual learners to learn at their own pace for effective output.

Third, if students use their current understandings in new contexts to create new knowledge, teachers must involve students in active learning activities that highlight their current understandings. Following this, the instructor in the reading comprehension classroom would undertake the necessary pre-reading exercises to aid the student in transitioning into the new work by assisting them in transferring prior knowledge into an existing one. The teacher would also engage in reading activities, such as actively assisting the learner to use previous reading and comprehension skills in the current work to read and grasp the new text.

Furthermore, if new knowledge is actively created, it will take time. They can reflect on new experiences, how those experiences align with present understandings, and how a different understanding might give students better ideas if they have enough time. This would assist the teacher in a reading comprehension lesson by allocating adequate time between himself and the student in order for the learner to get more experience. This would also give more room for the learner to work more on comprehension passages to gain adequate experience in the end for better academic performance.

The current study looked into the assessment of reading strategies in reading comprehension and their effects on students' performance. As a result,

constructivism is relevant in this study because when learners construct knowledge independently, misconceptions may occur as they seek to form new ideas. The instructor serves as a guide, facilitator, and co-explorer, encouraging students to dispute, question, and establish their ideas, beliefs, and conclusions—although misconceptions can never be completely avoided. Constructivism is useful for thinking about the connections between personal vocabulary abilities and reading comprehension abilities. Constructivist theory is based on the premise that all learners are active participants in producing personal understanding and that the more learning occurs in real-world problems, the more meaningful the understanding becomes (Woolfolk, 2010). From the above, it is important to allow students to participate actively in the reading comprehension lesson so that the text will be more meaningful and understandable to them, an idea which is premised on the constructivist theory.

Conceptual Review

This aspect of the study discussed the concept of comprehension, the components of reading comprehension, and the various comprehension strategies.

Components of Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is one of the most difficult human behaviours to master. Reading theorists who have struggled to accurately and meaningfully reflect reading comprehension have presented numerous theoretical models in recent decades (McNamara & Magliano, 2009; Perfetti & Stafura, 2014). These models range from broad theoretical ones that depict

the connections and interactions between the various components of comprehension to those that represent particular comprehension procedures.

Mental Representations

When a reader reads a text, Van Oostendorp and Goldman (1998) state that he could develop a mental picture describing how the reader interprets the text. The employment of several levels of representation in the creation of meaning has been validated by numerous studies. When a reader reads a book, three different levels of mental representation are formed, according to Kintsch (1998). The three components are the surface component, the text base, and the situation model. Kintsch (1998) went on to say that in reading, the mental representation is made up of information from the texts, readers' information about the book, and inferences made during the process. Therefore, teachers of English must introduce students to comprehension passages that appeal to their immediate environment before proceeding with many abstract and complicated passages. In doing this, students can create a mental picture from the information provided in the text for easy comprehension.

The surface component entails capturing the specific phrasing or syntax of a statement. Text-based indicates its meaning and comprises the parts and linkages that emerge from the text without adding anything not included. The reader applies prior information to produce a more flawless and consistent mental image in a text-based environment. According to Kintsch (1998), the scenario model is a framework that integrates the text base and relevant elements of the reader's knowledge.

Some prior knowledge is required to develop a text-based model, but this knowledge is broader and is required for decoding texts in general, whereas previous knowledge in the formation of a scenario model is more particular to the content of the text. Thus, introducing students to less complex texts or passages that relate to their immediate environment helps students apply their previous knowledge to comprehending the text.

Content Literacy

Content literacy is the capacity to read, comprehend, and learn from texts pertaining to a particular subject. The three types of content literacy include general and content-specific literacy skills and prior knowledge of the subject matter. The general and subject-specific literacy skills indicate a more comprehensive comprehension independent of the particular content. Using this information, a mental image based on text is produced (McKenna & Robinson, 1990). Previous content knowledge is information that is relevant to the subject matter of a certain text and is used to create a mental scenario.

The ability to acquire new knowledge in a particular discipline through reading and writing is called content literacy. Therefore, reading comprehension skills are necessary, as students need to read and comprehend texts or passages only in the English language and need to read and comprehend in other disciplines. The ability to read and comprehend in other disciplines can be realised if students are exposed to the right and necessary strategies for effective reading and comprehension.

Cognitive Processes

The automatic and subconscious application of syntactic and semantic principles and activating more specific prior information occur. Various

cognitive processes are consciously or unconsciously carried out. Perception is described as the instinctive and subconscious processes in the brain. For example, we are aware of the consequences of our actions when we see a dog and immediately recognise it, yet no active and conscious mental processes are involved in this identification (Kintsch, 1998). When we wish to recall the name of a person we see and know, we use active thinking to solve problems.

As a result, since comprehension is subconscious, when we read a book and have no trouble understanding it, the process is related to perception rather than problem-solving. This understanding bridges the gap between perception and problem-solving (Kintsch, 1998). As a result, if students are exposed to more reading comprehension sessions and are properly assessed, teachers are more likely to have independent readers. The more reading comprehension classes with suitable strategies and skills for reading and comprehension are presented to kids, the more they will read and grasp instinctively.

Cultural Background

There has been substantial research on the connection between prior knowledge and native language reading comprehension. According to research in this field, familiarity with a text's subject matter improves reading comprehension in adults and children (Hirsch, 2003). Certain researchers have also suggested a possible function for background knowledge in reading comprehension in a second or foreign language (Joh & Plakans, 2017). According to Schimmel and Ness (2017), the children's reading performance on the various types of texts was examined using reading-aloud procedures, retelling, and questioning. Cultural familiarity was found to increase both

reading comprehension and reading effectiveness. According to Bernhardt's (2005) research, texts with a culturally known content schema are simpler to absorb.

Reading Comprehension in Second-Cycle Institutions

The Senior High School teaching syllabus for the English Language (2010) has outlined some strategies and guidelines for teaching reading comprehension in second-cycle institutions. The syllabus has the following general objectives, which outline the various strategies to help teach reading comprehension lessons:

1. To develop in students various skills and techniques for effective reading.
2. For students to acquire the skills of answering comprehension questions accurately and appropriately
3. For students to acquire the skills of summarising passages or texts.
4. For students to acquire the skills of deriving moral and other values from passages/texts.

According to the syllabus, passages of varying degrees of difficulty with about 350 words should be provided for reading, and discussion should be made to make selecting the passage easier to understand. Reading comprehension teaching strategies are grouped into three phases, or categories. These are the pre-reading phase, the reading phase, and the post-reading phase.

Pre-reading Phase

Before reading for comprehension, the pre-reading activities are all the teacher's teaching strategies. According to the syllabus, teachers should

introduce pre-reading questions to lead into the passage or text. These pre-reading questions guide the students to know what to look out for in terms of relevant information that will aid them in comprehending the passage and answering those questions appropriately. Teachers are also supposed to introduce students to techniques for reading. These techniques include skimming and scanning.

Skimming is the process of quickly going through the pages of a newspaper or book to see what might be useful or entertaining and obtain a basic impression of what it includes. Additionally, skimming a text for information The teacher compares and contrasts the two strategies, identifying scenarios in which each can be employed. Before reading the material, students should ask questions to help them focus on their reading and find the information they need.

Reading Phase

The reading phase is when the students engage with the text or passage under study. The teacher guides the students to read passages silently for information processing. In guiding students to read, teachers help them identify each paragraph's central idea, known as the topic sentence, and their respective supporting sentences.

Post-reading phase

This has to do with the activities done by the teacher and students after the student interacts with the text or passage in the reading phase. Students answer factual or memory questions to demonstrate understanding at this point in the reading lesson. The teacher grouped students into pairs or groups according to their comprehension abilities to answer the comprehension

questions. This is to help weak students with reading comprehension learn subconsciously from their peers. After the students have finished answering the comprehension questions, the teacher helps students identify answers that should be right by linking the answers to comprehension questions to where they can be located in the passage.

Strategies for Teaching Comprehension

Reading is essential in English and other courses taught in schools and beyond, such as mathematics, Ghanaian languages, integrated science, social studies, history, and other subjects. It is no surprise that Mohammed and Amponsah (2018) claim that language ability influences learners' success in all courses. If students have weak reading skills, it is reasonable to assume that their writing and comprehension levels will be poor (Botha, 2022). Furthermore, one may be unaware of the subject being taught without the capacity to read. We are exposed to a great deal of information while we read. After reading a text, a reader must understand its information. According to Jordaan (2011), reading proficiency is both a means and an end to educational accomplishment. "Reading is the cornerstone of the development of an individual's talents in his social life" (Ahmad Baaqeel, 2020).

It provides a useful method for increasing vocabulary, word strength, and language skills" (p. 53). According to Tella and Akande (2007), reading is the foundation of self-education and lifelong learning and is a skill that has the power to transform both individuals' lives and entire societies. Reading is one of the most crucial English skills that have to be improved. To acquire new information and knowledge, students must be able to read. Reading is a

difficult task that involves many definitions, many different situations, and many different authors or experts.

As a result, comprehension is defined as comprehending a text. As a result, understanding must be the foundation for interpreting a text and drawing conclusions beyond what is explicitly stated (Ntim, 2017). When all other factors are equal, comprehension is defined as “the process of building meaning by engaging with text using a blend of background knowledge,” as defined by Grabe and Stoller (2011), as quoted in Hartshorn, Egbert, Evans, and Johnson (2017). This encompasses “general, cultural, and topic-specific knowledge” (pp. 38–39), as well as “prior experience, information in the text, and the posture one takes with respect to the text” (p. 38–39).

Retelling Assessment Strategy

Another sort of classroom-based reading assessment that has been used to test students’ understanding is retelling (Hagtvet, 2003; Serafini, 2010). Students demonstrate comprehension and knowledge by restating and summarising a chosen passage’s key ideas and concepts (Serafini, 2010; Spinelli, 2012). Students may present orally or submit a written assignment so that teachers can check if students grasped the part by recounting the story in their own words rather than repeating the writers’ words (Han, 2005; Morrow, 2005; Spinelli, 2012). By comparing the information being relayed to the original work, teachers can use the retelling task to gauge their students’ comprehension of reading (Serafini, 2010). Although testing students’ reading comprehension is the main objective of retelling assessments, teachers can utilise it in various ways based on their learning styles. Students can use four retelling tests to demonstrate their comprehension of a passage. The intricacy

of these categories varies depending on how students read a chapter and deliver their retelling.

The first is written-to-written, in which students read a written item aloud to themselves before writing down what they have learned. Written-to-oral communication is the second type. Students must read a written text and then summarise what they learned and comprehended in this form. The next phase is to transition from oral to written communication. The teacher reads the material to the pupils before writing down what they have learned. Oral-to-oral communication is the fourth type. The learner is first asked to read the information by the teacher, who then asks him or her to respond vocally (Serafini, 2010). Whatever method they use for recounting, teachers should assess students' understanding of the key concepts, ideas, details, and concepts in the passage (Han, 2005).

Additional advantages of the retelling assessment include reading comprehension testing for students. First and foremost, it helps teachers measure students' various levels of comprehension, which is crucial for designing educational interventions to meet the specific requirements of individual students (Klingner, 2004; Roberts, Good, & Corcoran, 2005). Also, it does not take long for teachers to prepare, design, conduct, and score the retelling evaluation (Han, 2005; Roberts et al., 2005). In addition, retelling gives teachers important information about how well their students can organise, categorise, incorporate, and extrapolate information from text. Fourth, it helps teachers comprehend the particular difficulties that students encounter when organising the many elements of a tale to comprehend its overall meaning (Han, 2005). It can be used with other tests, like informal

reading inventories, to form a crucial component of the oral reading analysis, which is an additional advantage (Serafini, 2010).

Finally, teachers will teach, demonstrate, and implement retelling assessments more easily (Stahl & McKenna, 2012). These qualities show that the retelling approach is a helpful diagnostic tool that may test comprehension before, during, or after reading (Han, 2005). The recounting process has been used as a reading comprehension test in several studies. Morrow (1985), for example, studied the effects of two approaches on student comprehension in 59 kindergarten students.

After listening to the narrative, twenty-nine of these students were invited to orally recount it using their own words. Thirty students were asked to create a picture or sketch that portrayed the events in the story to show that they understood it. According to Morrow's research, students who verbally recited the story out loud outperformed those who were instructed to draw a picture on general knowledge exams. In a study, Gillan (1997) used the retelling technique to look at student story retention. Twenty-four school-age participants in all were included in the study. Students with usual development and those with particular linguistic difficulties were divided into two groups. To draw on the participants' prior knowledge, a number of questions were devised and posed before the story was read. After hearing the story told, the learners were allowed to summarise it. Their retold tales were assessed, examined, and contrasted with the original. Even though children with specific language impairments had more trouble reading the story the first time, they were nevertheless able to repeat it with the same number of words and content as their abler peers.

Cloze Assessment Strategy

A reading comprehension evaluation method used in classrooms is called the Cloze Assessment (Spinelli, 2012; Ahangari, Ghorbani, & Hassanzadeh, 2015). A cognitive assignment assesses reading comprehension by giving pupils a written piece with missing words throughout the passage. It is the student's responsibility to fill in the blanks in the passage (Spinelli, 2012; Gellert & Elbro, 2013).

Students must recognise the contextual information around the missing vocabulary to accurately restore it to a specific sentence in the passage, which aids them in guessing the missing word and comprehending the content (Spinelli, 2012; Trace, 2020). "This assessment approach looks at students' ability to read and comprehend written passages, comprehend the context of reading content, apply word prediction skills for comprehension, and identify words using cues." (Spinelli, 2012, p. 224). To put it another way, to properly provide the missing vocabulary, the learner must participate in several cognitive tasks, including reading, word prediction, establishing connections between text material, and inferring, all of which are required skills for understanding a book (Kibui, 2012). In the Cloze Assessment, Kibui (2012) found a link between how quickly students can recover lost vocabulary and other criteria for extracting meaning from written passages.

The Cloze Assessment has been shown in numerous studies to be a highly effective technique to gauge pupils' reading comprehension (Yamashita, 2003). Williams, Ari, and Santamaria (2011) compared the performance of 100 students on a silent reading test with two Cloze Assessment tests to determine which test method created the most variety in

reading comprehension (maze and open-ended). The participants were split into two groups: ordinary post-secondary students and those with difficulty. The results of this study show a significant correlation between the Cloze Assessment and the reading comprehension test ($r = .68$ and $.52$, $p < .00$).

Additionally, Gellert and Elbro (2013) created a brief 10-minute Cloze Assessment that tests participants' ability to correctly predict and fill in the deletions by comprehending the details and ideas presented in the passage. A total of 204 adults from Denmark participated in the study. The results showed a substantial correlation between students' performance on the Cloze test and a 30-minute traditional question-answer comprehension test ($r = .84$). According to Gellert and Elbro (2013), it could be used to evaluate reading comprehension. Cloze Assessment has many features that may convince teachers to use it and test students' reading comprehension.

The first advantage is that teachers can create and score Cloze Assessments with ease (Kibui, 2012; Spinelli, 2012); the second advantage is that students can take the test individually (Spinelli, 2012); and the third advantage is that students are prepared for the test due to its widespread use in schools (Spinelli, 2012; Kibui, 2012). Additionally, cloze assessment can establish whether the reading content created for a specific grade level is suitable for the kids' reading abilities (Spinelli, 2012). Final point: Cloze Assessment gives students an interactive paradigm so they may engage with the text and grasp it better (Kibui, 2012). Because of these characteristics, educators frequently utilise cloze assessments.

Informal Reading Inventory Strategy

Another well-known reading assessment used in classrooms to evaluate students' comprehension of text is the Informal Reading Inventory (Serafini, 2010; Spinelli, 2012; Nilsson, 2021). It is a test consisting of a series of levelled vocabulary lists (also known as sight words) and levelled reading texts ranging from easy to difficult, as well as comprehension questions about each book (Serafini, 2010; Pullen, 2016). The purpose of using levelled vocabulary lists is to (1) test students' sight word knowledge, (2) understand how they decode foreign words, and (3) select the best-levelled material for each student to read.

A student's capacity to comprehend words is assessed using levelled reading passages, which are based on the context of the passage and the comprehension techniques they apply (Spinelli, 2012). Students' reading comprehension is evaluated using the Informal Reading Inventory, which asks them to describe the subject or respond to a series of comprehension questions about it (Serafini, 2010). Each student's learning level determines how the Informal Reading Inventory is administered (Serafini, 2010; Spinelli, 2012).

The teacher uses word lists to help students choose the most pertinent passage and then instructs them to read their selections aloud or quietly. The teacher might choose to read to the pupil in specific circumstances, particularly if they have low fluency skills. In order to assess students' understanding of the content, the teacher asks them questions about it that require them to recall specifics (Spinelli, 2012; Nilsson, 2021).

As a result, the ability of students to answer questions about the text determines their reading comprehension ability (Serafini, 2010). An excellent

instrument for evaluating how well children comprehend their reading is the Informal Reading Inventory. Teachers can determine each student's instructional level using the Informal Reading Inventory and deliver the most effective instruction (Kibui, 2012; Nilsson, 2021). Additionally, it helps teachers assess students' reading preferences and prior understanding of a certain subject (Klingner, 2004). Based on students' learning styles and interests, teachers might differentiate lessons and arrange the class (Monti et al., 2003). Third, the Informal Reading Inventory provides teachers with the knowledge they need to develop and carry out successful interventions. According to Dewitz and Dewitz (2003), teachers can use the Informal Reading Inventory as a useful assessment tool to gather the information that will help them plan lessons to meet students' educational needs.

The Informal Reading Inventory also benefits instructors by giving them access to continuing data that can be used to evaluate the success of a particular intervention (Scott & Weishaar, 2003; Tomlinson & McTighe, 2006). The Informal Reading Inventory is used frequently by teachers and reading professionals due to its many benefits (Flippo, Holland, McCarthy, & Swinning, 2009). These benefits are essential in helping teachers better meet the educational demands of their students.

Think-aloud

Another method of evaluating students' reading comprehension is the think-aloud exercise. "Students are urged to share their thoughts before, during, and after reading a chosen passage when using this evaluation technique (Spinelli, 2012; Buckley & Boardman, 2014). In contrast to the Retelling Assessment, teachers encourage students to halt reading at several

moments (such as before, during, and after) and ask a series of questions to compel them to reflect aloud on the process and metacognitive skills they use when reading (Serafini, 2010; Buckley & Boardman, 2014). By stopping pupils and asking them what they think, teachers can gauge their understanding of what they have read (Serafini, 2010)".

The purpose of the assessment is to identify the focus of the evaluation questions. For example, students are asked how they feel about the entire text before reading. Students are given the main concept and invited to think about it, with questions like "What do you think this text will be about?" (Spinelli, 2012).

On the other hand, during-reading questions would focus on assessing students' knowledge of a specific piece of the text, such as "What were you thinking when reading this part?" "Could you explain this section to me?" One of the post-reading questions can be, "Provide me with a recap of the entire section" (Gunning, 2002).

These inquiries help instructors identify students' metacognitive procedures when reading to develop their understanding of the material (Buckley & Boardman, 2014). Paraphrasing, generating questions, drawing conclusions, forecasting, building mental models, and assessing comprehension are examples of metacognitive activities (Buckley & Boardman, 2014). Think-aloud concentrates on evaluating students' capacity to control their thought processes and determine whether they utilise suitable metacognitive techniques to comprehend the material while reading (Spinelli, 2012).

As an evaluation technique, think-aloud offers a number of advantages that help teachers better serve their students and assess their reading comprehension. Think-aloud, for example, gives teachers valuable information about their students' strengths and weaknesses, allowing them to make recommendations and changes to their instruction (Serafini, 2010; Buckley & Boardman, 2014). Teachers can also use the think-aloud method to determine which portions fascinate their students (Buckley & Boardman, 2014).

Additionally, it enables teachers to observe how students read to comprehend a text (Serafini, 2010). Think-aloud evaluation is useful for teachers but also helps students understand and control their reading strategies and cognitive processes. As a result, they will have more knowledge of the topic (Oster, 2001). Last but not least, the think-aloud technique gives teachers access to a lot of data on their students' reading proficiency that is challenging to collect or assess using other evaluation techniques like observation or interview (Serafini, 2010).

Forms of text in reading

Narrative text

Any writing about a succession of events falls under the narrative text category, including fiction (novels, short stories, and poetry) and nonfiction (memoirs, biographies, and news stories). Both narrate stories with imaginative language and emotional expression, often expressed through imagery, metaphors, and symbolism. Because stories are used for various objectives, students must understand how narrative texts work and read them. A narrative text aims to entertain, pique, and maintain the reader's interest;

yet, memoirs and novels frequently tell complex stories about global concepts, events, and issues.

Furthermore, speakers, salespeople, and politicians use stories to persuade us to accept or reject an idea. Students must first master the aims and methods of narration to understand the narrative structure and avoid aggravation while reading. If students comprehend the narrative, they will follow the tale more readily and accurately predict what will happen. Furthermore, comprehending these parts fosters higher-order thinking abilities. The narrative form is distinct because authors connect concepts to convey how people act and think. These concepts or themes are usually universal truths related to the reader's personal experiences burk

Expository text

The expository text differs significantly from the narrative text in tone, style, organisation, and features. To begin with, expository writings have an authoritative tone since the authors have authentic and reliable information about the topics they discuss (Fisher & Frey, 2008). Second, these texts are written in a unique style of narrative text. The expository text flows from broad to specific, abstract to concrete, and focused.

Another feature of expository texts is that they provide and explain information using certain frameworks (Burke, 2000). Recognising text structure has long been acknowledged to improve a student's ability to grasp and recall information read (Stevens, Park, & Vaughn, 2019). Cause-and-effect, comparison-and-contrast, definition-and-example, problem-and-solution, and proposition support are five of the most common structures in informational texts. Teachers can help students recognise and identify the

structures by teaching them about the signal or hint words writers use in their work. Buehl (2001) has also produced a set of questions to assist students in identifying each structure.

Procedural Texts

Among the many texts in natural languages, procedural texts are simple and connect to the real world. As a result, they are appropriate for natural language comprehension's primary aim. A procedural text is a collection of statements that define how to create or alter an object to achieve a particular state. If a computer understands a procedural text, it might be used for a variety of things, including an intelligent search engine for how-to texts (Wang & Domeniconi, 2008), more intelligent computer vision and a work assistance system that tells the operator what to do next (Hashimoto et al., 2020).

A procedural text explains to the reader how to execute a given task. This can be divided into two categories: making something and learning how to do something. The procedural text tries to deliver sequenced information or guidance for safely, efficiently, and appropriately performing actions. Procedural texts include things like recipes and science experiments. Directions, instructions, recipes, game rules, manuals, and agendas are examples of headers and subheadings that can be structured in this way. If our students can comprehend such texts considerably, they will apply their reading comprehension skills to various real-life situations as they grow in their many work sectors.

This is a nonfiction piece, which should be reflected in the language used. As a result, students should use simple sentence structures and word

selections. This style of literature should offer thorough factual descriptions to help the reader comprehend the material. Setting students on a topic that appeals to their interests is one way to keep their interest in this type of book alive. It could be a sporting hobby, such as How to Kick a Penalty, a musical interest, such as How to Tune a Guitar, or an arts and crafts endeavour, such as How to Make a Paper airplane. All that is required is a topic that fascinates and qualifies the student. Even if the student chooses a subject they have no prior knowledge of and which is not very difficult, they may wish to use the learning opportunity and absorb the texts to write a procedural text based on what they learn.

Reading Comprehension Models

For regulating and promoting the comprehension process, assisting readers in better comprehending textual passages, and overcoming reading comprehension difficulties, three fundamental reading comprehension models are essential. The bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model are some examples of these models. The three theories have different weights in terms of how readers interpret texts. For instance, the bottom-up model calls for readers to understand the meaning of each word in the text. On the other hand, the top-down paradigm emphasises how crucial the reader's past knowledge and ability are to comprehending a text.

On the other hand, reading requires two encounters, according to the interactive model. The first interaction involves the reader's prior knowledge of the subject and the written text, while the second involves the reader's various reading techniques (Eskey, 2005; Ahmadi, Ismail, & Abdullah, 2013). These reading comprehension models are further explained below.

Bottom-up model

To infer meaning from written information, the bottom-up approach advises that readers begin by decoding each letter, vocabulary word, and phrase. To put it another way, this paradigm looks at reading as a whole through the prism of letters and language. As a result, readers must recognise and grasp each letter and vocabulary word as they read to extract meaning from a document. The bottom-up strategy requires speedy word knowledge because this model prioritises understanding every comprehension word (Ahmadi et al., 2013). According to this reading comprehension paradigm, bottom-up readers swiftly advance to expert readers with significantly better decoding skills (Pressley, 2008).

However, under this paradigm, proficient readers use decoding abilities to swiftly and easily comprehend letter chunks, prefixes, and the original language. As a result, readers can use more of their brain's memory capacity for reading comprehension because they can quickly interpret words. On the other hand, struggling readers spend more time and effort interpreting the meaning of each vocabulary word in the text, resulting in a dramatic reduction in the amount of brain processing capacity necessary for comprehension (Ahmadi & Gilakjani, 2012; Huettig & Pickering, 2019).

The bottom-up strategy has been criticised for a number of reasons, notwithstanding the relevance of decoding in enhancing reading comprehension. The “bottom-up paradigm proposes that all reading follows a mechanical pattern in which the reader generates a piece-by-piece mental translation of the information in the text with little interference from the reader's past knowledge” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 32). Second, this

paradigm demands readers decode a text using the vocabulary-by-vocabulary method, which is time-consuming and error-prone. Trying to decipher every word in the text can strain the reader's short-term memory, making them more likely to forget what they have read by the time they have finished. As a result, the reader may catch a few isolated words rather than thoroughly understand the written paragraph. If the reader lacks a solid understanding of the subject, they will be unable to engage in reading and use their critical thinking abilities, which may have a negative effect on their motivation to read regularly.

This strategy is criticised for failing to reflect the readers' past knowledge when boosting reading comprehension. Building a bottom-up paradigm (letters, words, and sentences) can, in other words, impair readers' ability to comprehend processes that occur throughout the reading process. The bottom-up reading comprehension paradigm affected the top-down reading comprehension model (Zou & Ding, 2021).

Top-down model

The top-down reading comprehension technique, in contrast to the bottom-up theory, draws meaning from written text by using readers' prior knowledge, experience, and expectations about a subject. The top-down paradigm, according to Eskey (2005), views reading comprehension as a process that begins "with the brain and finishes with the text" (p. 564). According to the top-down paradigm, readers must begin reading comprehension by generating specific expectations about the content. The reader's past knowledge of the subject should be used to set these expectations.

Following the establishment of some preconceptions, the reader moves on to a new task in which they use their existing knowledge of the world to decipher words within the text to support or refute their previous views. As a result, the top-down comprehension paradigm considers the text meaningless, with the reader gaining meaning through integrating it into prior knowledge (Ahmadi & Gilakjani, 2012). Goodman (2014) established the top-down reading comprehension paradigm, which thinks reading comprehension is a “psycholinguistic guessing game” in which readers must use their prior knowledge to predict meaning.

Additionally, Heckman and Rudelius (2019), a renowned proponent of the top-down approach, highlighted the critical role of the reader in turning a written text into meaning by drawing on prior knowledge of the reading topic and prior reading experiences to support or challenge preconceived notions. To extract meaning from a complete written text, the reader must engage in a reading technique known as “text sampling” (Cohen, 2014). According to the text sampling theory, a reader does not need to be familiar with every word and sentence in a book to understand it. Reading specific vocabulary terms and sentences may help the reader understand the passage’s meaning without having to read every word. Prediction, analysis, drawing conclusions from the text, and summarising are just a few of the comprehension skills highlighted by the top-down paradigm.

The top-down reading comprehension model was developed to solve the shortcomings of the bottom-up paradigm, but it has come under fire for its over-reliance on readers’ prior expectations, knowledge, and background information, as well as its disdain for the significance of the text. The top-

down paradigm has also been faulted for missing potential challenges that readers may face when establishing expectations or predictions about a certain portion, especially when the topic is unknown. The interactive reading model was developed due to the deficiencies of the top-down and bottom-up reading models in defining the reading comprehension process (Wang, 2009; Ahmadi et al., 2013).

Interactive model

The interactive approach combines the shortcomings and limitations of both bottom-up and top-down reading comprehension paradigms. The interactive model is the most widely accepted paradigm for explaining the reading comprehension process, demonstrating the importance of reader-text interaction (Ahmadi & Gilakjani, 2012). The interactive model is predicated on the notion that neither the bottom-up nor the top-down models can adequately explain the entire reading comprehension process.

As a result, these two models need to be linked (Ahmadi & Gilakjani, 2012; Ahmadi, Ismail, & Abdullah, 2013). Furthermore, “both sensory and non-sensory come together at one point, and the reading process is the outcome of the simultaneous joint application of all information sources” (Rumelhardt, 1981, p. 735).

According to Alderson (2000), “the entire reading process incorporates the interaction between both top-down and bottom-up models and cannot be reduced to an “either/or” choice” (p. 38). The interactive reading comprehension paradigm emphasises the significance of higher-level inference and reasoning skills, such as text explanation, and lower-level processing skills, such as word recognition, to comprehend a text (Grabe,

1991). Rather than seeing reading comprehension as a straightforward transmission of textual passages and information to the reader's brain, the interactive model sees it as a result of readers interacting with written passages to get meaning (Cirino et al., 2019).

Under the interactive reading comprehension paradigm, skilled readers can synthesise data and determine the meaning of a textual passage by alternately applying bottom-up and top-down strategies (Eskey, 2005; Wang, 2009; Ahmadi et al., 2013). Furthermore, Stanovich (1980) explained the interactive model's notion of "compensation." He argued that bottom-up and top-down reading processes complement reading comprehension. Readers who lose the appropriate cognitive skills to grasp a passage rely on bottom-up mechanisms to compensate for prior background information.

However, when readers lose the necessary bottom-up skills to comprehend a paragraph, they will compensate by using high-level processes (top-down skills). On the other hand, unskilled readers tend to rely on more high-level processes than skilled readers. They appear to compensate for their lack of bottom-up procedures by adopting top-down methods (Eskey, 2005; Stanovich, 1980).

Empirical Review

This section of the chapter focuses on related studies that have been conducted on the topic. This is important in the study as it provides the basis for comparisons. The empirical review has been organised according to the research questions formulated to guide the study, such as collaborative reading, peer-assisted learning strategy in reading, self-questioning strategy,

extensive reading strategy, and reading comprehension on pupils' academic performance.

Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, and Shafiee (2018) investigated the effect of flipped classrooms on the reading comprehension of Iranian junior high school students. There were 50 Iranian pre-intermediate students divided equally into two groups: one was tested in a classroom that was flipped, and the other was not (a traditional classroom). A reading comprehension test was administered to both groups as a pre-test. The experimental group's responses were then used to create a flipped classroom. The Internet, a computer, and a projector were all available in the flipped classroom. Using paired and independent sample t-tests, there were significant differences between the post-tests of the experimental and control groups. The post-test results revealed that the experimental group fared better than the control group ($p.05$). This means that in the reading comprehension classroom, appropriate teaching and learning materials should be made available to explore the reading material to construct meaning out of texts, as the constructivist theory stipulates.

Anwar's (2020) study used collaborative strategic reading (CSR) to improve students' reading of an English text. A total of 32 eighth-graders took part in the research. There were two cycles: a pretest and a posttest. The pretest was done before the CSR technique was implemented in the class, and the posttest was done after the CSR approach was implemented in the class. The study's findings show that when it comes to student participation, students actively respond to the exercise's question by working in groups and paying attention to the teachers' explanations (feedback).

Boardman et al. (2016) investigated the impact of collaborative strategic reading on 14 primary school kids with learning difficulties. Sixty teachers instructed students in general education classes. The control group's teachers were told to train their students without using collaborative strategic reading interventions. The intervention group teachers were supposed to instruct their students using a group-based strategic reading intervention. The intervention group's instructors participated in a one-day professional development seminar on collaborative strategic reading interventions.

Around 14 weeks were spent in training for this project. The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test was used to evaluate the students' reading comprehension skills (Gates & MacGinitie, 1964). According to the findings, children with learning difficulties who were taught collaborative strategic reading fared better on reading comprehension tests than those who were taught in more conventional instructional settings. Similar findings were made by Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek and Wei (2004) when they looked into the effectiveness of strategic reading interventions. Research has shown that some cooperative strategic reading elements enhance reading comprehension in youngsters with learning impairments (Kim et al., 2004).

After four years, Boardman et al. (2016) researched how successful guided reading improves reading comprehension in 14 senior high school students with learning challenges. Sixty supervisors delivering instructions in general education courses took part in the study. The students' baseline exam revealed a general lack of reading comprehension. Facilitators have to instruct their students using a collaborative strategic reading intervention. The study's findings demonstrated that guided reading greatly increased students' reading

comprehension. In view of this, teachers of English should guide students during comprehension lessons to build their confidence when reading texts. From these studies, there should be much collaboration between teachers of English and learners to comprehend the reading materials under study.

Wibowo, Syafrizal, and Syafradin (2020) conducted a study in Bengkulu, Indonesia, to learn about the instructors' methods for teaching reading comprehension. This study employs a hybrid approach that incorporates both quantitative and qualitative components. Two English teachers who teach in grades X, XI, and XII were the subjects of this study. An observation checklist was used to gather the data. Study results showed a significant utilisation of question generation (27%), encouraging students to utilise dictionaries (25%), and question answering by teachers in the classroom (23%). It was also found that reading comprehension was taught using limited techniques. The effect of self-questioning on reading comprehension in students with learning disabilities has been studied in a number of research investigations. According to Crabtree, Alber-Morgan, and Konrad (2010), children with learning difficulties who engaged in self-questioning were better able to comprehend text. Participants were presented with five pre-structured questions related to various story elements (e.g., characters, events, time, setting, and conflict). Students had three reading intervals in which to pose and answer the questions. On the self-assessment form, they were instructed to keep note of their responses. Reading comprehension and recall of a narrative text were significantly improved when students were taught to use self-questioning. These studies show that, during reading comprehension lessons, teachers of English must ask a variety of

questions and motivate students to use dictionaries during reading to enhance their reading vocabulary.

According to Dwiningtiyas, Sofyan, and Puspita (2020), their study aimed to discover the methods English teachers employ to teach reading. Two English teachers from the school's second-grade level adopted a descriptive-qualitative technique. The researcher observed a total of eight meetings per English teacher. Interviews and a strategy checklist were used as the research tools. Using the instruments, researchers gleaned information about the various tactics employed by English teachers while instructing students in the art of comprehension reading. Three steps were used to examine the data: data reduction, data display, and drawing conclusions or interpretations. Reading comprehension was taught through a variety of methods by the teacher. Brainstorming, reading aloud, and asking for information were some methods employed. At the same time, the teacher and two others employed a total of nine methods. Reading aloud, rereading to verify understanding, measuring comprehension in specific activities, and asking questions about specific material were some of the methods they were promoting. Both teachers used and blended the three stages of teaching reading comprehension methodologies into three sections. The three stages were pre-reading, during reading, and after reading. Thanks to the strategies used, reading comprehension was taught effectively at that school by the students' enthusiasm, attentiveness, and the teachers' ease in teaching and learning.

Al-Jarrah and Salina (2018) concur with Vacca and Vacca (1989), who believe that a lack of previous information is a significant barrier to reading comprehension. Background information plays an important part in text

understanding, as the schema theory demonstrates, and its absence might have a negative impact on reading comprehension (Al-Jarrah & Salina, 2018). It was unsurprising to corroborate the findings of Nguyen et al. (2007), who found that learners with prior knowledge absorb reading materials more easily than those without. “If the learners’ background knowledge is inadequate and deficient,” say Zhang and Shanshan (2011), “their readings will contradict the information within the text.”

A quasi-experimental design was used by Budiyanto’s (2019) research to determine whether there was a significant difference in the reading comprehension of analytical expositions taught using the Peer-Assisted Learning Strategy (PALS) vs. those taught without it and whether PALS was not successful in improving reading comprehension. A total of 78 students were used as a sample, with 39 students from XI IPS 3 as the experimental group and 39 from XI IPS 4 as the control group. Pretest and posttest tests were performed to collect data. To test the hypothesis, an independent sample t-test revealed that the t-obtained (11.077) was greater than the t-table (1.9917) with $df = 76$, with a 2-tailed significance of 0.000. It means that there was a substantial difference in reading comprehension between those taught with PALS and those who were not, and that employing PALS was also successful.

Fitriani and Tarwana (2020) investigated the effectiveness of using the Peer-Assisted Learning Strategy (PALS) to teach reading comprehension and the students’ perspectives on using this strategy. The research was conducted using a mixed-method approach that included quantitative and qualitative research methods. Pre-test and post-test were used to assess quantitative data, while a closed-ended questionnaire was used to analyse qualitative data.

According to the statistical results, after applying PALS to teaching recount text reading comprehension, there was a considerable improvement in reading comprehension, as evidenced by the pre- and post-test results. The average student score on the pre-test was 71.84, and the average student score was 87.37. As a result, adopting the Peer-Assisted Learning Strategy (PALS) helps teach recount text reading comprehension. Furthermore, based on the results of the closed-ended questionnaire, the students offered positive responses to PALS in teaching recount text reading comprehension. In view of this, students must be assisted by teachers of English during comprehension lessons.

According to a study by Munawaroh (2017), class XI students tested on their ability to apply their accounting knowledge to craft and entrepreneurship performed much better academically when exposed to various teaching techniques and learning environments. In this study, 108 students from SMK PGRI 1 Jombang were separated into three groups of accounting experts in class XI. Observations, tests, and interviews were part of the study's quantitative methodology. Class XI was encrypted and delivered to the entire class XI with accounting skills using random sampling techniques. A study of several linear regressions was used. Researchers found that teachers' strategies and the learning environment they established when students were in class XI at SMK PGRI 1 Jombang had an impact on students' ability to develop accounting competence. There was an R^2 value of 0.626, which indicates that 62.6 percent of the teacher's teaching style and student's learning environment (X1) were able to influence learning achievement (Y)

considerably; however, the remaining 37.4% were influenced by other elements that were not in the study.

Alshabatat (2017) investigates Jordanian female ninth-grade students in the Al Qaser Directorate of Education's attitudes regarding self-questioning tactics and critical reading skills. The attitudes of pupils were assessed using a semi-structured interview technique. Data was gathered from pupils at three public schools in Jordan's Qaser and Karak. A total of 85 students took part in this research. Students had a positive attitude about self-questioning tactics, according to the findings. However, employing these strategies presented some difficulties for certain students.

Meanwhile, Rohani, Yusuf and Dzulkafly (2017) used graphic organisers to help ESL students in Malaysia understand what they were reading. Kansizoglu (2017) did a meta-analysis study in Turkey on the effect of graphic organisers on language teaching and learning areas, with general understanding as one of the variables. He discovered that visual organisers such as meaning maps, knowledge maps, computer-based graphic organisers, idea maps, K-W-L diagrams, and mind maps are far more effective than traditional teaching approaches in terms of academic accomplishment. Sioringas and Nola (2019) predicted that learners' reading scores would improve with guided reading techniques in their study in the Midwestern United States. They discovered their prediction was correct, as participants' reading scores improved after using guided reading practices. Audira, Gani, and Sari (2020) researched "The Effectiveness of Using Guided Reading Strategy to Improve Students' Reading Comprehension." They concluded that

using the guided reading technique helped pupils enhance their reading comprehension.

Kim et al. (2004) looked at the impact of graphic organisers on reading comprehension in students with learning disabilities in a meta-analysis of 21 intervention trials. A total of 848 students with learning difficulties took part in these studies. According to their research, while enhancing reading comprehension is challenging, it can be accomplished with the help of visual organizers. These findings suggest that utilising graphic organisers as a reading strategy can help children with learning impairments improve their comprehension in various situations.

Mwaura (2018) did his research in the same year as Kopic to determine the impact of guided reading instruction on the reading achievement of second-graders. The study took place in a second-grade classroom in a Baltimore County school. During the 2017–2018 academic year, the school became largely Title I due to the increasing number of low-income families in the area. A total of 23 second-grade students took part in this investigation. For your convenience, a sample was given. Most students were Caucasian, African American, Hispanic, and Indian. The Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Assessment Kit measured the children's independent reading skills. The pupils' fluency, accuracy, and comprehension were assessed to determine their reading levels. Following preliminary data collection, small groups of students have been given guided reading instructions on their independent reading needs several times a week. After a seven-week guided reading intervention, the Fountas and Pinnell benchmark evaluation kit collected postsecondary

data. The findings show that while students' reading improvement was not statistically significant, there were numerous modifications.

In Ghana's public senior high schools, the Baafi (2020) project aimed to determine how instructional styles affected students' academic performance. One hundred sixty teachers and 210 students were included in the study's proportionate stratified sampling sample. The study aimed to identify the instructional strategies used in Ghana's public senior high schools and how they affected students' performance on the national standardised mathematics test. According to the survey, most teachers had an average tenure of five years, with those with more than ten years of experience using inadequate teaching methods since they had not received structured professional development. The study also showed that teachers naturally use teacher-prepared procedures and classroom management techniques that encourage student discipline. However, both approaches to increasing learner engagement and learning throughout the delivery of lessons fell short. For teachers of English, classroom management should be a key focus to motivate learners.

Gaps in Literature

It was identified from the literature that most of the studies, e.g., by Baafi (2020) and Mwaura (2018), paid attention to junior and senior high schools. Alshabatat (2017) focused on only female ninth-grade students. From the literature, it was evident that there was a dearth of studies focusing on technical institutes, of which the Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym) was no exception. It was inferred from the literature that most of the studies

were qualitatively conducted. But this study employed a mixed-methods approach to gather statistical and thematic pieces of evidence.

Chapter Summary

In evaluating the assessment of teaching strategies in reading comprehension in a technical institute in Ghana, various theoretical and empirical research provides significant evidence and sufficient literature. However, there is a dearth of studies focusing on the technical institutes in the Ghanaian context, which leaves the issue of inadequate geographical representation.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This study investigates teaching strategies for reading comprehension in a Technical Institute. The research methods and processes used to acquire data to answer the study questions were addressed in this chapter.

Overview

This chapter concentrated on the research design, study area, population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instrument, data collection and data processing and analysis, ethical considerations, and chapter summary.

Research Design

This research used a case study design to investigate teaching strategies for reading comprehension at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym). Case study research is research through which the researcher comprehensively explores programmes, an event, an activity, a process, or one or more individuals (Creswell, 2011). The ability of the design to capture a vast array of contextual data allowed it to draw a deeper, more contextualised, and authentic interpretation of the study phenomenon than most other research designs.

The researcher gathered both quantitative and qualitative data for this investigation. Quantitative research systematically examines phenomena using quantifiable data and mathematical, statistical, or computational methods. Among other things, quantitative research sends online surveys, polls, and questionnaires to gather information from present and future clients whose

results can be expressed numerically. In this form of inquiry, researchers and statisticians apply mathematical frameworks and theories to the number in question.

Quantitative research templates are objective, detailed, and, in many cases, investigative. This type of research yields logical, statistical, and unbiased conclusions. On the other hand, the qualitative research approach entails gathering and analysing non-numerical data. It might provide an in-depth analysis of a topic or offer fresh research ideas. Qualitative research is used to learn about people's perspectives on the world. Qualitative researchers frequently refer to themselves as "instruments" in research because all observations, interpretations, and analyses are mediated via their lenses. in research. Despite this, suitable safeguards were implemented in this process to thoroughly investigate and explain the data collection and analysis decisions made.

Study Area

The Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym) was the research site for the study. It is located on the outskirts of the major communities along the mountainous enclave in one the Regions of Ghana. It was established in 2013 as a private institution and absorbed in 2015 by the government. It runs six programmes: Business, Auto-Electricals, Automobile Engineering, Fashion Design, Catering, Building and Construction, and English Language, which is studied as a core subject. It has a student and teacher population of 220 and 36, respectively.

Population

According to Heckathorn (1997), the population is the entire subject or object of the study, with its own set of qualities and features. He also claims that the sample is a feature of the population that represents the population. As a result, the teachers of English and third-year students at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym) in the 2020–2021 academic year served as the subject and source of data for this study. The study population constituted Teachers of English comprehension and students in Cascade Technical Academy. The target population consisted of Teachers of English who teach Form Three Students in the Institute. Thus, five (5) teachers of English and eighty (80) Form 3 students were used for data collection. The selection of the third-year students is premised on the fact that they have been through many reading comprehension topics and, hence, will better be in a position to provide relevant information to aid in the achievement of the objectives set for this study.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The study employed a simple random sampling technique to choose 80 students from the Form Three classes in Cascade Technical Academy. According to Bukhari (2020), sixty respondents or more are deemed advisable for this kind of study. The researcher also used purposive sampling to select five English teachers. Purposive sampling is a typical strategy used to discover key informants or those with specific knowledge about the topic being examined, according to Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016). The study's goal determines the type of purposeful sampling a researcher chooses. Extreme-case sampling was the sort of purposive sampling used in this study. The

purposive sampling was used because these five teachers directly teach the form three students English and hence, will help provide relevant information for the study other than other subject teachers.

The simple random sampling procedure gave the study participants an equal opportunity to be included in the study. Additionally, the research site seemed to be very purposeful to the researcher, as the site has a peculiar problem in relation to reading comprehension that has resulted in great effect on students' abysmal performance, which needed intensive research to bring about antidotes; hence, the purposive sampling procedure was also used to choose the research site (Cascade Technical Academy) which is used as a pseudonym for the actual research site.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The demographic features of the respondents, such as gender, age, marital status, qualification, and length of service, are discussed in this section. Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Teachers

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	2	40
Female	3	60
Age (in years)		
29-39	4	80
40-59	1	20
Marital status		
Married	4	80
Single	1	20
Highest Qualification		
First degree	3	60
Masters	2	40
Length of Service		
1-10 years	4	80
11-20 years	1	20
Total	5	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2022

Table 1 above indicates the demographic characteristics of teachers of English. There are male and female teachers in these study institutions, and it was important to identify the gender of the teachers in these schools; out of the 5 (100%) respondents, 2 (40%) were males, while the majority were female, 3 (60%). The finding showed that teachers of English in these institutions are female-dominated. The age range of these teachers was categorised into ten; the majority of teachers, 4 (80%), fall within the age range of 29–39 years, while only one (20%) teacher is in the age range of 40–49. In addition, the teachers were asked to indicate their educational qualifications, and it emerged that the majority (3) of them were first-degree holders, which denotes 60% of the respondents, while 2 (40%) possess a master's degree. Lastly, respondents were asked to show the length of service. With this, it was found that most 4 of the teachers had 1–10 years of service, representing 80%, while the least 1 (20%) respondent served 11–20 years.

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Students

Variables	Frequency	Percentage%
Gender		
Male	44	55
Female	36	45
Age		
13-15	12	15
16-17	46	57.5
19-21	22	27.5
Programme		
Fashion Design	16	20
Catering	8	10
Electricals	8	10
Technical	11	13.8
Applied Electricals	14	17.5
Auto Mechanics	9	11.3
Business	3	3.8
Building Construction	11	13.8
Total	80	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2022

From Table 2, students' demographics, such as gender, age, and student programme. Most of the students were male, indicating 44, representing 55%, while the fewest respondents were female, 36 (45%). The age range of these students was categorised into an interval of two; the majority of the students fall within the ages of 16–17, representing a total of 46 (57.5%). Twenty-two students fell within 19–21 years, indicating 27.5%, while the least age of students was 13–15 years, or 12 (15%). Last demographics looked at the programme of studies by these students. Out of the total 80 (100%) students, the majority, 16 (20%), offered fashion design; the second-highest programme of study was applied electricals, with 14 students representing 17.5%. Technical and Building and Construction were on par, consisting of 11 students with 13.8%. Catering and Electricals were the last but least programme of study, with 8 students each indicating 10%. The least studied programme by these students was business, with only three students with 3.8%.

Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaires and observation were used as instruments for the collection of data. The questionnaire was administered to the teachers of English and the students to ascertain key information that leads to assessing the teaching strategies in reading comprehension against the students' reading comprehension skills. In addition, an observational checklist was designed to observe the teaching strategies used by teachers in teaching reading comprehension lessons.

Questionnaire

A written collection of questions makes up the questionnaire. The crucial element is that each participant who completes the questionnaire reads the same questions. This ensures consistency and accuracy in the wording of the questions and quicker processing of the responses. Questionnaires are written instruments that provide respondents with a set of questions or statements to which they must respond either by writing their response or picking from a list of pre-prepared responses (Zoltan, 2003).

The researcher employed a questionnaire to supplement the data gathered by observing the reading comprehension class session. There were both open-ended and closed-ended questions in the survey. The following are the reasons why the questionnaire was chosen: a) Its ability to reach a large number of respondents in a short period; b) Its ability to provide appropriate time for respondents to react to the questions; c) Its ability to provide a sense of security (confidentiality) to respondents; and d) Its objectivity nature. Gender, age, and highest educational level were acquired using closed-ended questions. Respondents could share details about their teaching and learning experiences through an open-ended questionnaire.

Observation

According to Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), observation as a research instrument gives direct information rather than self-report accounts and is thus one of the three essential sources for empirical research (with questioning and testing correspondingly). The validity and truthfulness of the self-reported data provided by English teachers from the questionnaires were determined using the non-participant observation technique. The researcher was physically

present as a spectator in this method and did not become personally involved with the person being examined.

The strategies employed by English teachers to improve students' reading comprehension abilities were observed via non-participant observation. There were ten (10) observational checklist questions, with responses measured on a four-point Likert scale with "Very Effective, Effective, Not Effective, and Not Used at All" as the anchor. As a result, the study's observation checklist focused on English teachers' teaching tactics and methodologies to improve students' comprehension abilities.

Pre-Test of Instrument

The researcher pilot-tested the instrument on 53 respondents (final year students=50 and English teachers =3) from Boko Technical Institute, different from the actual study area. The main purpose of the pilot test was to test the readability of the items, the time given, the consistency and content of the items. It helped in assessing whether the sampling frame and technique were effective. Again, the format and order of the statements were improved. Based on the inter-item correlation, some of the items were modified.

Validity and Reliability

The data collection instruments were given to the researcher's supervisor to determine the face and content validity of the instrument. The expert's comments and suggestions were incorporated in the corrections for the final instrument. That is, ambiguous, biased and deficient items were reframed, and irrelevant items were duly deleted. The reliability of the two instruments were estimated using Cronbach's alpha to determine whether each item under the questionnaire related to each other after the pilot-testing

exercise. Similarly, a field test was conducted to establish the trustworthiness and credibility of the observation guide. Table 3 shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the constructs underpinning the study.

Table 3: Reliability of the Questionnaire Items

No.	Construct	No.	Cronbach Alpha
1	Teaching strategies	9	0.798
2	Perceived efficacy of teaching strategies	4	0.871
3	Perceived weaknesses and strength of teaching strategies	10	0.933
4	Perceived factors influencing the choice of teaching strategies	2	0.712
5	Teaching strategies and students' academic performance	19	0.826

Source: Field survey, (2021)

Table 3 shows the Cronbach Alpha of the various constructs after pretesting. None of the constructs recorded a Cronbach Alpha lower than the threshold of 0.70. This indicates that the items were reliable in measuring the constructs.

Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is a systematic technique of collecting and analysing data from several sources to provide a complete and deep understanding of a topic (Kachikis et al., 2019). Improving data gathering methodologies will improve study findings' accuracy, validity, and dependability. Finally, using these methods will help accomplish the objective of conducting good research that produces trustworthy results. According to Streubert, Speziale, and Carpenter (2003), a researcher owes it to the participants, who are supposed to contribute this information, to strictly consider their rights. Ethical considerations are crucial in this research. Due to the delicate nature of the

study, potential hazards were constantly assessed to maximise sensitivity and avoid exposing the respondents. Before administering the study instruments, the researcher got an introductory letter from the University of Cape Coast, Department of Arts Education, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, which he used to obtain official permission to collect data.

Finally, the researcher went to the chosen school and made all the required preparations with the teachers of English. The goal was to raise awareness of the instrument's administration time and date and clarify the study's purpose. The researcher personally gave the questionnaires and observed in five different days the reading comprehension lessons of teachers of English teaching strategies and methodologies for improving students' comprehension skills. The questionnaire was given to each instructor and student from the selected schools for an hour. The researcher gave participants an hour to complete the questionnaires in order for them to adequately reflect and provide accurate responses, which helped the researcher collect high-quality data. The researcher sat in on reading comprehension classes in the classroom. One hour was spent observing how students' vocabulary knowledge and comprehension skills are developed during reading comprehension courses.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data analysis is the process of making sense of data by combining, reducing, and interpreting the information. The method you will use to respond to your research question(s) (Merriam & Grenier, 2019) Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were used to analyse the data. Qualitative analysis was used to give a holistic picture and depth of understanding of

teaching strategies for reading comprehension and their effects on students' performance at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym). Narratives under the various themes were coded, and the responses on the questionnaire were used for both the qualitative and quantitative analysis, respectively.

A statistical approach known as descriptive statistics was used to summarise the socio-demographic profile of study participants, such as their gender, age, and educational level. "Descriptive statistics tools like frequency and percentage distribution tables were used for the quantitative analysis through the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) computer software". The data analysis demonstrates sound interpretations and discussions of the findings from the entire statistics study. The discussions have been examined in light of the research presented in the study.

Ethical Considerations

To meet the validity and trustworthiness of a research process, the study must be conducted ethically (Kyngäs, Kääriäinen, & Elo, 2020). Quantitative difficulties include getting permission, ensuring respondents' confidentiality, avoiding disruption of sites, and clarifying the study's objective.

I began by visiting the schools to become acquainted with the atmosphere in which the teachings were delivered. I explained the research goal to all individuals involved using the introductory letter. I met with the participants and informed them of the study aim, meeting dates, and session times. I assigned each participant a unique serial number. As a result, the data for this study was coded anonymously and cannot be linked to specific individuals.

Chapter Summary

This chapter mentioned that a mixed-method approach was utilised. The chapter examined the population, participants, research instruments, descriptive survey design, and data gathering processes. Furthermore, questions about the instruments were highlighted. Finally, the chapter discussed the ethical implications and the steps that should be taken to mitigate and address them.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the data. Each research question was analysed separately, either supporting or contradicting earlier findings.

Overview

This study aimed to assess the teaching strategies for reading comprehension and their effects on students' performance. The study examined the various teaching strategies employed by English language teachers during reading comprehension, the efficacy of teaching strategies, and the various strengths and weaknesses. A mixed-methods design using questionnaires and observation was used. The questionnaires for students sought to elicit information on the effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension, whereas the observation checklist was used to record what went on in the teaching and learning process.

Data Presentation

Out of 85 respondents, 80 were students, and 5 were teachers. Teachers' teaching strategies, the efficacy of teaching strategies, the strengths and weaknesses, and the factors that influenced the choice of teaching strategies in reading comprehension formed the questionnaires designed by teachers. With respect to students, the effect of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension informed the design of their questionnaire, which contains 15 questions.

Table 4: Questionnaire Return Rate

Respondent category	Number issued out	Number returned	Percentage
Students	80	80	94.1%
Teachers	5	5	5.9%
Total	85	85	100%

Sources: Fieldwork (2022)

The response rate was deemed reasonable because the target number of respondents participated in the survey.

Analysis of the Research Questions

Research Question One: What are the teaching strategies that teachers of English use to teach reading comprehension?

The intent of research question one was to examine the teaching strategies employed by teachers of English in teaching reading comprehension. To accomplish the objective of this question, nine statements were formulated. Five teachers responded to the teaching strategies they used when teaching reading comprehension. The result is indicated in Table 5.

Table 5: How would you describe the reading level of your students from your personal experience?

Statement	Frequency	V.Good%	Good%	Average%	V.Bad%
How would you describe the reading level of your students from personal experience?	5	1 (20)	1 (20)	3 (60)	-
Total	5			100	

Source: Fieldwork (2022)

Table 5 presents how teachers describe the reading level of their students. It was observed by the majority that 3 (60%) of the teachers said

from their experience that their students' level of performance is average. However, one (20%) teacher said students reading level is very good, and another teacher said students are good at reading.

The questionnaire again sought to find out the number of students who could comprehend with less guide. The result is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Students who can comprehend reading with less guidance

Item	Frequency	Percentage %
1-10	0	0
20-30	3	60
31-40	2	40
41+	0	0
Total	5	100

Students who struggle to read and comprehend with much guidance

1-10	3	60
20-30	1	20
40-50	1	20
Total	5	100

Source: Fieldwork (2022)

From Table 6, the number of students who can read and comprehend mostly falls within 20–30 times (60%) with less teacher guidance. While two teachers said more than 30–40% could read and comprehend well, a follow-up question about how many struggle to read and comprehend with much guidance: most teachers said 3 (60%) on a scale of 1–10. On a scale of 20–30, 1 (20%) can read and comprehend with much guidance, and above 40, 1 (20%). It was observed that teachers were ineffective in monitoring lesson delivery skills. The question delves into the best strategies teachers use to teach students reading comprehension. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Strategies used to teach reading comprehension

Variables	Frequency	Percentage %
Activating and using background knowledge	-	-
Generating and asking a question	4	80
Making inferences	-	-
Predicting	-	-
Summarising	1	20
Visualising	-	-
Others	-	-
Total	5	100

Sources: Fieldwork (2022)

From Table 7, teachers were asked how best to describe their strategies to teach their students reading comprehension. Out of the 5 teachers, the most used strategy for teaching was generating, representing 80%, with 20% describing summarising as another strategy. None of the teachers choose to make inferences, predicting and visualising as their preferred strategy. It was also observed that most teachers were able to modify exercises to match students' comprehension levels.

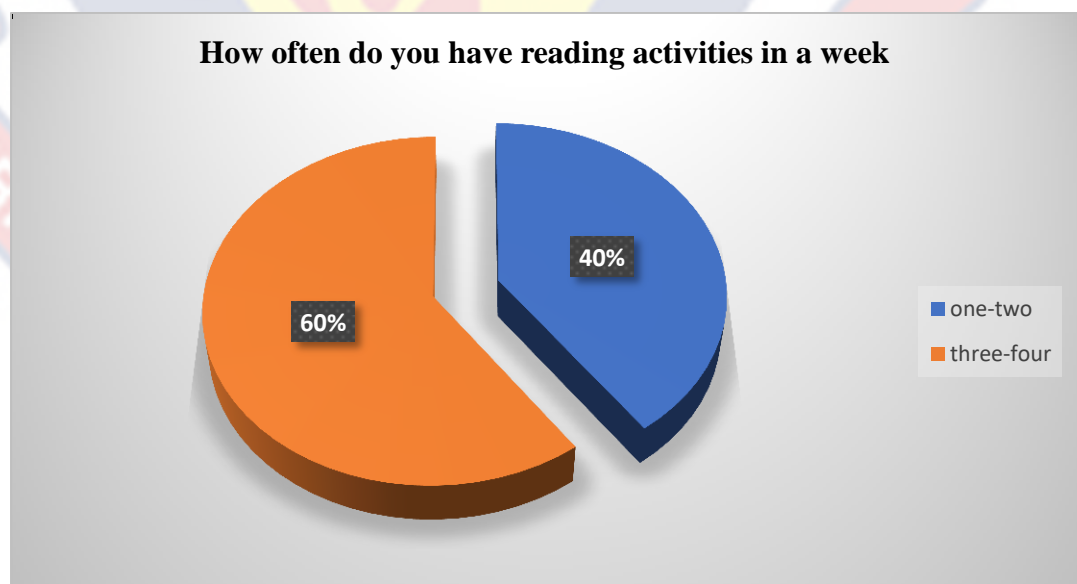


Figure 1: How often do you have reading activities in a week.

Sources: Fieldwork (2022)

Out of the 5 teachers with a 100% return rate, the majority, 3 (60%), said they have three to four reading activities with their students in a week. In contrast, the remaining 2 (40%) said they would do 1-2 activities regarding reading with their students in a week. In confirmation with the observation checklist, the researchers observed that teachers are effective in terms of pre-reading activities, and their interaction with students during lesson delivery was also effective.

A follow-up question was asked if teachers organise students in a group during reading lessons in a month—the results are shown in Figure 2.

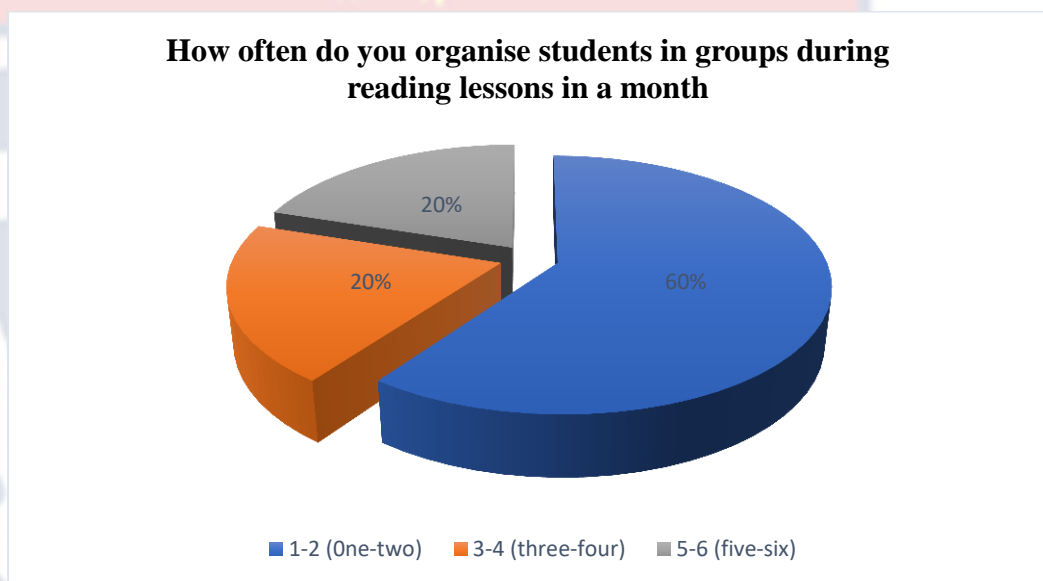


Figure 2: How often do you have to organise students in groups during reading lessons in a month
Sources: Fieldwork (2022)

Figure 2 shows that most teachers (60%) said they often organise students 1-2 times in groups during monthly reading lessons. This confirms that teachers were not conversant with whiteboard illustration; therefore, they preferred group lessons during reading lessons.

The last items on the questionnaire regarding research question one are presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Time duration and meeting to discuss and plan teaching strategies with other teachers

Statement	Options	Frequency	Percentage
What is the time duration of your comprehension lessons in a week?	1-59 minutes	2	40
	1-2 hours	2	40
	3-4 hours	1	20
How often do you have meetings with other teachers of English to discuss and plan teaching strategies	1-2	3	60
	3-4	1	20
	5-6	1	20
Total		5	100

Sources: Fieldwork (2022)

From Table 8, the highest number of minutes or hours used by teachers was significant, since between 1-59 minutes, 40% of teachers spent teaching comprehension within a week, while 2 (40%) also said they used 1-2 hours to teach comprehension. 1-3 hours was the least, representing 20%, and one teacher attests that it was due to one class that was called off the previous week.

The results from the observation of the strategies in reading comprehension and their effect on students' performance are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Observation of the strategies in reading comprehension

Statements	V. effective	Effective	Non-effective	Not-used at all
Implementation of Pre-reading activities			✓	
Use of teaching strategies in lesson delivery to sustain students' comprehension and interest.		✓		
The ability of the teacher to build the vocabulary acquisition skill of students			✓	
Teachers' ability to modify the text to the ability of students for better acquisition of comprehension skills.				✓
Students' involvement and contribution to the lesson	✓			
Teachers' knowledge of the procedures involved in the teaching strategies used in lesson delivery		✓		
Teachers' interaction with students during lesson delivery		✓		
Comprehension monitoring skills in the course of lesson delivery			✓	
Teachers' ability to modify an exercise to match the comprehension level of students				✓
Whiteboard illustrations			✓	

Sources: Fieldwork (2022)

In summary, an analysis of teachers' strategies for reading comprehension indicated that most of the observation checklist statements received unfavourable responses. The overall results showed that the teaching strategies, duration, and number of times teachers had reading activities to teach reading comprehension were average in the Cascade Technical

Academy (pseudonym). Further observation by the researcher revealed that, although there were many strategies to teach reading comprehension, most teachers adopted generating and asking questions. Making references, predicting, activating, using background knowledge, and visualising were not used. Most teachers hardly discuss and plan with other teachers on teaching strategies for reading comprehension in an academic semester.

The outcome complements the findings of some scholars (Rupley, et al., 2009; Schoonen, 2019; Støle et al., 2020), who inferred that many students have average reading and comprehension abilities with less guidance. In terms of the best strategies used in teaching reading comprehension, this study contradicts the findings of Ness (2011), who posits that the most common reading comprehension strategies were question answering, summarization, and predicting or prior knowledge. Again, Jabri et al. (2019) posited that meeting with other teachers to discuss and plan teaching strategies significantly influences reading comprehension.

Research Question Two: What are the perceived factors that influence the choice of teaching strategies in reading comprehension?

What is perceived to be the factors that influence the choice of teaching strategies for reading comprehension was investigated in the study. The responses of respondents were analysed using means and standard deviations. The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Challenges teachers encounter in teaching English comprehension

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
Inadequate textbook	4.61	.571
Students are slow readers	3.93	.738
Time allocation for comprehension lessons is not enough	3.47	1.256
Inadequate understanding of text	2.17	0.871
Inability to draw meaning inferences from passages	3.58	1.245
Absenteeism	3.21	.871
Mean of Means Score/Mean S.D Score	3.27	1.07

Source: Fieldwork (2022)

On the challenges teachers encounter in teaching English comprehension Table 10 revealed that the most challenging factor made specifically for English teachers in comprehension lessons ($M = 4.61$, $S.D = 0.571$) is the weakness affecting teaching reading comprehension. However, inadequate understanding of the text ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 0.871$) was the least significant factor affecting teachers. The mean of means and mean of standard deviations for the items were 3.37 and 1.07, respectively, meaning that, in general, several other factors such as absenteeism, students being slow readers, inadequate time allocation, and inability to draw inferences affect the teaching of reading comprehension at the Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym). In furtherance, teachers believe that other difficulties include “some students feel so relaxed to read since they find it difficult to understand” and some students exhibit a low concentration level. Most of the teachers said that, in dealing with students reading difficulties, the available resources at their disposal are reading clubs and some textbooks.

Irrespective of the challenges, the researcher further delved into the strengths that enhance teaching reading comprehension. It was revealed that most teachers modify comprehension questions to suit the students' intellectual abilities. Most also sustain interest in comprehension lessons by employing activities such as stretching, motivating students, cracking jokes, allowing students to choose their text, and introducing interventions such as think-pair-share that will aid them in comprehending the lesson. One teacher opined that giving them more assignments was a way to pique students' interest.

These findings align with those of Al-Jarrah and Ismail (2018) after employing 280 Arab and Malaysian students. The study concluded that inadequate time allocation and the inability of students to draw inferences from a text could be challenges for English teachers. In support of this, Qrquez and Ab Rashid's (2017) findings posited that inadequate textbooks negatively influence the teaching of reading comprehension, but rather, they also affect their teaching efficacy.

In employing activities to sustain students' interest in reading comprehension, these findings support the earlier results of Ugwu (2019), who investigated the effect of two cooperative learning strategies (the student teams' achievement divisions and think-pair-share methods) on students' interest in reading comprehension. The findings reveal that think-pair-share significantly affects students' interest in reading comprehension ($F(1,51) = 18.018, p < .05$).

This finding is consistent with Conradson (2021), who concluded that students who absent themselves from school would face challenges during reading comprehension.

Research Question Three: What is the perceived efficacy of teaching strategies used by teachers of English to teach reading comprehension?

The respondents were first asked what strategies they know and often implement during lesson deliveries. Figure 3 presents the summary of the various percentage of responses.

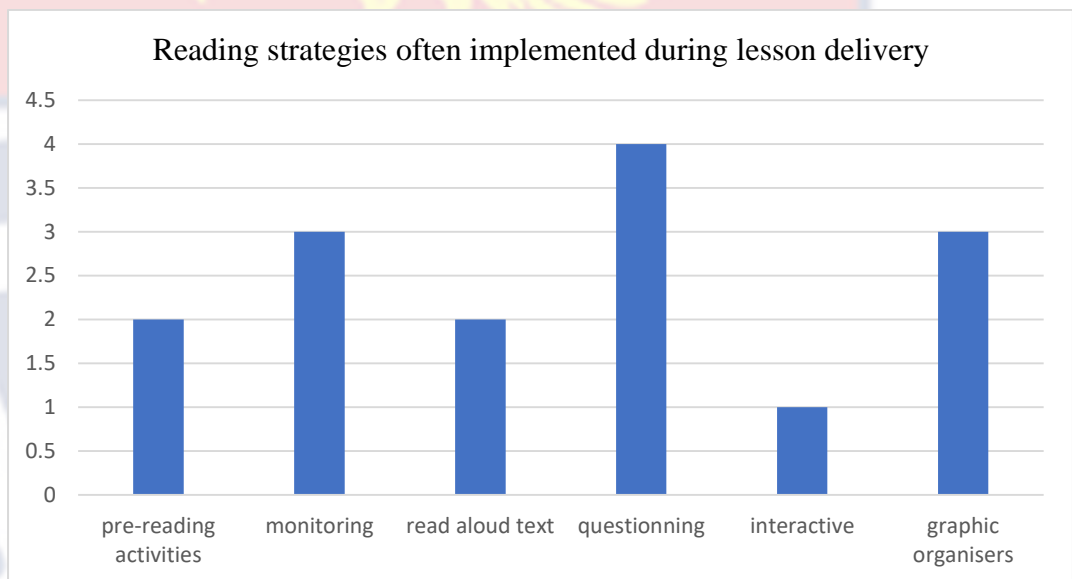


Figure 3: Reading strategies often implemented during lesson delivery
Source: Fieldwork (2022)

Figure 3 shows that most of the teachers implement questioning during lesson deliveries. The least effective strategy employed by these teachers was the interactive approach.

Teachers were asked what they usually do when they realise a student is struggling to read. Teachers' responses are shown below.

Teacher #1. *"I advise he/she to be reading more and often give assignments on reading topic."*

Teacher #2: “I organise reading drills for him or her; I also assign them to read over passages treated in class.”

Teacher #3: “I would drill him or her to read over text more often.”

Teacher #4: “I encourage them to use the sound of the alphabet to aid them in pronouncing words.”

Teachers were further asked if they monitor students’ progress in answering questions. The results are shown in figure 5.

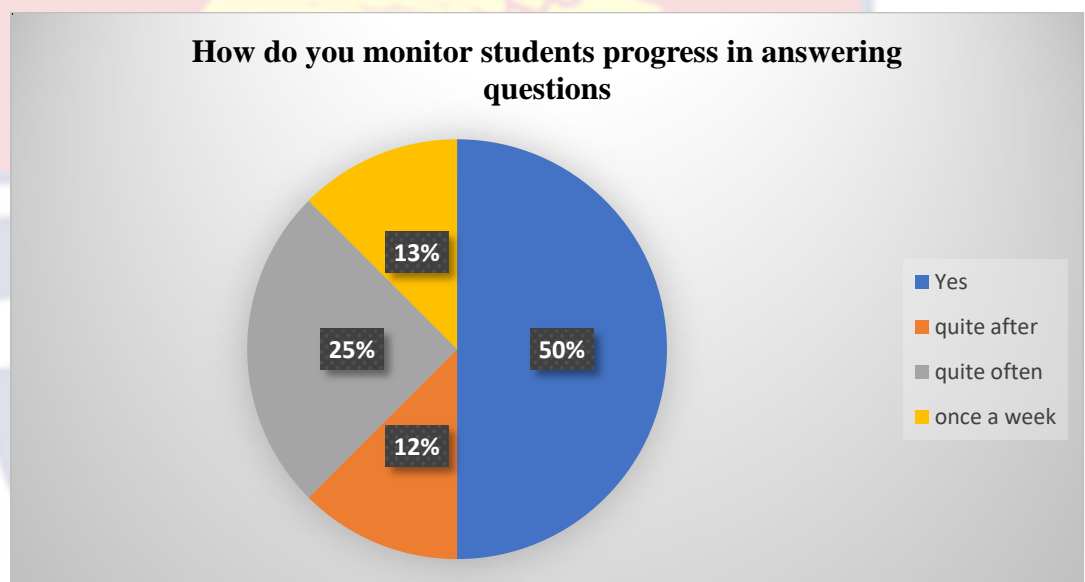


Figure 4: How do you monitor students’ progress in answering questions
Source: Fieldwork (2022)

Again, teachers’ opinions on monitoring students’ progress in answering questions in reading comprehension lessons. Almost all the teachers said yes, they do monitor students’ progress. 12% of the teachers said they monitor students quite often, while 13% said they do it once a week, with the least saying after lesson hours.

From the observation and teachers’ responses, it was evident that teachers have a sense of worry for students struggling to read and comprehend, making them devote some time to such students.

These findings support Brevik (2019), who recognises that questioning was the most often used strategy by teachers at the second-cycle institution. In addition, this study contradicts the earlier findings of Okkinga et al. (2018), who believed that questioning should be the least effective strategy to employ during reading deliveries. In support of what teachers do to help struggling students during reading, these findings concur with Elleman and Oslund (2019), who believe that monitoring students' progress frequently assists students to give up their best in reading and comprehension and rather their overall performances.

Research Question Four: What are the perceived effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension?

The last research question is intended to ask students about the effects of teaching strategies on their academic performance in reading comprehension. Eighty students from nine different programmes participated in the study. Closed and open-ended questions were utilised. The first statement asked students what problems they faced during the reading comprehension lesson. The result is shown in Table 11.

Table 11: What problems do students face during reading comprehension lesson

Statement	Frequency	Percentages
I do not think I have a problem	3	3.8
I feel lazy at times	5	6.3
Difficult in pronunciation	22	27.5
I can't hear the teacher's voice	4	5
I find it difficult to read	13	16
Find it difficult to explain vocabulary	17	21.3
The time given is limited	3	3.8
Found it difficult to understand the passage	4	5
Difficult to understand idiomatic expressions	9	11.3
Total	80	100

Source: Fieldwork (2022)

From Table 11, individual responses were categorised under nine sub-constructs. It was observed from students' responses that the most common challenge faced during reading comprehension was difficulty in pronouncing words (22, or 27.5%); finding it difficult to explain vocabulary was the second difficulty encountered. Few students attest that they do not face many problems. 3(3.8%). In terms of reading, students encountered 13 (16%) difficulties. The difficulty of understanding idiomatic expressions was another form of difficulty for these students. Although few students had challenges regarding teachers' voices, this problem cannot be overemphasised. Some problems can be attributed to students' laziness (6.3%). The time allocated to students during reading comprehension is very limited, as claimed by students. Student #23 said, *"Most times when reading, I get to meet some idiomatic expressions that sometimes make understanding what I read difficult."* Student #26 *"The problem I face is that some of the words the teacher used are difficult when the lesson begins."* In addition, students were asked what teachers do to sustain their interest in the lesson. Figure 5 shows categories of teachers' activities.

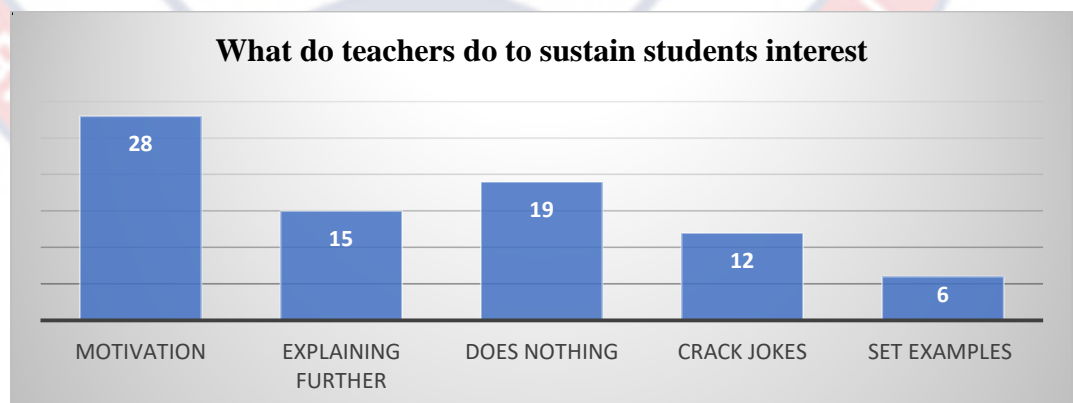


Figure 5: How do teachers sustain students' interest in a lesson
Source: Fieldwork (2022)

In Figure 5, respondents were asked what activities teachers do to sustain their interest during reading comprehension lessons. The results showed that the majority said their teachers use motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) to elicit their interest; others also believe that they do nothing, of which 12% of the respondents attest that teachers crack jokes to make the classroom environment lively, which showed positive influence. When students find it difficult to understand a concept, further explanation from teachers is also used, with the least being setting examples to sustain their interest.

Respondents were asked if they were active during reading comprehension class. The result is shown in Figure 6.

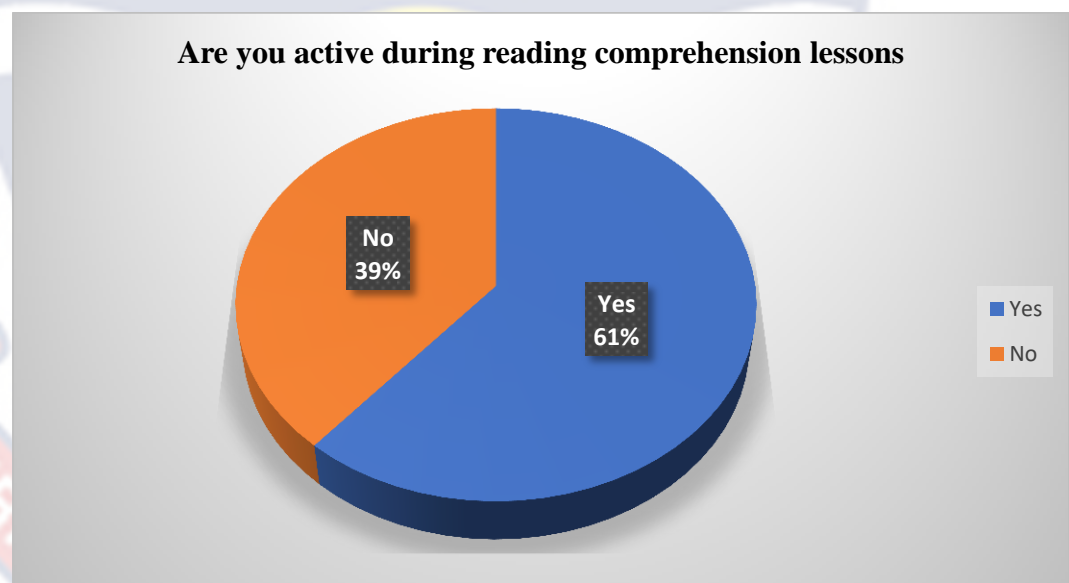


Figure 6: Are you active during reading comprehension lessons.
Source: Fieldwork (2022)

Of the 80 respondents, 61% believed they demonstrate activeness during reading comprehension lessons, while the least 39% said they are not active during the lessons. An explanation from student # 12 “Yes, *I am active because reading makes me happy sometimes.*”

Student # 17 “Yes, because being called upon to read in a comprehension class is a pride to me.”

student #32 “I am always active during the lesson because I always ask questions when I do not understand something and contribute to questions.”

In comprehending words used in a text, students encountered some difficulties. The following statements are responses from students.

Student #32 “understanding some of the words is somehow challenging because if there is no dictionary with me during the class, understanding the passage is a problem.”

Student #8 “I can read and write and pronounce some of the words, but it is not all the words I understand.”

Student #23 “most of the time when reading, I get to meet some idiomatic expressions, which makes understanding what I read difficult.”

The researcher also asked students if reading comprehension directly impacts their academic performance. Figure 7 shows the results.

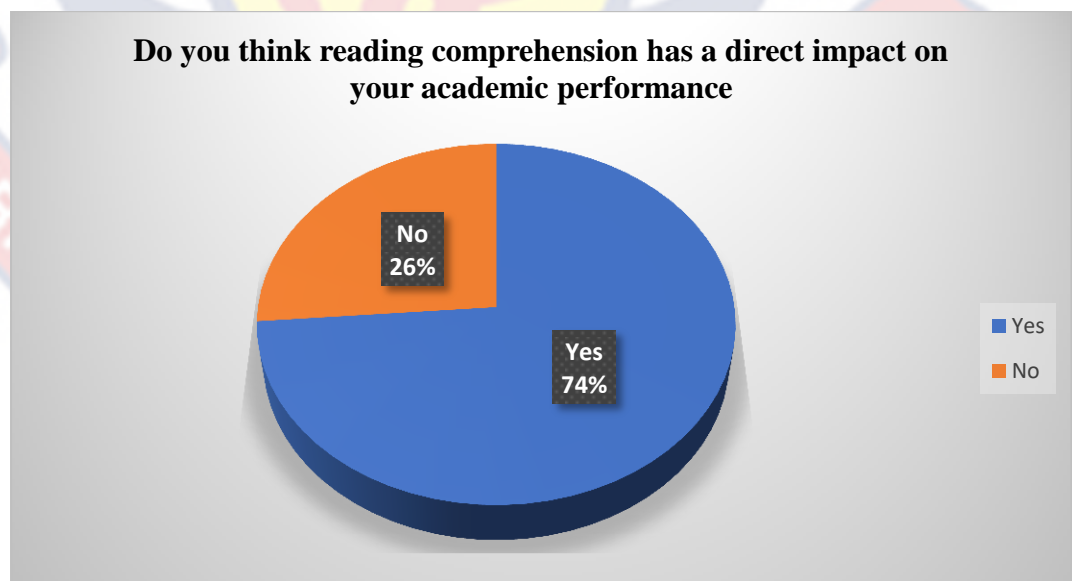


Figure 7: Do you think reading comprehension has a direct impact on your academic performance

Source: Fieldwork (2022)

Figure 7 reveals that 74% of the students attest that reading comprehension directly impacts their academic performance. Students were asked which area in their studies they experienced this impact.

Student #34 said, *“It has helped improve the creation of good sentences and good vocabulary and enhance my confidence level.”*

Student #56 *“I can read and explain things in public; it has improved my social studies learning as a whole”*

The last item asked students to make suggestions for their teachers on how best to further teach reading comprehension to their understanding. Students’ suggestions are indicated below.

Student #43 *“comprehension is a broad subject, so it needs time; therefore, teachers must take time to teach for our understanding.”*

Student #17 *“teachers should keep explaining the words well, and further ask questions during reading.”*

Student #20 *“I need my teacher to take his time, explain well for better understanding.”*

From the literature, it was revealed that most students face problems with reading comprehension. Qrquez and Ab Rashid’s (2017) study confirmed confusing words, unfamiliar vocabulary, and limited intellectual time to process the content.

Fulmer, et al. (2015) also revealed in their findings that allowing students to choose their texts leads to more engagement with the material. They also recommended a method for controlling a reading class and creating an engaging and exciting environment for students to develop their reading comprehension skills. Students who are engaged and motivated readers read

up to three times as much per day as their peers who are not enthusiastic about reading (Lengyel, 2010). This study supports the findings of Kadir, et al. (2014), who posit that students are lazy; therefore, teachers must develop strategies such as taking their time to better explain the concept for better reading comprehension.

Summary of Key Findings

Based on the data analysed, the following were the key findings that emerged from the study: students' reading levels were average, making teachers use generating and asking a question as to the main strategy for teaching reading comprehension. Also, the findings reveal that inadequate textbooks and the inability to draw inferences from the text were some of the main challenges in teaching English comprehension, although teachers sustain students' interest through motivation, cracking jokes, and explaining further. Furthermore, the study disclosed that most students are active during reading comprehension, positively affecting other subjects and building their confidence. However, most face difficulties such as vocabulary and the inability to understand idiomatic expressions, which delay their recall of important parts of the text. Finally, students suggested that teachers take their time and ask questions during reading comprehension.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The final section gives an overview of the study, a summary of the findings, a conclusion drawn from the study, a recommendation to address the problems, and suggestions for further studies.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to assess the teaching strategies for reading comprehension and their effects on students' performance at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym). The research questions that guided the study are as follows:

1. What are the teaching strategies that teachers of English use to teach reading comprehension?
2. What are the perceived factors that influence the choice of teaching strategies in reading comprehension?
3. What is the perceived efficacy of the teaching strategies used by teachers of English in teaching reading comprehension?
4. What are the perceived effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance in reading comprehension?

The research design applied for this study was a mixed-methods design. The target population for this study comprised all English teachers at Cascade Technical Academy (pseudonym), while all students from different programmes were used. A sample size of 85 respondents, consisting of 5 teachers of English and 80 students, was selected for this study. A questionnaire and observational checklist were used to gather information

from English teachers and students. The questionnaires were pre-tested by one technical school in the region to determine their reliability using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. The data analysis was done using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, frequency, pie chart, bar chart, and percentages).

Key Findings

1. From the study, it was found from teachers' experience that students had an average reading level. Twenty to thirty students could read and comprehend reading with less guidance, while generating and asking questions were the most commonly used strategies to teach reading comprehension. Most teachers organise students 1-2 times in groups during reading comprehension in a month.
2. It was observed from the study that teaching strategies, duration, and the number of times teachers had reading activities to teach reading comprehension were average. Also, most teachers hardly discuss and plan with other teachers to teach reading comprehension strategies during an academic semester.
3. The study revealed that most teachers monitor students' progress in answering questions.
4. However, the study established that inadequate textbooks, inadequate time allocation, and absenteeism were some challenges teachers encountered in English comprehension. Nonetheless, most teachers modify comprehension questions to suit students' intellectual abilities; allowing students, motivating students, and introducing think-pair-share were used to assist students.

5. Finally, it was observed that difficulty in pronunciation and idiomatic expression was a source of worry for students. Most students believe that reading comprehension directly impacts their academic performance, which influences other subjects, and they can confidently speak in public.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, there was proof that reading comprehension positively impacts students' performance; their confidence is enhanced, thereby influencing other subjects. Again, the results available show that reading comprehension among students was average. employing strategies such as generating and asking questions. It can be concluded that inadequate textbooks were a challenge to teaching reading comprehension. Finally, it can be inferred from the findings that questioning, graphic organisers, and monitoring were reading strategies often implemented by teachers during lesson deliveries.

Recommendations

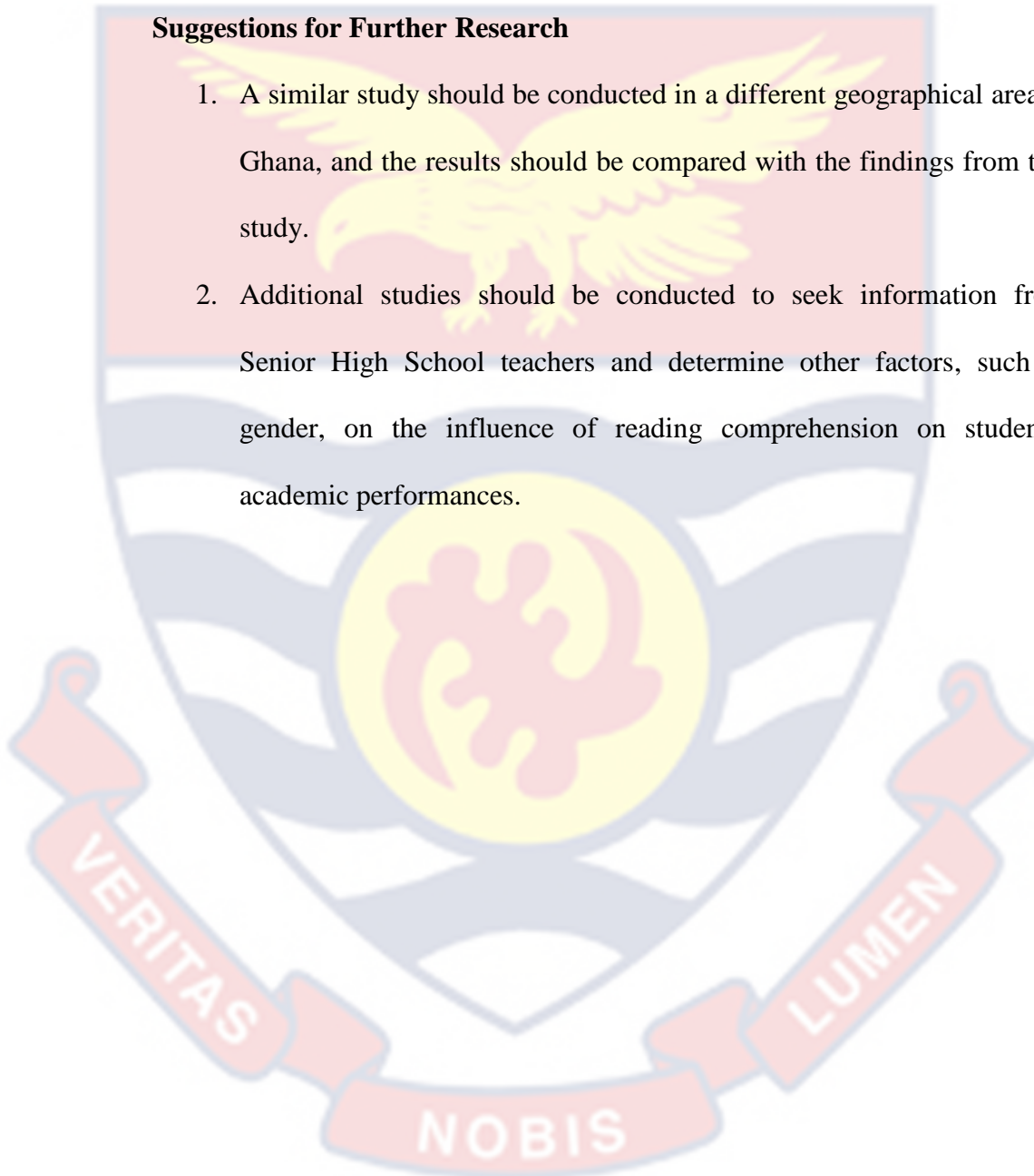
The following recommendations were given:

1. The Ministry of Education (MOE), in collaboration with other stakeholders in education, must ensure that adequate and relevant teaching materials for teaching reading comprehension should be made available for teachers and students.
2. With the numerous benefits of reading comprehension, it is recommended that teachers develop and motivate students to read and comprehend text daily to improve student performance.

3. Teachers of English should be provided with seminars on the various strategies used to elicit students' interest in reading comprehension.
4. It is also recommended that students actively engage in the identified effective learning strategies that promote reading comprehension.

Suggestions for Further Research

1. A similar study should be conducted in a different geographical area in Ghana, and the results should be compared with the findings from this study.
2. Additional studies should be conducted to seek information from Senior High School teachers and determine other factors, such as gender, on the influence of reading comprehension on students' academic performances.



REFERENCES

- Ahangari, S., Ghorbani, Z., & Hassanzadeh, Z. (2015). The effects of types of assessment (cloze, open-ended, true/false) on Iranian upper-intermediate male and female efl learners reading comprehension proficiency. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 5(2), 12-24.
- Ahmad Baaqeel, N. (2020). Improving student motivation and attitudes in learning English as a second language; literature as pleasurable reading: applying Garner's theory of multiple intelligences and Krashen's filter hypothesis. *AWEJ for Translation & Literary Studies*, 4(1), 14-27.
- Ahmadi, M. R., & Gilakjani, A. P. (2012). Reciprocal Teaching Strategies and Their Impacts on English Reading Comprehension. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 2(10), 41-52.
- Ahmadi, M. R., Ismail, H. N., & Abdullah, M. K. K. (2013). The Importance of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness in Reading Comprehension. *English Language Teaching*, 6(10), 235-244.
- Al Muhairy, O., Alhousini, N., Alsartawi, A., & Alalili, S. (2018). Effectiveness of Direct Instruction (DI) Approach in Improving Reading Proficiency for Children with Learning Disability in the United Arab Emirates. *International Journal*, 42(1), 31-38.
- Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading*. Cambridge University Press.
- Al-Jarrah, H., & Ismail, N. S. B. (2018). Reading comprehension difficulties among EFL learners in higher learning institutions. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 8(7), 32-41.

- Allan, R. (2016). Lexical bundles in graded readers: To what extent does language restriction affect lexical patterning?. *System*, 59(1), 61-72.
- Al-Mekhlafi, A. M. (2018). EFL Learners' Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies. *International Journal of Instruction*, 11(2), 297-308.
- Almutairi, N. R. (2018). Effective reading strategies for increasing the reading comprehension level of third-grade students with learning disabilities.
- Al-Qahtani, A. A. (2020). Investigating Metacognitive Think-Aloud Strategy in Improving Saudi EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension and Attitudes. *English Language Teaching*, 13(9), 50-62.
- Alshabatat, M. A. I. (2017). Jordanian Female Ninth-Grade Students' Attitudes towards Using Questioning Strategies in Critical Reading. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume*, 8.
- Alutaybi, M., & Alsowat, H. (2020). The Effectiveness of Using Self-Questioning Strategy in Developing Strategic Listening and Self-Regulation.
- Amin, M. (2019). Developing reading skills through effective reading approaches. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities*, 4(1), 35-40.
- Andrés, I. C. (2020). Enhancing Reading Comprehension through an Intensive Reading Approach. *HOW*, 27(1), 69-82.
- Anwar, A. K. (2020). The effect of collaborative strategic reading toward students reading skills. *Anglophile Journal*, 1(1), 21-28.
- Anwar, A. K. (2020). The effect of collaborative strategic reading toward students reading skill. *Anglophile Journal*, 1(1), 21-28.

- Ateek, M. (2021). Extensive reading in an EFL classroom: Impact and learners' perceptions. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(1), 109-131.
- Audira, W., Gani, S. A., & Sari, D. F. (2020). The Effectiveness of Using Guided Reading Strategy to Improve Students' Reading Comprehension. *Research in English and Education Journal*, 5(2), 56-64.
- Baafi, R. K. A. (2020). Effect of Instructional Strategies on Students' Academic Achievement in Public Senior High Schools in Ghana.
- Bagci, H., & Unveren, D. (2020). Investigation the Relationship between Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies and Self-Efficacy Perception in Reading Comprehension in Mother-Tongue: Sample of 8th Graders. *International Journal of Educational Methodology*, 6(1), 83-98.
- Bazarbaevna, B. L. (2017). Learning foreign language through reading. *Наука и образование сегодня*, (5 (16)).
- Bean, J. C., & Melzer, D. (2021). *Engaging ideas: The professor's guide to integrating writing, critical thinking, and active learning in the classroom*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2013). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction*. Guilford Press.
- Bernhardt, E. (2005). Progress and procrastination in second language reading. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 25(1), 133-150.

- Bharuthram, S. (2012). Making a case for the teaching of reading across the curriculum in higher education. *South African Journal of Education*, 32(2), 205-214.
- Blachman, B. A., Schatschneider, C., Fletcher, J. M., Murray, M. S., Munger, K. A., & Vaughn, M. G. (2014). Intensive reading remediation in grade 2 or 3: Are there effects a decade later?. *Journal of educational psychology*, 106(1), 46.
- Boardman, A. G., Vaughn, S., Buckley, P., Reutebuch, C., Roberts, G., & Klingner, J. (2016). Collaborative strategic reading for students with learning disabilities in upper elementary classrooms. *Exceptional Children*, 82(4), 409-427.
- Boon, R. T., Burke, M. D., Fore III, C., & Hagan-Burke, S. (2006). Improving Student Content Knowledge in Inclusive Social Studies Classrooms Using Technology-Based Cognitive Organizers: A Systematic Replication. *Learning Disabilities: A Contemporary Journal*, 4(1), 1-17.
- Botha, W. (2022). Academic literacy skills and the challenge for Australian higher education. *Educational Studies*, 1-21.
- Brevik, L. M. (2019). Explicit reading strategy instruction or daily use of strategies? Studying the teaching of reading comprehension through naturalistic classroom observation in English L2. *Reading and writing*, 32(9), 2281-2310.
- Brown, N. A., Bown, J., & Eggett, D. L. (2009). Making rapid gains in second language writing: A case study of a third-year Russian language course. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(3), 424-452.

- Buckley, P., & Boardman, A. (2014). The impact of collaborative strategic reading over time. In *American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Philadelphia, PA*.
- Budiyanto, D. (2019). Using Peer Assisted Learning Strategy on Reading Comprehension of Analytical Exposition. *Jurnal Ilmiah Bina Edukasi*, 12(01), 42-56.
- Buehl, D. (2001). Classroom Strategies for Interactive Learning; (pg. 121). *Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association*.
- Bukhari, S. A. R. (2020). "Bukhari Sample Size Calculator." Retrieved from DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.29024.10242.
- Burke, L. J., & Baniahmad, A. (2000). Co-repressors 2000. *The FASEB Journal*, 14(13), 1876-1888.
- Chang, A. C. S. (2009). Gains to L2 listeners from reading while listening vs. listening only in comprehending short stories. *System*, 37(4), 652-663.
- Cheng, H. F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *International journal of innovation in language learning and teaching*, 1(1), 153-174.
- Ching Lin, P., & Chen, H. (2016). The effects of the flipped classroom on learning effectiveness: Using learning satisfaction as the mediator. *World Transactions on Engineering and Technology Education*, 14(2), 231-244.
- Cirino, P. T., Miciak, J., Ahmed, Y., Barnes, M. A., Taylor, W. P., & Gerst, E. H. (2019). Executive function: Association with multiple reading skills. *Reading and Writing*, 32(7), 1819-1846.

- Ciullo, S., Mason, L. H., & Judd, L. (2021). Persuasive quick-writing about text: Intervention for students with learning disabilities. *Behaviour modification, 45*(1), 122-146.
- Cline, D. (2011). *Logical structure, theoretical framework*. Centre for Excellence in Education, Arkansas State University. Retrieved from: <http://education.astate.edu/dcline/> (accessed 16 August 2011).
- Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. Routledge.
- Collins, A., Brown, J. S., & Newman, S. E. (2018). Cognitive apprenticeship: Teaching the crafts of reading, writing, and mathematics. In *Knowing, learning, and instruction* (pp. 453-494). Routledge.
- Conradson, K. (2021). Teacher Absenteeism and Student Reading Growth and Achievement.
- Crabtree, T., Alber-Morgan, S. R., & Konrad, M. (2010). The effects of self-monitoring of story elements on the reading comprehension of high school seniors with learning disabilities. *Education and Treatment of Children, 187-203*.
- Creswell, J. W. (2011). Controversies in mixed methods research. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research, 4*(1), 269-284.
- Danaei, D., Jamali, H. R., Mansourian, Y., & Rastegarpour, H. (2020). Comparing reading comprehension between children reading augmented reality and print storybooks. *Computers & Education, 153*, 103900.

- De Milliano, I., Van Gelderen, A., & Slegers, P. (2016). Types and sequences of self-regulated reading of low-achieving adolescents in relation to reading task achievement. *Journal of research in reading, 39*(2), 229-252.
- Dewitz, P., & Dewitz, P. K. (2003). They can read the words, but they can't understand: Refining comprehension assessment. *The reading teacher, 56*(5), 422-435.
- Dexter, D. D., & Hughes, C. A. (2011). Graphic organizers and students with learning disabilities: A meta-analysis. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 34*(1), 51-72.
- Di Biase, R. (2019). Moving beyond the teacher-centred/learner-centred dichotomy: implementing a structured model of active learning in the Maldives. *Journal of Comparative and International Education, 49*(4), 565-583.
- Di Silvio, F., Donovan, A., & Malone, M. E. (2014). The effect of study abroad homestay placements: Participant perspectives and oral proficiency gains. *Foreign Language Annals, 47*(1), 168-188.
- DiCecco, V. M., & Gleason, M. M. (2002). Using graphic organizers to attain relational knowledge from expository text. *Journal of learning disabilities, 35*(4), 306-320.
- Duffy, G. G. (2002). Visioning and the development of outstanding teachers. *Literacy Research and Instruction, 41*(4), 331-343.
- Duke, N. K., & Pearson, P. D. (2009). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. *Journal of Education, 189*(1-2), 107-122.

- Dwiningtiyas, G. N., Sofyan, D., & Puspita, H. (2020). Teachers' strategies in teaching reading comprehension. *Journal of Applied Linguistic and Literacy*, 4(2), 66-77.
- Elleman, A. M., & Oslund, E. L. (2019). Reading comprehension research: Implications for practice and policy. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 6(1), 3-11.
- Eskey, D. E. (2005). Reading in a second language. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 563-579). Routledge.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American journal of theoretical and applied statistics*, 5(1), 1-4.
- Fillmore, L. W., & Snow, C. E. (2018). *1. What Teachers Need to Know About Language* (pp. 8-51). Multilingual Matters.
- Fitriani, S., & Tarwana, W. (2020). THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PEER ASSISTED LEARNING STRATEGY (PALS) IN TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION (A Mixed-Method Study at Tenth Grade in One of Senior High Schools in Ciamis). *JALL (Journal of Applied Linguistics and Literacy)*, 4(2).
- Flippo, R. F., Holland, D. A. D., McCarthy, M. T., & Swinning, E. A. (2009). Asking the right questions: How to select an informal reading inventory. *The Reading Teacher*, 63(1), 79-83.
- Frid, B. (2022). *Reading Strategy Intervention and Reading Comprehension Success in Bilingual Readers* (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Western Ontario (Canada)).

- Friesen, D. C., & Frid, B. (2021). Predictors of successful reading comprehension in bilingual adults: The role of reading strategies and language proficiency. *Languages*, 6(1), 18.
- Fulmer, S. M., D'Mello, S. K., Strain, A., & Graesser, A. C. (2015). Interest-based text preference moderates the effect of text difficulty on engagement and learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 41, 98-110.
- Gates, A. I., & MacGinitie, W. H. (1964). *Gates-MacGinitie reading tests*. Teachers College Press, Columbia University.
- Gellert, A. S., & Elbro, C. (2013). Cloze tests may be quick, but are they dirty? Development and preliminary validation of a cloze test of reading comprehension. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 31(1), 16-28.
- Gillan, K. P. (1997). Teaching principals: Educational restructuring and transformational leadership.
- Goodman, K. S. (2014). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. In *Making sense of learners making sense of written language* (pp. 103-112). Routledge.
- Goodman, K. S., & Goodman, Y. M. (2013). Learning to read is natural. *Theory and practice of early reading*, 1, 137.
- Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOL quarterly*, 25(3), 375-406.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. (2019). *Teaching and researching reading*. London: Routledge.

- Groves Scott, V., & Konya Weishaar, M. (2003). Curriculum-based measurement for reading progress. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 38(3), 153-159.
- Gupta, R. A. J. N. I., & Gupta, V. E. E. N. U. (2017). Constructivist approach in teaching. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 6(5), 77-88.
- Gürses, M. Ö., & Bouvet, E. (2016). Investigating reading comprehension and learning styles in relation to reading strategies in L2. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 28(1), 20-42.
- Hagaman, J. L., Luschen, K., & Reid, R. (2010). The “RAP” on reading comprehension. *Teaching exceptional children*, 43(1), 22-29.
- Hagtvet, B. E. (2003). Listening comprehension and reading comprehension in poor decoders: Evidence for the importance of syntactic and semantic skills as well as phonological skills. *Reading and writing*, 16(1), 505-539.
- Han, J. E. (2010). *Extensive reading conjoined with writing activities as an effective component of English as a second/foreign language programs* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Hartshorn, K. J., Evans, N. W., Egbert, J., & Johnson, A. (2017). Discipline-specific reading expectation and challenges for ESL learners in US universities.
- Hashemifardnia, A., Namaziandost, E., & Shafiee, S. (2018). The effect of implementing flipped classrooms on Iranian junior high school students' reading comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(6), 665-673.

- Hashimoto, R., Requa, J., Dao, T., Ninh, A., Tran, E., Mai, D., ... & Samarasena, J. B. (2020). Artificial intelligence using convolutional neural networks for real-time detection of early esophageal neoplasia in Barrett's esophagus (with video). *Gastrointestinal endoscopy*, 91(6), 1264-1271.
- Heckathorn, D. D. (1997). Respondent-driven sampling: a new approach to the study of hidden populations. *Social problems*, 44(2), 174-199.
- Heckman, J. J., & Rudelius, T. (2019). Top down approach to 6D SCFTs. *Journal of Physics A: Mathematical and Theoretical*, 52(9), 93-101.
- Hirsch, E. D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge of words and the world. *American educator*, 27(1), 10-13.
- Hitosugi, C. I., & Day, R. R. (2004). Extensive reading in Japanese.
- Hogan, T., Bridges, M. S., Justice, L. M., & Cain, K. (2011). Increasing higher-level language skills to improve reading comprehension.
- Hoover, K. D., & Perez, S. J. (1999). Data mining reconsidered: encompassing and the general-to-specific approach to specification search. *The econometrics journal*, 2(2), 167-191.
- Hudson, R. F., Pullen, P. C., Lane, H. B., & Torgesen, J. K. (2008). The complex nature of reading fluency: A multidimensional view. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 25(1), 4-32.
- Huettig, F., & Pickering, M. J. (2019). Literacy advantages beyond reading: Prediction of spoken language. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 23(6), 464-475.

- Huffman, J. (2014). Reading rate gains during a one-semester extensive reading course.
- Ismail, H. N., Ahmadi, M. R., & Gilakjani, A. P. (2012). The role of reciprocal teaching strategy as an important factor of improving reading motivation. *Elixir International Journal*, 53, 11836-11841.
- Jabri, U., Elihami, E., & Ibrahim, I. (2019). The effects of approach instruction on student's reading performance. *Jurnal Edukasi Nonformal*, 1(1), 72-80.
- Jacobs, K. (2016). Theorising interdisciplinary public sector accounting research. *Financial Accountability & Management*, 32(4), 469-488.
- Jenkins, J. R., Zumeta, R., Dupree, O., & Johnson, K. (2005). Measuring gains in reading ability with passage reading fluency. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 20(4), 245-253.
- Joh, J., & Plakans, L. (2017). Working memory in L2 reading comprehension: The influence of prior knowledge. *System*, 70, 107-120.
- Jordaan, H. (2011). Language teaching is no panacea: A theoretical perspective and critical evaluation of language in education within the South African context. *South African Journal of Communication Disorders*, 58(2), 79-94.
- Kachikis, A., Eckert, L. O., Walker, C., Bardají, A., Varricchio, F., Lipkind, H. S., & Brighton Collaboration Chorioamnionitis Working Group. (2019). Chorioamnionitis: Case definition & guidelines for data collection, analysis, and presentation of immunisation safety data. *Vaccine*, 37(52), 7610.

- Kadir, A. A., Kadir, M. N. A., Mohammed, S., Ridzuan, A. R., Farid, M., & Hasan, A. Z. (2020). Planned problem-solving strategy, resilience and element of religion in coping of covid 19 disease in Malaysia. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation*, 24(01), 5476-5484.
- Kansizoglu, H. B. (2017). The effect of graphic organizers on language teaching and learning areas: A meta-analysis study.
- Kasper, M., Uibu, K., & Mikk, J. (2018). Language teaching strategies impact on third-grade students' reading outcomes and reading interest. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 10(5), 601-610.
- Kibui, P. G. (2012). *A Critique of the contribution of Constructive learning approach to the development of critical thinking* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Kim, A. H., Vaughn, S., Wanzek, J., & Wei, S. (2004). Graphic organizers and their effects on the reading comprehension of students with LD: A synthesis of research. *Journal of learning disabilities*, 37(2), 105-118.
- Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A paradigm for cognition*. Cambridge university press.
- Kirmizi, F. S. (2011). The relationship between reading comprehension strategies and reading attitudes. *Education 3-13*, 39(3), 289-303.
- Klingner, J. K. (2004). Assessing reading comprehension. *Assessment for effective intervention*, 29(4), 59-70.
- Kriegeskorte, N., & Douglas, P. K. (2019). Interpreting encoding and decoding models. *Current opinion in neurobiology*, 55, 167-179.

Küçüköğlü, H. (2013). Improving reading skills through effective reading strategies. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 709-714.

Kyngäs, H., Kääriäinen, M., & Elo, S. (2020). The trustworthiness of content analysis. *The application of content analysis in nursing science research* (pp. 41-48). Springer Nature.

Leidig, T., Grünke, M., Urton, K., Knaak, T., & Hisgen, S. (2018). The Effects of the RAP Strategy Used in a Peer-Tutoring Setting to Foster Reading Comprehension in High-Risk Fourth Graders. *Learning Disabilities: A Contemporary Journal*, 16(2), 231-253.

Lengyel, E. M. (2010). *The motivational factors that affect adolescent readers' comprehension*. Saint Joseph's University.

LeVasseur, V. M., Macaruso, P., & Shankweiler, D. (2008). Promoting gains in reading fluency: A comparison of three approaches. *Reading and Writing*, 21(3), 205-230.

Li, J. T., Tong, F., Irby, B. J., Lara-Alecio, R., & Rivera, H. (2021). The effects of four instructional strategies on English learners' English reading comprehension: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(6), 21-33.

Lituanas, P. M., Jacobs, G. M., & Renandya, W. A. (2001). An investigation of extensive reading with remedial students in a Philippines secondary school. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 35(2), 217-225.

Lundstrom, K., & Baker, W. (2009). To give is better than to receive: The benefits of peer review to the reviewer's own writing. *Journal of second language writing*, 18(1), 30-43.

- Mahdavi, J. N., & Tensfeldt, L. (2013). Untangling reading comprehension strategy instruction: Assisting struggling readers in the primary grades. *Preventing school failure: Alternative education for children and youth*, 57(2), 77-92.
- Masduqi, H. (2016). Integrating receptive skills and productive skills into a reading lesson. In *Proceeding of the International Conference on Teacher Training and Education* (No. 1, pp. 507-511).
- Mason, L. H., Snyder, K. H., Sukhram, D. P., & Kedem, Y. (2006). TWA+ PLANS strategies for expository reading and writing: Effects for nine fourth-grade students. *Exceptional Children*, 73(1), 69-89.
- Mateos, M., Martín, E., Villalón, R., & Luna, M. (2008). Reading and writing to learn in secondary education: Online processing activity and written products in summarizing and synthesizing tasks. *Reading and Writing*, 21(7), 675-697.
- McKenna, M. C., & Robinson, R. D. (1990). Content literacy: A definition and implications. *Journal of reading*, 34(3), 184-186.
- McMaster, K. L., & Lembke, E. (2014). *Data-Based Instruction in Beginning Writing: A Manual*. Unpublished manual.
- McNamara, D. S., & Kendeou, P. (2011). Translating advances in reading comprehension research to educational practice. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 4(1), 33-46.
- McNamara, D. S., & Magliano, J. (2009). Toward a comprehensive model of comprehension. *Psychology of Learning and Motivation*, 51, 297-384.
- Merriam, S. B., & Grenier, R. S. (2019). *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis*. (2nd ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Mohammed, I., & Amponsah, O. (2018). Predominant Factors Contributing to Low Reading Abilities of Pupils at Elsie Lund Basic School in the Tamale Metropolis, Ghana. *African Educational Research Journal*, 6(4), 273-278.

Mokhtari, K., & Reichard, C. A. (2002). Assessing students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of educational psychology*, 94(2), 249.

Monti, S., Tamayo, P., Mesirov, J., & Golub, T. (2003). Consensus clustering: a resampling-based method for class discovery and visualization of gene expression microarray data. *Machine learning*, 52(1), 91-118.

Morrow, L. M. (2005). Language and Literacy in Preschools: Current Issues and Concerns. *Literacy Teaching and Learning*, 9(1), 7-19.

Muhid, A., Amalia, E. R., Hilaliyah, H., Budiana, N., & Wajdi, M. B. N. (2020). The Effect of Metacognitive Strategies Implementation on Students' Reading Comprehension Achievement. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(2), 847-862.

Munawaroh, N. (2017). The influence of teaching methods and learning environment to the student's learning achievement of craft and entrepreneurship subjects at vocational high school. *International Journal of Environmental & Science Education*, 12(4), 665-678.

Munawaroh, N. (2017). The influence of teaching methods and learning environment to the student's learning achievement of craft and entrepreneurship subjects at vocational high school. *International Journal of Environmental & Science Education*, 12(4), 665-678.

Mwaura, M. (2018). The Impact of Guided Reading Instruction on Students' Reading Achievement in Second Grade.

Nakamoto, J., Lindsey, K. A., & Manis, F. R. (2007). A longitudinal analysis of English language learners' word decoding and reading comprehension. *Reading and Writing, 20*(1), 691-719.

Ness, M. (2011). Explicit reading comprehension instruction in elementary classrooms: Teacher use of reading comprehension strategies. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 25*(1), 98-117.

Nguyen, N. X., Besch, D., Bartz-Schmidt, K., Gelisken, F., & Trauzettel-Klosinski, S. (2007). Reading performance with low-vision aids and vision-related quality of life after macular translocation surgery in patients with age-related macular degeneration. *Acta Ophthalmologica Scandinavica, 85*(8), 877-882.

Nilsson, K., Danielsson, H., Elwér, Å., Messer, D., Henry, L., & Samuelsson, S. (2021). Investigating reading comprehension in adolescents with intellectual disabilities: Evaluating the Simple View of Reading. *Journal of Cognition, 4*(1), 12-21.

Noureen, G., Arshad, T. & Bashir, M. (2020). Effect of Constructivist Teaching Approach on Students' Achievement in Science at Elementary Level. *Pakistan Social Science Review P-ISSN 2664-0422. Vol 4 No. III [904-911] O-ISSN 2664-0430.*

Ntim, S. (2017). Does text familiarity predict schema automation to reduce working memory capacity constraints for enhanced reading comprehension? A study from Ghana. *International Journal of Research Studies in Psychology, 6*(2), 103-116.

- Octaberlina, L. R., & Asrifan, A. (2021). The Text-Based Character in Teaching Reading Comprehension at the Tenth Grade Students. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 4(1), 11-24.
- Oczkus, L. D. (2018). *Reciprocal teaching at work: Powerful strategies and lessons for improving reading comprehension*. ASCD.
- Ojukwu, E. V. (2021). Adequate Lesson Plan: a Prerequisite for Effective Teaching and Learning Of Music. *Awka Journal Of Research In English Language (AJRMA)*, 9, 159-173.
- Ojukwu, E. V. (2021). Adequate Lesson Plan: A prerequisite for effective teaching and learning of Music. *Journal of Research in Music and Arts*, 9(1), 159-173.
- Okkinga, M., van Steensel, R., van Gelderen, A. J., & Slegers, P. J. (2018). Effects of reciprocal teaching on reading comprehension of low-achieving adolescents. The importance of specific teaching skills. *Journal of research in reading*, 41(1), 20-41.
- Olayinka, A.-R. B. (2016). Effects of Instructional Materials on Secondary Schools Students' Academic Achievement in Social Studies in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *World Journal of Education*, 6(1), 32-39.
- Ortlieb, E., Grandstaff-Beckers, G., & Cheek Jr, E. H. (2012). Fostering reading excellence at every level of school through reading clinics. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 85(1), 1-6.
- Oster, L. (2001). Using the think-aloud for reading instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 55(1), 64-69.

Paris, S. G., & Stahl, S. A. (Eds.). (2005). *Children's reading comprehension and assessment*. Routledge.

Perfetti, C. A., & Stafura, J. (2014). Word knowledge in a theory of reading comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 18, 22-37.

Piaget, J. (1964). Development and learning. In RE Ripple & VN Rock castle (1st Eds.). In *Piaget Rediscovered: A Report of the Conference on Cognitive Studies and Curriculum Development*. (pp. 7-19). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.

Piaget, J. (1980). *The development of thought: Equilibration of cognitive structures*. New York, N.Y.: Viking.

Pressley, M. (2008). What the future of reading research could be. *Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices*, 2, 391-413.

Puliatte, A., & Ehri, L. C. (2018). Do 2nd and 3rd-grade teachers' linguistic knowledge and instructional practices predict spelling gains in weaker spellers?. *Reading and Writing*, 31(2), 239-266.

Pullen, P. C. (2016). Historical and current perspectives on learning disabilities in the United States. *Learning Disabilities: A Contemporary Journal*, 14(1), 25-37.

Qrquez, M., & Ab Rashid, R. (2017). Reading comprehension difficulties among EFL learners: The case of first and second-year students at Yarmouk University in Jordan. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)* Volume, 8.

- Rafdal, B. H., McMaster, K. L., McConnell, S. R., Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (2011). The effectiveness of kindergarten peer-assisted learning strategies for students with disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 77*(3), 299-316.
- Rahim, P. R. M. A., Yusuf, F., & Dzulkafly, Z. (2017). Facilitating reading comprehension among ESL learners using graphic organizers. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research, 13*(1), 24-54.
- Raths, J. D. (1971). Teaching without specific objectives. *Educational leadership, 28*(7), 714-720.
- Ritchie, G., & Ryan, J. M. (2021, February). Creating a reading community: Lifelong learning: The library and literacy. In *IASL Annual Conference Proceedings*.
- Roberts, G., Good, R., & Corcoran, S. (2005). Story retell: A fluency-based indicator of reading comprehension. *School Psychology Quarterly, 20*(3), 304-325.
- Rouse, C. A., Alber-Morgan, S. R., Cullen, J. M., & Sawyer, M. (2014). Using prompt fading to teach self-questioning to fifth graders with LD: Effects on reading comprehension. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 29*(3), 117-125.
- Rumelhart, D. E. (1981). Processes in Reading. *International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 6139, Newark, DE 19711* (Order No. 943, \$9.00 member, \$13.50 non-member). *EDRS PRICE MF01/PC14 Plus Postage. DESCRIPTORS Beginning Reading; Bilingual Education; * Cognitive, 3.*

- Rupley, W. H., Blair, T. R., & Nichols, W. D. (2009). Effective reading instruction for struggling readers: The role of direct/explicit teaching. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 25(2-3), 125-138.
- Sakata, N. (2019). Profiling vocabulary for proficiency development: Effects of input and general frequencies on L2 learning. *System*, 87(1), 102-167.
- Sari, D. K., Pratiwi, E., & Thereana, A. (2019). Effective reading strategies for reading skills. *Esteem Journal of English Education Study Programme*, 2(2), 112-120.
- Schimmel, N., & Ness, M. (2017). The effects of oral and silent reading on reading comprehension. *Reading Psychology*, 38(4), 390-416.
- Schindler, A. K., Seidel, T., Böheim, R., Knogler, M., Weil, M., Alles, M., & Gröschner, A. (2021). Acknowledging teachers' individual starting conditions and zones of development in the course of professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 100, 103281.
- Schoonen, R. (2019). Are reading and writing building on the same skills? The relationship between reading and writing in L1 and EFL. *Reading and Writing*, 32(3), 511-535.
- Seifert, S. (2021). Is reading comprehension taken for granted? An analysis of Austrian textbooks in fourth and sixth grade. *Technology, Knowledge and Learning*, 26(2), 383-405.
- Sejnost, R. (2010). *Building content literacy: Strategies for the adolescent learner*. Corwin Press.

Serafini, F. (2010). Reading multimodal texts: Perceptual, structural and ideological perspectives. *Children's Literature in Education*, 41(2), 85-104.

Shanahan, T. (2005). The National Reading Panel Report. Practical Advice for Teachers. *Learning Point Associates/North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL)*.

Sheikh, I., Soomro, K. A., & Hussain, N. (2019). Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies, Reading Practices and Academic Attainments of University Students. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, 6(1), 126-137.

Shukla, D., & Dungsungnoen, A. P. (2016). Student's Perceived Level and Teachers' Teaching Strategies of Higher Order Thinking Skills: A Study on Higher Educational Institutions in Thailand. *Journal of education and Practice*, 7(12), 211-219.

Singhal, M. (2001). Reading proficiency, reading strategies, metacognitive awareness and L2 readers. *The Reading Matrix*, 1(1).

Sioringas, M., & Steier, N. (2019). The Effect of Guided Reading on Student's Academic Achievement in First-Grade Classrooms.

Smith, J. W., & Elley, W. B. (1995). *Learning to read in New Zealand*. Richard C. Owen Publishers.

Snipes, J. C., Soga, K., & Uro, G. (2007). *Improving teaching and learning for English Language Learners in urban schools*. Council of the Great City Schools.

- Spinelli, E., Kandel, S., Guerassimovitch, H., & Ferrand, L. (2012). Graphemic cohesion effect in reading and writing complex graphemes. *Language and Cognitive Processes*, 27(5), 770-791.
- Stahl, K. A. D., & McKenna, M. C. (2012). *Reading assessment in an RTI framework*. Guilford Press.
- Starkey, L. (2019). Three dimensions of student-centred education: a framework for policy and practice. *Critical Studies in Education*, 60(3), 375-390.
- Stevens, E. A., Park, S., & Vaughn, S. (2019). A review of summarising and main idea interventions for struggling readers in grades 3 through 12: 1978–2016. *Remedial and Special Education*, 40(3), 131-149.
- Støle, H., Mangen, A., & Schwippert, K. (2020). Assessing children's reading comprehension on paper and screen: A mode-effect study. *Computers & Education*, 151, 103861.
- Streubert Speziale, H., & Carpenter, D. (2003). *Qualitative research in Nursing*, edn.
- Taguchi, E., Takayasu-Maass, M., & Gorsuch, G. J. (2004). Developing reading fluency in EFL: How assisted repeated reading and extensive reading affect fluency development.
- Taylor, L. K., Alber, S. R., & Walker, D. W. (2002). The comparative effects of a modified self-questioning strategy and story mapping on the reading comprehension of elementary students with learning disabilities. *Journal of behavioural education*, 11(2), 69-87.

- Teevno, R. A., & Raisani, R. B. (2017). English reading strategies and their impact on students' performance in reading comprehension. *Journal of Education & Social Sciences*, 5(2), 152-166.
- Tella, A., & Akande, S. O. (2007). Children reading habits and availability of books in Botswana primary schools: Implications for achieving quality education.
- Tercanlioglu, L. (2004). Postgraduate Students' Use of Reading Strategies in L1 and ESL Contexts: Links to Success. *International Education Journal*, 5(4), 562-570.
- Tomlinson, C. A., & McTighe, J. (2006). *Integrating differentiated instruction & understanding by design: Connecting content and kids*. ASCD.
- Trace, J. (2020). Clozing the gap: How far do cloze items measure?. *Language Testing*, 37(2), 235-253.
- Ugwu, E. O. (2019). Effect of student teams-achievement divisions and think-pair-share on students' interest in reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Research and Practice*, 9(1), 22.
- Vacca, R. T., & Vacca, J. A. L. (1989). *Content area reading*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.
- Van Oostendorp, H., & Goldman, S. R. (Eds.). (1998). *The construction of mental representations during reading*. Psychology Press.
- Varpio, L., Paradis, E., Uijtdehaage, S., & Young, M. (2020). The distinctions between theory, theoretical framework, and conceptual framework. *Academic Medicine*, 95(7), 989-994.

- Vaughn, S., Wexler, J., Leroux, A., Roberts, G., Denton, C., Barth, A., & Fletcher, J. (2012). Effects of intensive reading intervention for eighth-grade students with persistently inadequate response to intervention. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 45*(6), 515-525.
- Villanueva de Debat, E. (2006). Applying Current Approaches to the Teaching of Reading. In *English teaching forum* (Vol. 44, No. 1, pp. 8-15). US Department of State. Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Office of English Language Programs, SA-5, 2200 C Street NW 4th Floor, Washington, DC 20037.
- Vlach, S., & Burcie, J. (2010). Narratives of the struggling reader. *The Reading Teacher, 63*(6), 522-525.
- Von Glasersfeld, E. (1996). Footnotes to 'the many faces of constructivism'. *Educational researcher, 25*(6), 19.
- Wang, J. (2009). Electronic strategies to improve Chinese reading skills. In *Handbook of research on e-learning methodologies for language acquisition* (pp. 237-252). IGI Global.
- Wang, P., & Domeniconi, C. (2008, August). Building semantic kernels for text classification using wikipedia. In *Proceedings of the 14th ACM SIGKDD international conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining* (pp. 713-721).
- Wangmo, T., Nordström, K., & Kressig, R. W. (2017). Preventing elder abuse and neglect in geriatric institutions: Solutions from nursing care providers. *Geriatric Nursing, 38*(5), 385-392.
- Wheeler, A. (2017). *Designing brand identity: an essential guide for the whole branding team*. John Wiley & Sons.

Wibowo, Y., Syafrizal, S., & Syafryadin, S. (2020). An analysis of English teachers' strategies in teaching reading Comprehension. *JALL (Journal of Applied Linguistics and Literacy)*, 4(1), 20-27.

Williams, K. J., & Vaughn, S. (2020). Effects of an Intensive Reading Intervention for Ninth-Grade English Learners With Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 43(3), 154-166.

Williams, R. S., Ari, O., & Santamaria, C. N. (2011). Measuring college students' reading comprehension ability using cloze tests. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 34(2), 215-231.

Yamashita, T. (2003). Owner-occupied housing and investment in stocks: an empirical test. *journal of urban Economics*, 53(2), 220-237.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Zhang, Y., & Shanshan, H. (2011). Background knowledge and reading comprehension.

Zou, J., & Ding, N. (2021). Task Optimisation Leads to Human-like Top-down and Bottom-up Attention during Reading Comprehension.



APPENDIX 'A'

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

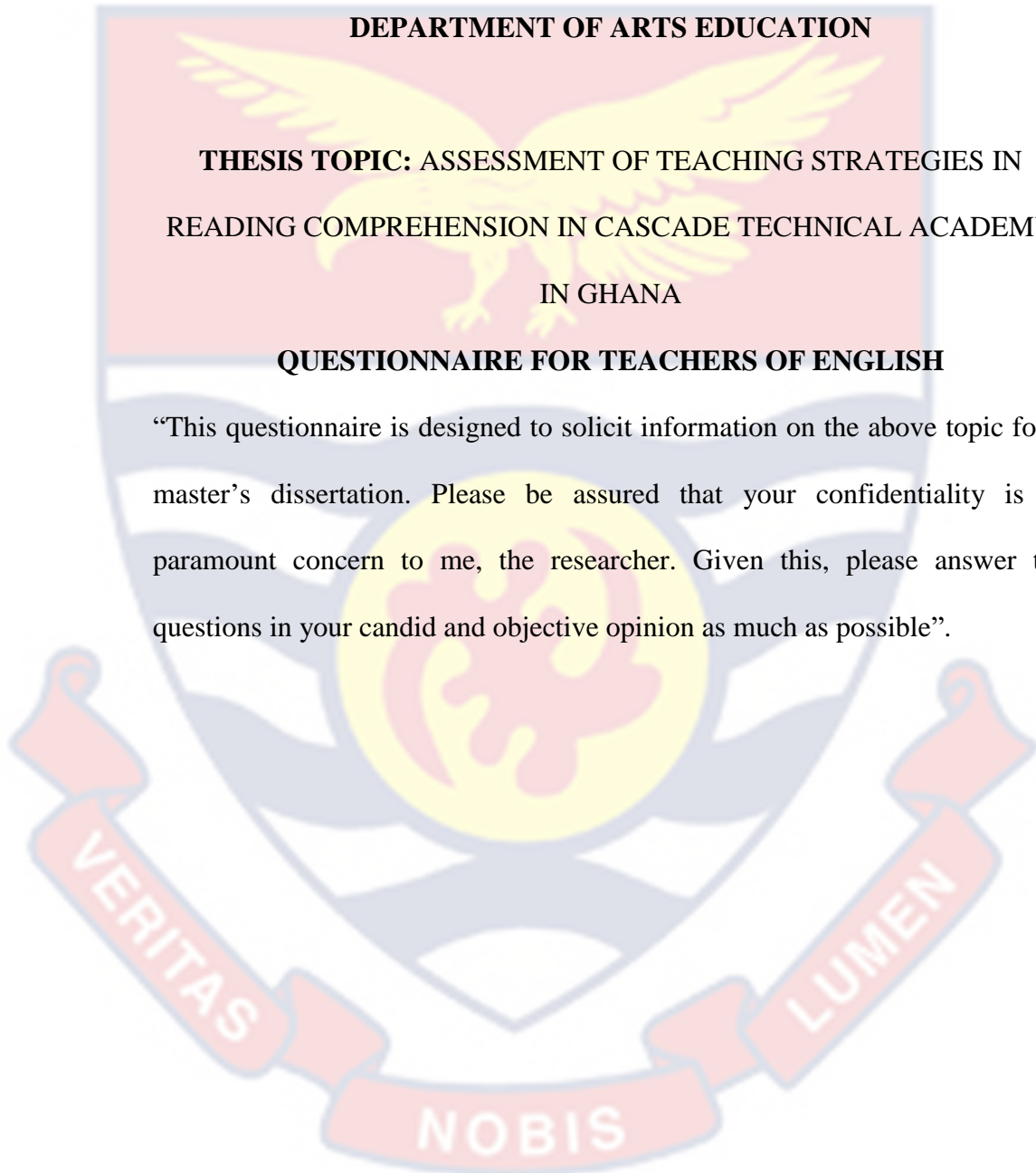
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION

**THESIS TOPIC: ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES IN
READING COMPREHENSION IN CASCADE TECHNICAL ACADEMY
IN GHANA**

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

“This questionnaire is designed to solicit information on the above topic for a master’s dissertation. Please be assured that your confidentiality is of paramount concern to me, the researcher. Given this, please answer the questions in your candid and objective opinion as much as possible”.



SECTION A:

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA (Tick appropriate box)

- 1. Sex a. Female b. Male
- 2. Age a. 18-28 years b. 29-39 years c. 40-59 years
- d. 60 years and above
- 3. Marital status a. Married b. Divorced c. Single
- d. Widowed
- 4. Qualification a. First Degree b. Master degree c. PhD
- 5. Length of service a. 1-10 years b. 11-20 years c. 21-30 years

SECTION B:

TEACHING STRATEGIES THAT ARE USED BY TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO TEACH READING COMPREHENSION

6. How would you describe the reading level of your students from your personal experience?

- Very Good
- Good
- Average
- Bad
- Very Bad

7. How many students in your class can read and comprehend with less guidance from you?

.....

8. How many students receive reading assignments because they can read and comprehend on their own with little guidance?

.....

.....

9. How many students in your class struggle to read and comprehend such that they need much guidance?

.....

How best will you describe the strategy you use in teaching your students reading comprehension?

Activating and Using Background Knowledge

Generating and Asking Questions

Making Inferences

Predicting

Summarizing

Visualizing

Other/Specify.....
.....

10. How often do you have reading activities with your students in a week?

1-2

3-4

5-6

11. How often do you organize students in groups during reading lessons in a month?

1-2

3-4

5-6

12. What is the time duration of your comprehension lessons in a week?

.....
.....
.....

13. How often do you have meetings with other teachers of English to discuss and plan teaching strategies in reading comprehension in an academic semester?

1-2

3-4

5-6

6-7

SECTION C
THE EFFICACY OF TEACHING STRATEGIES USED BY
TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN TEACHING READING
COMPREHENSION

1. What reading strategies do you know and often implement during lesson deliveries?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. What do you usually do if you realise a student is struggling to read?

.....
.....
.....
.....

3. Do you monitor students' progress in answering comprehension questions? If yes, how often do you do that?

.....
.....

4. How often do you assess students' performance in reading comprehension in a week?

.....
.....
.....

SECTION D:
**THE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF TEACHING
STRATEGIES USED BY TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN TEACHING
READING COMPREHENSION**

5. What are the challenges you encounter in teaching English comprehension lessons?

a.
.....
.....

b.
.....
.....

c.
.....
.....

6. Do you modify comprehension questions to suit the intellectual abilities of students?

Yes []

No []

7. If you selected 'Yes' to item 7, state your reason for modifying questions.

.....
.....
.....

8. Do you sustain students' interest in the comprehension lessons?

Yes []

No []

9. If you selected 'Yes' to item 9, state how you sustain students' interest in lessons.

.....
.....
.....
.....

Do you encounter any difficulties in stimulating your students to read a text?

Yes []

No []

10. If 'Yes,' what are these difficulties? State them.

.....
.....
.....

11. Based on your opinion, what are the problems faced by the students in reading comprehension lessons?

.....
.....
.....

12. What resources are available to you in dealing with students who have difficulty reading comprehension exercises?

.....
.....
.....

13. How often do you assign reading comprehension exercises as a take-home assignment?

.....
.....

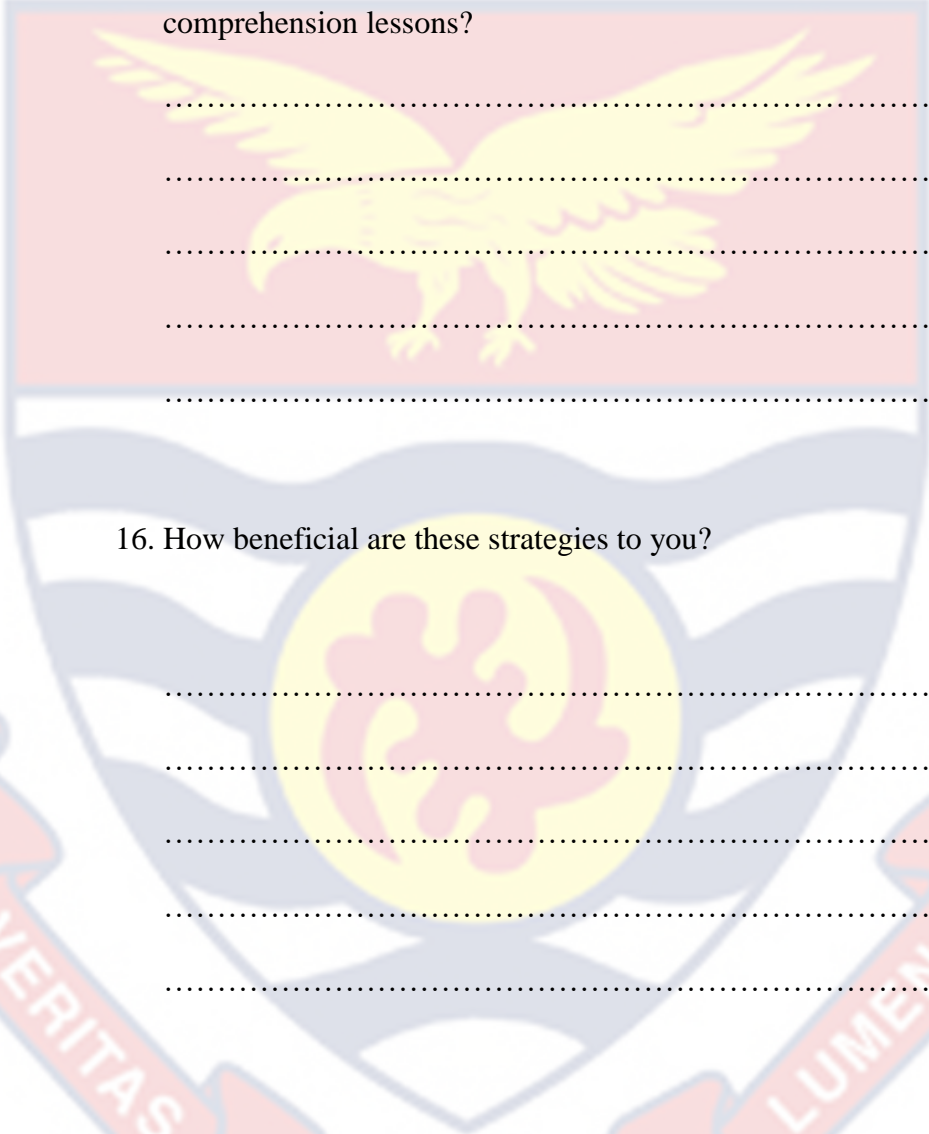
14. What is the relevance of the teaching strategies you use in teaching comprehension?

.....
.....
.....
.....

SECTION E:

**THE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE CHOICE OF
TEACHING STRATEGIES IN READING COMPREHENSION**

15. What mechanisms do you consider when selecting strategies for your comprehension lessons?

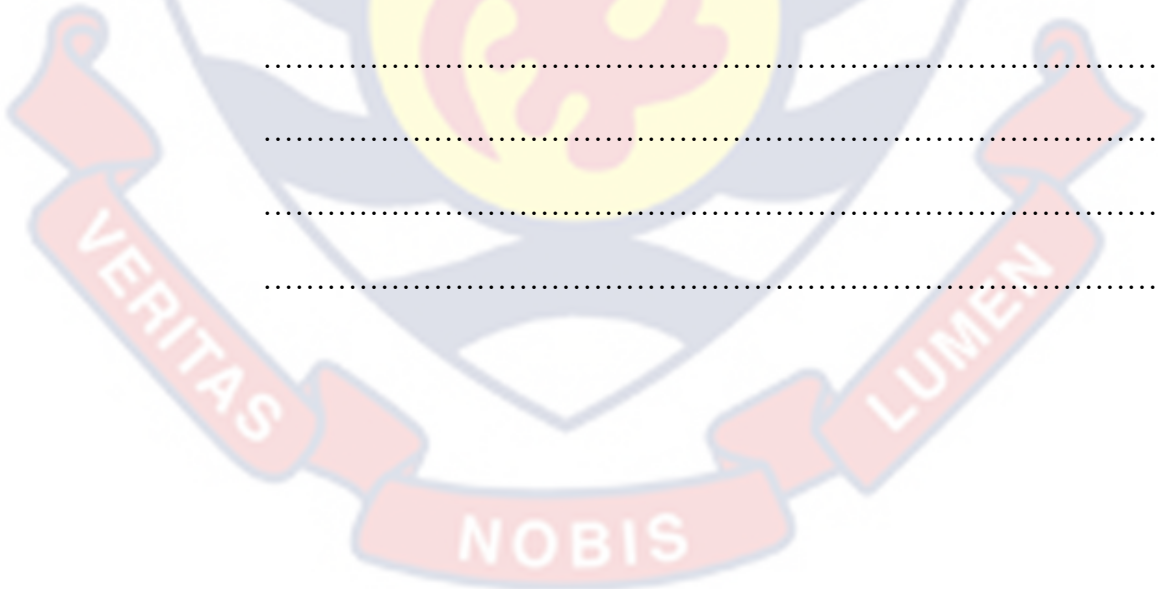


.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

16. How beneficial are these strategies to you?



.....
.....
.....
.....
.....



APPENDIX B**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST****COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES****FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES****DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION**

THESIS TOPIC: ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES IN
READING COMPREHENSION IN CASCADE TECHNICAL ACADEMY
IN GHANA

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

“This questionnaire is designed to solicit information on the above topic for a master’s dissertation. Please be assured that the respondent’s confidentiality is of paramount concern to the researcher. Given this, please answer the questions in your candid and objective opinion as possible”.

SECTION A**SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA**

1. Gender
2. Age
3. Form
4. Programme.....

SECTION B
EFFECTS OF TEACHING STRATEGIES ON STUDENTS’
ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN READING
COMPREHENSION

5. What are the problems you face during reading comprehension lessons?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6. How does your teacher sustain your interest in the lesson?

.....
.....
.....
.....

7. Are you active during reading comprehension lessons?

Yes []

No []

8. If yes, explain further.

.....
.....
.....

9. If not, explain further.

.....
.....
.....

10. What difficulties do you encounter in comprehending words used in a text?

.....
.....
.....
.....

11. What difficulties do you encounter in comprehending a sentence in a text?

.....
.....
.....

12. Does the type of texts given by the teacher contribute to your sustained interest in the lesson?

Yes []

No []

13. Does it take longer for you to read and understand a text?

Yes []

No []

14. If yes, how long does it take? Provide periods, e.g., 40 minutes

15. What difficulties do you encounter in recalling important parts of the text?

.....
.....
.....

16. Apart from the engagements in the class, do you have an interest in using English, practicing English, and reading English text?

Yes []

No []

17. Do you think reading comprehension has a direct impact on your academic performance? Yes/no

18. If yes, which area in studies do you experience this impact?

.....
.....
.....

19. Do you have any suggestion(s) for your teacher as to how best to further teach reading comprehension to your understanding?

.....
.....
.....
.....

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION

**THESIS TOPIC: ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES IN
READING COMPREHENSION IN CASCADE TECHNICAL ACADEMY
IN GHANA**

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

1. Implementation of Pre-reading activities.

very effective

effective

non- effective

Not Used At All

2. Use of teaching strategies in lesson delivery to aid students' comprehension and sustainability of students' interest in the lesson

Very effective

Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

3. Ability of the teacher to build the vocabulary acquisition skills of students

Very effective Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

4. Teacher's ability to modify text to the ability of students for better acquisition of comprehension skills.

Very effective

Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

5.Students involvement and contribution to the lesson.

Very effective Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

6.Teacher's knowledge of the procedures involved in the teaching strategies used in lesson delivery.

Very effective

Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

7. Teacher's interaction with students during lesson delivery.

Very effective

Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

8. Comprehension monitoring skills in course of lesson delivery.

Very effective

Effective

Non-effective

Not Used At All

9. Teacher's ability to modify exercise to match the comprehension level of students.

Very effective

Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All

10. Whiteboard illustrations.

Very effective

Effective

Non- effective

Not Used At All



APPENDIX 'C'

IRB LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309

E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/1347

YOUR REF:

OMB NO: 0990-0279

IORG #: IORG0009096

27TH APRIL, 2022

Mr. Evans Attah
Department of Arts Education
University of Cape Coast

Dear Mr. Attah,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CES/2022/04)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted Provisional Approval for the implementation of your research **Assessment of Teaching Strategies in Reading in Comprehension and its Effect on Students' Performance in a Technical Institute in Ghana**. This approval is valid from 27th April, 2022 to 26th April, 2023. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'S. Owusu'.

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD

UCCIRB Administrator
ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

APPENDIX 'D'

LETTER FROM DEPARTMENT

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION

TELEPHONE: +233 03321 35411/ +233 03321 32480/3,

Email: dae@ucc.edu.gh EXT. (268), Direct: 35411.

Telegrams & Cables: University, Cape Coast.

University Post Office,
Cape Coast, Ghana.

OUR REF: DAsE/SM/11

YOUR REF:

Date: 8th June, 2021TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN
(LETTER OF INTRODUCTION)

I write to certify that:

MR. EVANS ATTAH
(EH/ARE/20/0003)

is an MPhil student of the Department of Arts Education of the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. He is carrying out a research study on the topic "*Assessment of Teaching Strategies in Reading Comprehension and its Effect on Students' Performance in Ghanaian Technical Institutes: A Case study of the Volta Technical Institute*". It has therefore become necessary for him to collect data from your outfit to complete the study.

I will be grateful if you would offer him any assistance he needs.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'S. Danso'.


REV. PROF. SETH ASARE DANSO (PhD)
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

APPENDIX 'E'

SUPERVISORS CONSENT LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Telephone: +233 - (0)3321 33379
Cables: University, Cape Coast
Email: basiceducc@gmail.com



UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: PD/20/V.1

22nd November, 2021

Your Ref:

The Chairperson
Institutional Review Board
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

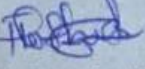
LETTER OF CONSENT

I write to formally inform you that I have given Mr. Evans Attah my consent to apply for ethical clearance from IRB to enable him to undertake data collection for his MPhil Thesis titled "Assessment of teaching strategies in reading comprehension and its effects on students' performance in a technical institute in Ghana".

As a result, I would appreciate it if you could support him in any way you can so that he can collect the data he needs for his research.

I am counting on your usual cooperation. Attached to this letter is a copy of my abridged CV.
Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Signed 

Dr. (Mrs) Gertrude A Torto

(Supervisor)
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST