



**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN READING STRATEGY USE AND
AUTONOMY IN EFL READING AND THE EFFECTS OF READING
STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON PARTICIPANTS' AUTONOMY IN
EFL READING**

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Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduđumu, yararlandıđım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiđimi ve bu bölümler dıřındaki tüm ifadelerin řahsıma ait olduđunu beyan ederim.

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*To my beloved mother Nursel,
who taught me a lot with her
presence and absence,*

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**OKUMA STRATEJİSİ KULLANIMI İLE İNGİLİZCE’DE OKUMA
ÖZERKLİĞİNİN İLİŞKİSİ VE OKUMA STRATEJİSİ EĞİTİMİNİN
KATILIMCILARIN İNGİLİZCE’DE OKUMA ÖZERKLİĞİNE
ETKİLERİ**

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ÖZ

Çalışmanın ana amacı okuma stratejisi kullanımı ile İngilizce’de okuma özerkliğinin ilişkisi olup olmadığını ortaya çıkarmak ve okuma stratejisi eğitiminin katılımcıların İngilizce’de okuma özerkliğine etkisi olup olmadığını belirlemektir. Çalışmada nicel yöntem kullanılmış ve katılımcıların hem strateji kullanımını hem de İngilizce okuma özerkliğini ölçebilmek adına iki anketten faydalanılmıştır. Çalışma Giresun ve Karabük Üniversitelerinde toplam 184 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Tüm katılımcılar Uygulamalı İngilizce ve Çevirmenlik bölümü hazırlık sınıfı öğrencileridir. Elde edilen data SPSS Statistic 20.0 programı aracılığıyla analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar okuma stratejisi kullanımı ile İngilizce’de okuma özerkliği arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunduğunu ve okuma stratejisi eğitiminin katılımcıların İngilizce’de okuma özerkliğine pozitif etkisi olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Okuma stratejileri, strateji eğitimi, özerklik, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce’de okuma
SayfaAdedi :
Danışman : Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Sevinç ERGENEKON EMİR

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(Master's Thesis)**

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study is to find out any relationship between reading strategy use and autonomy in EFL reading and to reveal any effects of reading strategy instruction on participants' autonomy in EFL reading. A quantitative survey methodology was utilized in the study and two questionnaires were employed to measure both the reading strategy use of the participants and their being autonomous in EFL reading. The study was conducted at Giresun University and Karabuk University with a total of 184 participants. All the participants were students in intensive English classes of Applied English and Interpretation department. The quantitative data were analysed through SPSS Statistics 20.0. The results showed a significant relationship between reading strategy use and autonomy in EFL reading. In addition, strategy instruction had a positive effect on the learners' autonomy while doing reading in English.

KeyWords : Reading strategies, strategy instruction, autonomy, EFL Reading
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|--|
| CEFR | Common European Framework of Reference |
| CLT | Communicative Language Teaching |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| ELP | European Language Portfolio |
| ELT | English Language Teaching |
| IRE | Initiate, Respond, Evaluate |
| ITP | Institutional Testing Program |
| KWL | What I Know, What I Want to Learn and What I Have Learned |
| NAEP | National Assessment of Educational Progress |
| NICHHD | National Institute of Child Health & Human Development |
| SORS | Survey of Reading Strategies |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |
| SQ3R | Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review |
| SSBI | Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction Model |
| TOEFL | Test of English as a Foreign Language |

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Reading is defined as a complex skill linking the writer to the readers by using written materials (Sarigöz, 1986). It has been regarded as an effective skill in foreign language learning and teaching. Richards and Renandya (2002) suggest that reading is mainly the most important goal of many foreign language learners, and it enables learners to deal with writing texts with various pedagogical aims. Emphasizing its importance in learning a foreign language, Nuttall (1982) ranks reading in the second place, next to living among native speakers. In order to tackle any comprehension difficulties and to ease reading, various strategies have been developed and utilized by readers. Reading strategies are defined as mental processes, conscious plans and techniques employed purposefully when approaching a text, to facilitate reading and to overcome comprehension failures (Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989; Cohen, 1990). They are teachable activities which can later be turned into the inner skills of readers (Paris, Lipson & Wixson, 1994). Using reading strategies to facilitate the comprehension and meaningful understanding is among the qualifications of good readers (Lau & Chan, 2003).

Autonomy is defined as the capacity to make decisions and to control over important areas of one's life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). In the learning context, it refers to the capacity to take charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1985). Various researchers stress the importance of autonomy in language learning, as it allows learners to choose learning resources and

activities in a language classroom (Nunan, 2000), it enhances the enthusiasm for learning (Littlejohn, 1985) and particularly adults learn better when they are consulted about what they are learning (Caef, 1988, cited in Finch, 2001). Nunan (2000) states that autonomy is an on-going process that can be developed, and Louis (2006) presents strategy instruction as one of the most effective ways to develop it.

Allocating a special focus to reading in foreign language learning and autonomy in reading, the present study focuses on reading strategies and aims to investigate the roles of reading strategies in enhancing and developing learner autonomy in EFL reading. The reading strategies defined and categorized by Neufeld (2005) have been included in this study, and an instruction program has been developed considering the strategy instruction phases suggested by Neufeld (2005). The study has been developed taking the relevant previous studies as references, which will be presented in the background of the study section. Following the background of the study, the statement of the problem, rationale for the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and assumptions, and definitions of the key terms will be covered.

Background of the Study

Autonomy in learning contexts has been mostly handled focusing on the beliefs and attitudes of learners and teachers towards autonomy. Gündoğdu (1997) carried out a study with primary school students which aimed to reveal the development of autonomy in their learning process from the point of their relations with teachers. The results showed that when teachers became the facilitator and supported the students' self-confidence, the students became more independent. In another study, Oh (2002) handled the relationship between autonomy and the beliefs of learners. The findings of the study indicated that learning beliefs and autonomy were closely associated with each other. Chan (2001), likewise, investigated the learners' attitudes towards autonomy revealing that students created awareness on the allocated roles in that new way of learning in accordance with

autonomy. In 2010, Balçıkanlı carried out a research on student teachers' beliefs on learner autonomy. 112 university students were included in the study and the results indicated that student teachers had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy; however, most of them declared they would not prefer their future students intervene the selection of materials and course content. In association with British Council, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) conducted a similar project in Omani context on teachers' attitudes towards autonomy. According to the results, the teachers were reported to believe in the efficiency of autonomy; however, they also stated that practicability of autonomy was not always possible.

Researchers also conducted studies on the relationship between learning strategies and autonomy. In Şahin's study in 2005, aiming to identify the relations between the metacognitive strategies and learner autonomy, the findings revealed that learners who were utilizing strategies turned out to be more autonomous. Likewise, Figura and Jarvis (2007) investigated the reciprocal effect of technology using on strategy implementation and their relation with autonomy. The participants were reported to show reasonable levels of autonomy, good metacognitive awareness, and they implemented cognitive strategies appropriately when they used computer-based materials in and out of the classroom.

Castillo and Bonilla (2014) investigated the relationship between reading strategies and reading autonomy in reading context. An instruction program was implemented and the learners were reported to create more awareness on reading and to develop some autonomous features such as making decisions for learning. In Lake and Holster's study (2014), the researchers investigated the benefits of extensive reading on developing autonomous readers. According to results, the learners gained reading speed, developed a more positive L2 reading self and increased L2 reading motivation. By enabling the learners to read out of the classroom voluntarily, the program was also reported to foster reading autonomy. Another study was conducted in Japan by Dr Francis Johnson to promote reading autonomy (cited in Matsubara & Lehtinen, 2007). A new curriculum was designed and the students were reported to find the new curriculum quite different from

their high school reading which triggered their feeling more responsible for their own learning, as they declared.

Mason (2006) also conducted a study on extensive reading and autonomy in Japanese context. The participants volunteered to continue reading on their own after the class, and they were reported to become more autonomous language acquirers at the end of the study.

Focusing on the materials used in EFL classes, in 2011, Reinders and Balçıkanlı carried out a research on course books in order to reveal how supportive they are in terms of developing autonomy. They claimed that the chosen course books, which were among the most popular ones used in language classes, did not provide much opportunity for students to develop autonomy.

The studies mentioned above focused on autonomy in learning context by handling different dimensions of it. With this study, autonomy in EFL reading, in particular the relationship between reading strategy use and autonomy in EFL reading, was aimed to be investigated in a different context.

Statement of the Problem

Autonomy has mostly been investigated in the context of language learning as a whole (Balçıkanlı, 2010; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Chan, 2001; Gündoğdu, 1997; Lee, 1998; Oh, 2002; Özdere, 2005). As there are few studies focusing on autonomy in a specific language skill, this study is expected to make a contribution in terms of investigating autonomy by focusing on a specific language subskill.

The main interest of this study is to find out any relations between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. It aims to reveal whether autonomous learners employ reading strategies, or whether learners deploying reading strategies are more autonomous in EFL reading. The study will also strive to find out whether reading strategy instruction promotes learners' utilizing level of reading strategies as well as revealing whether it

promotes autonomy in EFL reading or not. It also aims to investigate which reading strategies are preferred and employed more by the learners.

Rationale for the Study

Considering the current literature in the area, it is clear that studying the relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading is rather a new idea which has a short history. Although it has lately become popular among L2 researchers, the relevant studies conducted on autonomy in a specific skill have been limited. As expressed in the background section, most of the studies on autonomy focus on the attitudes of learners and the teachers towards it. Some studies also investigate the relation of learning strategies and autonomy as a whole, but specifically reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading have not been the topic of many studies. In addition, there are few studies implemented on this topic in Turkish context except for some master thesis conducted in recent years. The absence of research in Turkey performed on this relationship has become motivating to conduct this study; additionally, it is necessary that more scientific studies be carried out in this context to fill this gap.

Research Questions

Regarding the aforementioned research gap on the relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading, this study set out to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. Which reading strategies are mainly employed by the participants before and after the strategy instruction?
2. Is there any significant difference in participants' employing reading strategies before and after the strategy instruction?

3. Is there any relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading?
4. Is there any significant difference in participants' being autonomous in EFL reading before and after the strategy instruction?
5. Is there any significant difference between male and female participants in using reading strategies?
6. Do male and female participants display any significant difference in relation to reading autonomy in foreign language learning?

Significance of the Study

Helping learners be independent is claimed to be the ultimate product of education and the independence and autonomy have been regarded as the final goal that educators try to reach (McDevitt, 1997). Utilizing relevant reading strategies are reported to foster L2 reading fluency and comprehension (Alderson, 1984; Bernhardt, 2005; Hudson, 2007). To develop autonomy in EFL reading, making the learners aware of the reading strategies and helping them implement these strategies are among the main steps (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Louis, 2006). Moving from this point, this study is designed in a way to focus on reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading together, using the strategy instruction as a means. The significance of this study can be handled in two aspects. Initially, it aspires to provide a deeper insight about the relation of reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading and aims to contribute to the teachings of the researcher. This study will, therefore, serve as an action research at that point. The researcher will also inform her colleagues to take the findings of this study into consideration while structuring their reading classes.

Secondly, as this study is a quantitative study with generalizable results, the findings are expected to provide valuable information for L2 teachers, teacher trainers, and material and curriculum developers in the Turkish educational context. The results can be interpreted to

other language skills as well as reading, and various subskills can be studied in terms of autonomy.

Purpose of the Study

This current study mainly strives to find out any relation between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading and it aims to find out whether reading strategy instruction fosters autonomy in EFL reading. It aspires to highlight EFL learners' use of reading strategies and their being autonomous in EFL reading as the first step. Following it, the relation between them; the role of reading strategies in fostering autonomy in EFL reading is aimed to be investigated. By providing generalizable results, findings of this study are expected to lead teachers to re-organize their reading classes to have more autonomous learners, to create some practical implications for schools and universities where EFL reading instruction is conducted.

Limitations and Assumptions

The major limitation of this study is the number of items in the survey. As the study consists of two different dimensions, it has two different scales with a large number of items. However, it was not possible to eliminate the items as it would result in leaving the necessary aspects out. Not to deviate from the aim of the study and not to narrow down the scope, it was not preferred by the researcher. To overcome that limitation, the participants were given enough time to answer the surveys.

Another limitation is the reliability of questionnaire responses. Although the learners were asked to give their real opinions, it is difficult to know whether they actually did it or not. It was not easy to find out if the learners were really using the mentioned strategies or showing autonomous behaviours, or they just knew but were not implementing them. The researcher assumed that the learners gave their real opinions; they actually utilized those strategies and had those behaviours, if they answered so.

Additionally, this study was conducted only with Applied English and Translation /Interpretation intensive English class students in Giresun and Karabük Universities. Therefore, it did not include every type of EFL learner profile. The results of the present study are valid for non-native learners of English. In addition, like it is in most of the ELT departments in Turkey, the participant group is female dominant, so the results mostly reflected the perceptions of female participants.

Definitions

In this current study, various terms are employed to find out any relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. So as to provide a smooth understanding of the issue, the definitions of some key terms are provided below:

Foreign Language: It is the language which is studied in an environment where it is not the primary means for daily interaction or communication and the exposure to that language is very limited (i.e. English in Turkey, Iraq...etc). “It is simply the language of another country” (Cook, 2003, p. 7).

Reading: It is defined as the receptive process of written communication (Goodman, 1995). Besides being a set of mechanical skills to decode written materials, it is also a complex process of making meaning from a text for a variety of purposes and in a wide range of contexts (Allan & Bruton, 1998).

Reading Strategies: According to Cohen (1990), reading strategies are “those mental processes that readers consciously choose to use in accomplishing reading tasks” (p. 83).

Autonomy in learning: Holec (1981) defines autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (p. 3). Little (1991) explains it as the learners’ undertaking the responsibility for their own learning.

Autonomy in reading: Autonomy in reading refers to the readers controlling the way they read, such as setting their own reading pace or deciding what comprehension tasks to complete (Benson, 2001).

Conclusion

This chapter included some introductory information regarding the current study. It consisted of the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the rationale, significance and purpose of the study, limitations and assumptions. The research questions to be answered were also presented in this part. The chapter was concluded with the basic definitions included in the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature about reading, autonomy and reading strategies. Reading will be handled with its subskills and types, mentioning its references both in L1 and L2. Autonomy, which is first covered as a general term in language learning, will then be presented as autonomy in EFL reading. Reading strategies, followed by several strategy instruction alternatives, will also be discussed in detail in this chapter.

Reading as a Language Skill

Foreign language learning necessitates four basic skills- listening, speaking, reading, writing- which are categorized in two main groups: receptive skills- listening and reading- and productive skills- speaking and writing. Among the skills mentioned, reading has great importance in foreign language learning as “most of the students in many different countries may not have the chance to communicate with the speakers of that language, but they may find opportunities to read literature, newspapers, or any kind of texts” (Rivers, 1981, p. 260). It is an interactive process in which writers share their inner world and imagination with reader. Sarıgöz (1986) states that reading is a complex skill and “it connects the writer’s mind to the reader’s mind by means of a written material” (p. 11). It is an active process of constructing meaning from written texts. Alderson (2000) also

defines reading as a “process of interaction between a reader and the text” (p. 3). Moving from the same point, Nunan (1999) adds another dimension by stating that reading is an interactive process that involves the exploitation of linguistic knowledge (sound, symbol correspondences, grammatical knowledge) and real-world (content) knowledge.

Wixson, Peters, Weber and Roeber, (1987) also define reading as the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among readers' existing knowledge, the information suggested by the text and the context of the reading situation. Besides the meaning-based definitions, there are also definitions focusing on the mechanic dimension of reading which is simply defined as the translation of printed symbols into oral language. However, thinking reading without the grasping of the meaning and cognitive processes during the translation of the printed symbols into oral language will be a deficient one. To have a complete definition, besides learning to decode the printed symbols, researchers (Nuttall, 1982; Gillet, Temple, Crawford & Temple, 2011; Celce- Murcia, 2001) prefer adding comprehending the meaning, blending it with the reader's prior knowledge, experiences, attitude and culture

Skills of Reading

Language is defined as “a series of patterned, arbitrary symbols, which individuals in a given culture use to communicate with one another to achieve cooperation as members of a social community” (Dostert, 1955, p. 128). Although these patterns are only oral in some cultures, in many others there are visual symbols of these patterns which necessitate the reading skills in general. Being a basic skill of language, reading itself also has subskills. Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas, (1978) categorize these skills into two main groups: mechanic reading skills; the ability to recognize stylised shapes, patterns and differences, and the ability to correlate the patterns on the reading material with the linguistic elements of language (phonemic awareness, phonological awareness, word identification/ word recognition/ decoding) and meaningful reading skills; the ability to

correlate the patterns and sounds with the meanings they stand for (comprehension). Allan and Bruton (1998) also state that reading is not only the process of using mechanic skills but also the process of deriving meaning from texts with certain purposes.

Phonemic awareness, phonological awareness, word recognition/ word identification/ decoding

The mechanic skills, ranging from phonemic awareness to word recognition, include the process of translating print into speech by matching the letters to the sounds (phonemes) and recognizing the patterns that make syllables and words (Mann, 1991; Share, Jorm, MacLean & Matthews, 1984). They are rather in a lower level and accepted as the mechanic part of the reading.

The smallest units of spoken language are called phonemes, and phonemic awareness refers to the ability to recognize and identify individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken words. When brought together, phonemes construct syllables and words. Phonemic awareness is the initial step for word recognition skills. Phonological awareness, on the other hand, is a broader skill that takes the reading one step forward, which includes identifying and manipulating words and syllables (Olson, Wise, Conners, & Rack, 1990).

The next level of mechanic reading skills is called word recognition, word identification or decoding, which is defined as the process of translating print into speech by matching letters to their sounds in word level. Word recognition enables the building of a correlation among the letters which results in patterns such as phonemes, words, phrases and sentences (Broughton et al. 1978). Harris and Hodges (1995) define it as “the process of determining the pronunciation and some degree of meaning of an unknown word” (p. 282-283). There is an area in the brain doing this automatically, and Celce – Murcia (2001) describes this process as “a virtually unconscious ability, ideally requiring little mental processing to recognize text” (p. 188).

Frith (1985, p302) claims that people, in particular children, as this stage is still a low stage of reading, go through some stages until they obtain word recognition skills. These stages are listed as:

- logographic reading, in which people try not to read the letters but to find some identifiable features that enable remembering the words,
- transitional alphabetic reading, in which the words are started to be read through their letters,
- alphabetic reading, in which the words are read but still focusing on every letter,
- and orthographic reading, in which the words are read as a whole.

Decoding, word identification or word recognition skills enable the pronunciation of the word and more or less its meaning, but not genuinely, and the need for attaching the meaning to the word brings the next skill of reading, which is comprehension.

Reading Comprehension

How we comprehend a text has been the subject of many researches up to now (e.g. Anderson & Pearson 1984; Ausubel 1963; Bartlett 1932; Piaget 1926; Reed 1993; Rosenblatt, 1978; Rumelhart & Ortony 1977; Thorndyke 1984), and the researchers have focused on the readers' active role in constructing meaning. Piaget (1926) stressed understanding new information in the light of old information, and he put forward his Schema Theory in 1952, claiming that people have mental frameworks that organize their world knowledge (Hirsch, 1987, cited in Gillet, Temple, Crawford & Temple, 2011). According to Nunan (1999), past experiences lead to the creation of those mental frameworks, and thus, they help us make sense of new experiences. Smith (2004) defines those schemas as computer chips in our brains that hold all we know about a subject. Upon learning something new, the capacity of the chip enhances and the depth of schema or the amount of information on the chip depends on the previous experiences of learners.

According to Reznitskaya and Anderson (2002) readers also construct mental representations of what they read. "These mental representations are stored in memory and contain semantic interpretations that were made by the reader during reading" (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978, cited in Reznitskaya & Anderson, 2002, p. 331) and with these memory representations readers obtain the chance to exploit the information they stored previously (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995, cited in Reznitskaya & Anderson, 2002). Thus, a reader approaches a text with a huge amount of prior knowledge and experience. All these knowledge and experiences are organized in schemas and each schema in the brain is connected to many other schemas organized according to their categories. As readers read, they match that new information with background knowledge and either place it inside an existing schema or create a new one. In the same direction, Hirsch (1987) claims that schemas are incomplete and have some slots in them. When readers take new information from a text, they fit that new information into the slots in their schemas, and by blending them with the previously created schemas, they create new meanings. When they are reading a text, their previously formed schemas facilitate their comprehension as they provide context and prior knowledge about the topic (Hirsch, 1987, cited in Gillet et al., 2011). Anderson states that a reader comprehends a message when he manages to match that message with a previously formed schema which comes up with an explanation of that message. "Comprehension is activating or constructing a schema that provides a coherent explanation of objects and events mentioned in a discourse" (Anderson, 1994, p. 469-473).

Apart from the schema theory, many definitions of reading comprehension are created by various scholars (Block & Pressley, 2002; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Gillet et al., 2011; Jiménez, 2000; Nuttall, 1996; Wixson et al., 1987). The common point of these definitions is that reading is described as learners' ability to derive or interpret the meaning of a written text, which refers to the comprehension. It is defined as the highest level of the reading skills connecting the built patterns (phonemes, words, phrases and sentences) with the meaning. According to Gillet et al. (2011) comprehension is to understand the new

information in the light of previously gained knowledge. Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik (2008) define it as an essential component of academic areas, professional success, and life-long learning. In foreign language learning, it becomes a significant concern of the reader. Nuttall (1996) states that, reading involves not only looking at sentences and words by going through them, but it also involves recognizing and understanding them intellectually. Spangler and Mazzante (2015) define reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. They focus on three elements which are important in reading comprehension, the reader, who is doing the comprehending, the text, which is to be comprehended, and the activity in which comprehension is studied. In his construction-integration model, Kintsch (1998) asserts that reading involves the surface, text-base, and situation model levels of comprehension. The surface level is the decoding process of the text. The text-base level refers to understanding the message conveyed explicitly by the text, while the situation model refers to an understanding beyond the explicit message, combining text-base comprehension with prior knowledge of the reader. The situational model level also includes inferring and reading between lines.

Several researchers refer to different variables that influence reading comprehension. Gillet (2004) stresses that comprehension occurs in different levels changing from person to person. The message that the writer tries to send may be received differently by each reader, and this is mainly due to the prior knowledge of readers. She claims that reading comprehension involves prior knowledge of the reader, knowledge of text structure and an active search for information. Gillet et al. (2011) and Block and Pressley (2002), likewise, base the comprehension on reading awareness, decoding the text well, sufficient vocabulary knowledge and relating prior knowledge with what they read. In their direct and inferential mediation (DIME) model, Cromley and Azevedo (2007) also stress the relationship among background knowledge, vocabulary, word reading and inference. Hirsch (2003), on the other hand, focuses on four main principles which are effective on reading

comprehension; fluency, awareness, breadth of vocabulary and domain knowledge. The common points of these various statements can be handled under four titles; metacognitive awareness, vocabulary knowledge, prior knowledge and reading fluency.

Metacognitive Awareness

Metacognition as a term first took place in Flavell's study in 1976. It was later defined as "any knowledge or cognition that takes as its object, or that regulates any aspect of any cognitive endeavour" (Flavell, 1976, p. 223). It refers to knowledge about learning, the learner himself, and the cognitive processes during learning, as well as the ability to control learning by monitoring and adjusting. Baker and Brown (1984) define metacognitive awareness as the learners' knowledge about themselves, about the tasks to be fulfilled and about the strategies to be applied.

Learners' knowledge about themselves refers to the knowledge about their own capacity and ability to fulfil a task. The knowledge about the tasks has implications for awareness on the task and its difficulty level. Knowledge about the strategies refers to being conscious about the necessary strategies to be applied when difficulties faced. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, Russo(1985) express that learners with higher proficiency levels use more metacognition to control their learning than the ones with lower levels.

Anderson (2002) states that preparing and planning for learning; selecting and using appropriate strategies; monitoring, orchestrating and evaluating the strategy use are the domains which compose metacognition.

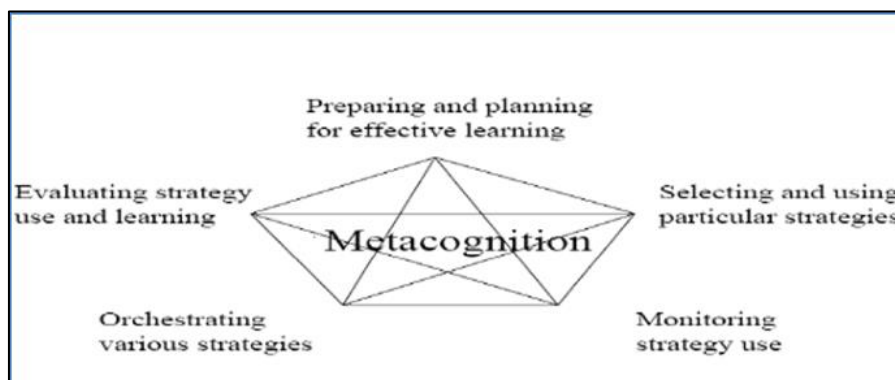


Figure 1. Anderson's model of metacognition. Anderson, N. J. (2002). The role of metacognition in second language teaching and learning. *ERIC Digest*, 4, 2-7.

In the reading context, metacognition is regarded as one of the most important elements to influence reading comprehension. Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) state that it is not probable for a person to understand a text accidentally. "If the person is not aware of the text, not attending to it, not choosing to make meaning from it, or not giving cognitive effort to knowledge construction, little comprehension occurs" (cited in Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002, p. 199).

Good readers are reported to be aware of what they are reading and the reasons why they read it (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995, cited in Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). In addition, they possess plans and strategies to be implemented, when necessary, which is regarded as the metacognitive awareness as a whole. Investigating the relation between metacognitive ability and effective reading, Baker and Brown (1984) found out the two dimensions of metacognition, which are the knowledge of cognition and its regulation, which includes the readers' knowledge about their own cognitive resources (cited in Li, 2010). Using the same line of thinking, Carrell (1989) points out that when the readers become aware of their capacities, they act more confidently to overcome any difficulties occurred.

Vocabulary Knowledge

Comprehension is in a strong relation with vocabulary knowledge. Decoding words rapidly and accurately enables and facilitates comprehension (Breznitz, 1997, 1997b; Gough & Tunmer, 1986; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Tan & Nicholson, 1977, cited in Block & Pressley, 2002). When word recognition becomes difficult for the reader, each word creates a challenge, and more effort is spent to recognize words rather than comprehend the meaning. Block and Pressley (2002) claim that people who are still learning to decode will possibly neglect the comprehension dimension, and meaningful reading experiences are likely to be missed.

Like the possession of decoding and word recognition skills, the breadth of vocabulary also increases comprehension as it makes the text easier and more familiar. According to Nuttall (1987), adequate knowledge of vocabulary is essential for reading skills. Some new words can be tolerated inside the text and overlooked, while some others may block the comprehension and cannot be skipped. Being exposed to new words promotes the word knowledge, and according to Hirsch (1987), building up vocabulary is possible when the learner immerses in the world of language and knowledge slowly and gradually. Nagy and Scott (2000) assert that learners gradually learn the word, its denotations, connotations and the way it is used with the help of language experiences. To obtain the opportunity to have these experiences, reading provides a great atmosphere full of contexts. Nuttall (1987) asserts that a moderate EFL reader can recognise around 3500 words and the main way to improve vocabulary is reading. Nagy and Scott (2000) claim that adequate reading comprehension requires the knowledge of the words between 90 and 95 percent in a text. Mastering that percentage of vocabulary enables the reader to understand the frame of the text with even many details. Upon understanding the meaning of the text, the rest of the words that are not known can be predicted using the context.

Prior Knowledge

Besides necessitating a significant level of vocabulary knowledge, as reading is a way of building interaction between the text and the reader, during this interaction, it also necessitates reader to have some grade of information about the topic (Anderson and Pearson, 1984; Durkin, 1993, cited in Block and Pressley 2002). While reading, the readers apply to their previous knowledge about the topic, which is called prior or domain knowledge, to make the new material meaningful for them and to make the effective use of vocabulary. Prior knowledge about the topic facilitates and accelerates the basic comprehension and enables the brain to look over the already stored information about the topic, which makes it easier to make connections between the new material and previously learned information (Block and Pressley, 2002). Hirsch (2003) states that prior knowledge increases fluency, broadens vocabulary and enables deeper comprehension. When faced with unknown words or words with multiple meanings, the readers need to make inferences and guesses about the meaning of the words. Being aware of the context and activating the prior knowledge on the topic enable readers to make sense of word or to choose the correct meaning among the possible ones. Likewise, literary devices such as metaphor or irony also require background knowledge to be understood. When the explicit meaning is not stated or words are not used with their literal meanings, the readers consult their background knowledge to comprehend the hidden meaning. Activating the relevant domain knowledge enables readers to grasp the meaning of the words not stated explicitly in the texts.

Reading Fluency

Reading fluency can be defined as the ability of readers to read a text quickly and efficiently with little effort and with meaningful expression (Rasinski, 2003). Decoding words accurately or recognizing words faultlessly may not always mean reading a text quickly and efficiently, and when a text is read without fluency, the reader tends to spend

more time effort on grasping the overall meaning which makes fluency directly related to the reading comprehension (Rasinski, 2003, p. 26). Timothy (2002) defines reading fluency as “the ability to read easily, smoothly, and expressively” (p. 83). He states that as fluency enables learners to read and write with more understanding, a fluent reader reads and understands what he or she is reading quickly and with little effort. The main reason why researchers place emphasis on fluency is that it encourages learners to continue reading. According to Celcea- Murcia (2001), readers refrain from reading when they move slowly on the text as they find it boring and tiring. Besides doing lots of easy reading, modelling, choral reading, silent sustained reading, guided reading and vocabulary development are among the ways to develop reading fluency. Recht and Leslie (1988) state that a person who reads fluently can automatically decode and recognize words and can deal with some other processes of reading; therefore, they can focus more on comprehension. Accordingly, word knowledge and decoding level of the reader, together with his prior or domain knowledge, have great influence of reading fluency. If the reader cannot decode the text quickly, it will take longer time to understand the meaning and the beginning part of the text is likely to be forgotten. This is why fast and accurate decoding is important. In addition, being familiar to the words faced in a text or having domain knowledge about the topic facilitates reading and enhances fluency. Domain knowledge “allows the reader to make rapid connections between new and previously learned content; and this eases fluency and deepens comprehension” (Ericsson and Charness, 1994, p. 725).

Celcea- Murcia (2001, p. 154) focuses on “forming a mental notion” while reading and claims that fluent readers use their knowledge of structure of the language to form it. She states that they make predictions and form hypothesis while they are reading a new text, and all these predictions derive from their previous knowledge on the topic. During the reading, the readers try to understand if they are right about their predictions or not. She believes fluent readers read quickly to comprehend, decode words automatically, associate

words with their own knowledge, use strategies to monitor and evaluate comprehension and read critically to recognize and repair miscomprehension.

| | | |
|-----------|---------|--|
| Fluent | Level 4 | Reads primarily in larger, meaningful phrase groups. Although some regressions, repetitions, and deviations from text may be present, these do not appear to detract from the overall structure of the story. Preservation of the author's syntax is consistent. Some or most of the story is read with expressive interpretation. |
| | Level 3 | Reads primarily in three- or four-word phrase groups. Some small groupings may be present. However, the majority of phrasing seems appropriate and preserves the syntax of the author. Little or no expressive interpretation is present. |
| Nonfluent | Level 2 | Reads primarily in two-word phrases with some three- or four-word groupings. Some word-by-word reading may be present. Word groupings may seem awkward and unrelated to larger context of sentence or passage. |
| | Level 1 | Reads primarily word-by-word. Occasional two-word or three-word phrases may occur—but these are infrequent and/or they do not preserve meaningful syntax. |

Figure 2. National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) oral reading fluency scale. U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). (2002). *Oral Reading Study*. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/pdf/main>

The Importance of Reading in Foreign Language Learning

Given that communication is the main target in language learning, listening and speaking are generally taken into the centre. However, as the written texts provide the reader with the opportunity to spend more time to think, to carry anywhere when needed, and to face new vocabulary and grammatical items, reading gains more importance. Spangler and Mazzante (2015) outline a great number of studies on L2 reading (Elley, 1989; Elly, 1991; Hafiz & Tudor, 1990; Nation, 1997; Tsang, 1996) and state that they provide evidence for reading being beneficial to speaking, reading comprehension, vocabulary use and knowledge, and writing in the target language. They emphasize the importance of reading by stating that “reading helps to enhance students’ L2 vocabulary, makes them engage higher levels of cognitive thinking and increases available language input for the students” (Spangler & Mazzante, 1998). Moreover providing authentic reading materials such as

newspapers, magazines, fictions, timetables or instruction leaflets facilitates the language learning process.

Contrary to listening or speaking skills, reading is a skill that can be improved alone. According to Rivers (1981) once reading is developed, it will be very easy to take it to higher levels by learners themselves without any more help. Ríos and Valcárcel (2005) state that reading is an individual process which develops self-study habits. In addition, they claim that reading is a good resource to have learners become conscious of their own learning processes.

The fact that reading presents the language in a meaningful and contextualized way makes it a corner stone in second language teaching and learning. Krashen and McQuillan (2007) highlight the importance of reading in L2 by stating that “the students who do L2 reading can read better, write better, spell better, have better grammatical competence, and have larger vocabulary in the target language” (p. 68). Richards and Renandya (2002) also put a special emphasis on reading in foreign language teaching. They view reading as the most important goal of many foreign language learners, and they state that written texts provide considerable opportunities which serve to various pedagogical aims.

Types of Reading

Intensive Reading

Bamford and Day (1998) define intensive reading as the careful reading of shorter, more difficult texts with the aim of deep and thorough understanding. They state that intensive reading is applied “in order to introduce and practice reading skill such as distinguishing the main idea of a text from the detail, finding pronoun referents, or guessing the meaning of unknown words” (Bamford & Day, 1998, p. 92). As Brown (1989) stresses, the focus in intensive reading is on grammatical forms, discourse markers and other structure details, and it is generally classroom based. The readers read the texts slowly, carefully, and

repeatedly, and Yamashita (2004) claims that it is the type of reading of a relatively small amount of materials and often with translation exercises, particularly in a foreign language context. Word knowledge and grammatical dominance gain importance and the main aim generally shifts from the simply practicing the skill of reading to build more language knowledge. Long and Richards (1987) state that "it is a detailed in-class analysis, led by the teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points, in a short passage"(p. 82). However, generally the texts to be read are chosen by teachers, according to their components or the topics that teachers want to cover in the course. As a result, the text may not appeal to readers' interests. In addition, it is usually followed by exercises and assessments resulting in learners' perception of associating reading with testing instead of pleasure.

Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is generally associated with reading in quantity in order to gain a general understanding of what is read by various scholars (Brown, 1989; Long & Richards, 1971; Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In extensive reading programs, learners read relatively simpler materials than in intensive reading programs, and they are not usually required to comprehend structures and grammatical details, instead, they are expected to get the gist. Bamford and Day (1997) emphasize that readers are more concerned with the meaning of the text than the words or sentences, with the aim of getting an overall understanding of the material. It is regarded as "reading for reading's sake" (Day & Bamford, 2002, p. 138) and readers enjoy the text while building reader confidence unconsciously. Richards and Schmidt (2002) suggest that with extensive reading, developing good reading habits and encouraging learners to be good readers are set on the centre. Nuttall (1982) regards extensive reading an effective opportunity to practice a foreign language and suggests that "the best way to improve the knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among speakers. The next best way is to read extensively" (p. 168).

In their study (2002), Day and Bamford suggest principles which define the character of extensive reading. According to those principles, in an extensive reading approach, learners read various materials on various topics as much as possible. Reading more than one text on the same topic allows learners to bring more background knowledge to each new text read. Readers also decide what to read, and they may set their own goals for their next session.

Materials are generally in accordance with the linguistic level of readers. Although grammar and vocabulary acquisition is not aimed and it is mainly done for the comprehension of main ideas, the readers get the chance to acquire incidental grammatical competence, to expand vocabulary and to build background knowledge implicitly. Consequently, in the long term, it improves overall language competence of the readers.

Reading process is mostly out of the classroom and individual. Celce- Murcia (2001) states that “teachers sometimes do not feel that they are teaching when students are reading silently in class, they think that extensive reading is something that should only be done at home” (p. 198). However, teacher is mostly the role model and the organizer.

Generally silent reading is applied in extensive reading, and as it builds automatic recognition of words, reading is quicker than intensive reading. It also provides readers authentic materials and real life situations which are the key elements of foreign language learning and target culture as well.

Moreover, extensive reading and learner autonomy have a reciprocal relationship, facilitating each other (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006). Upon selecting what to read and deciding their own goals, readers feel more autonomous over their own learning and more likely to take more initiative. They are likely to become more independent readers and more aware of what is available to them to read and how to access those materials.

Oral Reading

Oral reading dates back to the times when only few people in society knew how to read. For centuries it has been used as a reading technique both in families and in classes. The teacher or one of the students used to read the text orally and other students followed. Its popularity continued until the end of the nineteenth century, when it was begun to be criticized for focusing on only pronunciation and stress (Hyatt, 1943; Hoffman & Segel, 1983; Mann, 1891; Parker, 1884).

Although it has lost its primary role to silent reading, in reading classes, at present, oral reading is still applied frequently (Rasinski, 2003). The reasons behind its application are various. Rosenblatt (1978) states that oral reading adds emotions to the reading process and it influences listeners or followers as well as creating interest. Martines, Roser and Strecker (1999) emphasize that there is a direct relationship between oral reading, building student motivation and self-confidence. Practicing oral reading and showing effective performances encourage learners to read more. As well as fostering motivation, oral reading is also an appropriate way to assess student fluency. Moreover, LaBerge and Samuels (1974) suggest that it boosts comprehension. Various techniques are implemented to improve oral reading, including teacher's modelling for meaningful and fluent reading (Freeman & McLaughlin, 1984), listening, previewing (Daly & Martens, 1994), peer previewing (Salend & Nowak, 1988), and peer tutoring (Greenwood, Delquadri, & Hall, 1989).

According to Cohen's study in 1968, learners doing oral reading regularly achieve better vocabulary and comprehension skills than the others who were not. Another benefit of oral reading is that it allows viewing the reading process including word decoding and intonation (Rasinski, 2003, p. 35). While learners are reading orally, teacher gets the chance to look over where they are doing decoding mistakes, if they are aware of the beginning and the ending of the sentences or how they place the intonation. Although oral reading is found useful and effective by some scholars, many others criticise it for being

insufficient. Hyatt (1943) claims that only little percent of the learners in a class can understand what the words they read mean while they are reading orally. Huey (1908) also shares the same point stating that oral reading is not authentic reading seen in everyday life, it can only be found in classroom environment.

Silent Reading, Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) or Free Voluntary Reading

With the increasing level of literacy, more people started to become literate, and this resulted in the decline of oral reading needed by crowds. People started to read by themselves, and as Busswell and Wheeler (1923) claim, it increased the quantity of reading as people tend to read more rapidly in silent reading. Hoffman and Segel (1983) also emphasize the same point expressing that oral reading limits the number of the text read. Moreover, criticising oral reading for focusing mainly on pronunciation rather than comprehension, many scholars emphasize the importance of silent reading for comprehension (e.g. Hyatt, 1943; Hoffman and Segel, 1983; Mann, 1891; Parker, 1884). It is said to focus more on grasping the meaning while oral reading take the accurate recitation to the centre (Rasinski, 2003).

Krashen (2006) lays emphasis on the adequacy of the effectiveness of SSR in helping readers achieve success when compared to traditional teaching methods. Freeland, Skinner, Jackson, McDaniel and Smith (2000) state that when people read for comprehension, they prefer reading silently to reading aloud. Silent reading is also stated to be authentic reading. With the rise of authenticity in learning environment, oral reading started to lose its popularity to silent reading, which is regarded as real reading done in everyday life (Huey, 1908), and training in silent reading is said to be an effective way to prepare the readers to real life (Rasinski, 2003).

Krashen(2006) uses the term ‘free voluntary reading’ for what is accepted as sustained silent reading at schools. Emphasizing that it is reading silently for pleasure, he relates this

to extensive reading and stresses that it improves vocabulary, spelling, the ability to understand higher level of phrases and writing.

Reading Strategies

Strategies, in a broader sense, are techniques, behaviours, steps, plans or routines which facilitate the learning and making it more effective (Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). In the context of reading, reading strategies are defined as "the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text and make sense of what they read" (Barnett, 1988, p. 1). Cohen (1990) also defines them as mental processes that readers consciously employ in reading. Carrell (1989) explains reading strategies as deliberate, conscious plans, techniques and skills, aiming to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures. Block (1986) focuses on the point that reading strategies refer to the techniques readers apply when they aim to make sense of what they read and when they do not understand texts. Garner (1987) states that they are a series of actions which are employed by a reader to construct meaning in the reading process. She defines reading strategies as "generally deliberate, planful activities undertaken by active learners, many times to remedy perceived cognitive failure" (p. 50) and states that they are teachable activities which facilitate reading comprehension. In the same line with Garner; Paris et al.,(1994) also assert that reading strategies are teachable and when internalized in a higher level, they turn into the inner skills of the readers.

Applying necessary strategies when needed are among the qualifications of skilled readers. Lau and Chan (2003) mention that skilled readers employ effective strategies to facilitate the comprehension and meaningful understanding, contrary to poor readers who are approaching a text without any strategies. Researchers suggest that readers should apply reading strategies both in L1 and L2 reading. Baker and Brown (1984) and Palinscar and Brown (1984), in their studies, emphasize the importance of reading strategies in terms of being effective in improving learners ' reading comprehension in L1. In Hosenfeld's study

in 1977, reading strategies in L1 turned out to be associated with L2 reading comprehension. Likewise, Alderson (1984), Bernhardt (2005), and Hudson (2007) claim that employing strategies facilitate the reading of academic texts in L2 fluently and with good comprehension. Block (1986) also reveals in his study that strategies applied in L1 reading can be transferred into L2, he states that non-native readers bring their L1 reading approaches and strategies with them and apply them to L2 reading. In the same direction with Block (1986), Anderson (1999), Grabe and Stoller (2002), Hudson (1998), Sheorey (2001) and Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) claim that readers use similar kinds of reading strategies in L1 and L2 reading.

A remarkable number of studies have been conducted on reading strategies, and researchers tend to categorize them differently, based on various criteria. Although there are various categorizations, strategies in them generally overlap.

Gillet et al. (2011) categorize reading strategies as meta-comprehension and think aloud strategies. Under the title of meta-comprehension strategies, they handle; predicting and verifying, previewing, purpose setting, self-questioning, drawing from background knowledge and applying fix up strategies. Think aloud strategies, on the other hand, are paraphrasing or summarizing, making new meaning, questioning that indicates understanding, noting understanding or lack of understanding, reporting prior knowledge, identifying personally, questioning indicating lack of understanding and noting lack of understanding.

Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) categorize the reading strategies as global reading, problem-solving and support reading strategies. Global Reading Strategies include thirteen items which are having a purpose, thinking about previous knowledge, previewing, skimming, deciding what to read and what to ignore, using tables- figures, using pictures, using context clues, critically analysing and evaluating information, checking understanding, noting text characteristics, guessing the topic and checking the guesses. Problem-solving strategies refer to eight strategies for solving problems when a test becomes difficult to

read such as reading aloud, adjusting reading speed, stopping to think, visualizing, re-reading, going back when losing concentration, pausing and thinking about reading and guessing the unknown words. Under the title of support reading strategies, they focus on the strategies which sustain reading and list; taking notes, summarizing, discussing with others, underlining, circling, using outside reference materials, using dictionaries, paraphrasing and finding relations among the ideas.

On the other hand, Keene and Zimmermann (1997) emphasize comprehension strategies. They list them as relating to prior knowledge, identifying main ideas, questioning, developing mental imagery, making inferences, summarizing and clarifying (cited in Pressley, 2002).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) study on metacognitive strategies which consist of thinking about learning, planning for learning and monitoring and evaluating.

Spangler and Mazzante (2015); Buehl (1995); Shih (1991); Baker-Gonzalize and Blau (1995); and Smith (2004) suggest categorizing the strategies according to three main stages of reading: pre, while and post reading strategies. According to their categorization, in pre reading stage readers employ strategies that prepare them for reading, such as predicting, establishing purpose or assessing background knowledge. In while reading stage, the readers monitor understanding, relate new information with the previous one, visualise, clarify and comprehend the text content or correct misunderstanding. Lastly, in the post reading process, recalling, summarizing text content, restating main ideas or reviewing critical questions and comprehension of the text are applied.

Neufeld (2005) makes some alterations on that categorization and separates the reading strategies into two main groups: getting ready to read strategies and during and after reading strategies (Levin & Pressley, 1981; Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, 1997; Schuder, 1993). As pre-reading strategies, he lists setting a purpose, previewing the text, activating prior knowledge and making predictions about the text. He suggests attending to

text structure, creating summaries, monitoring and repairing comprehension as the while or post reading strategies. He puts a special emphasis on questioning and handles it as a strategy to be applied in every stage of reading.

In this study, the categorization done by Neufeld(2005) has been taken as the basis. Additionally eight more strategies have been added, considering the common points of the categorizations above and the necessities of autonomy which are described as monitoring and self-assessment of learning, creating learning objectives, selecting methods and techniques to be used (Dickinson, 1987; Chan, 2001; Dam, 1990; Holec, 1995; Nunan, 1996).

Strategies to be used while getting ready to read

Setting a purpose and goals

Setting a purpose for reading enables learners to keep focused on and engaged with texts as well as it reinforces comprehension. Reading with purpose motivates readers, and learners tend to change the time they spend on reading according to their purposes. Nuttall (1987) states that the purpose of the readers determines the way they handle a task and the reading speed, she also stresses that the strategies to be used vary according to the purposes. As the purpose determines the choices the learners make while they are reading, researchers emphasize the importance of creating awareness on that fact. Readers do not read in the same way for pure enjoyment or for learning new information. Focusing on the same point, Block and Pressley (2002) state that attaining a goal while reading a text has a strong effect on recall. In their study, Narvaez, van den Broek and Ruiz (1999) report that when compared with readers who are reading for entertainment, readers with a study goal tend to employ different reading strategies such as re-reading and evaluating the text.

Enabling learners to read with a purpose is claimed to be realized in two main ways; teacher providing purpose options to be selected by learners, or learners creating their own

purposes. Teacher can ask learners to perform a task, such as reading until meeting the main character in the story or learn the exact place of a city. Although it is found somehow inauthentic, in the guided level, it is regarded as quite helpful until learners develop the strategy to create their own purposes before reading. Once reading with a purpose is introduced to learners, it gets easier to teach them how to set their own purpose for reading. Starting a discussion about what the main purpose can be to read a text is an effective option for creating awareness. Following the discussion, learners manage to choose the correct strategies to apply before, during and after reading.

Tovani (2005) emphasizes the importance of teaching learners what to do when there is no clear purpose for a particular reading given. He states that setting their own purpose for a reading text facilitates and strengthens learners' ability to focus and comprehend; hence he suggests that learners should be helped to create their own motivating purpose. He proposes the 'fake purpose' technique, which he explicitly teaches learners to set purposes to read. In his technique, he suggests three options to learners; being a selfish reader, re-reading with a new purpose, and reading to connect. In the first option, he asks learners to read the given text as a selfish reader considering how the text affects them personally and ask 'self-serving' questions to themselves such as; "how they could use that information, how that information is different from their previous knowledge and could it make their life easier in any way" (Tovani, 2005, p. 49). As the second option, he leads learners to reread the text with a new purpose such as creating new questions, paraphrasing or visualizing a specific part of the text. Thirdly, he encourages learners to connect the reading text to their previous knowledge. Applying these three fake purpose options, learners get the chance to practice setting goals before reading and get used to strategic reading.

Spangler and Mazzante (2015) also propose a technique, SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review), to help learners learn setting a purpose before reading. In his technique, learners are encouraged to determine the organization of the text, turn each

heading/subheading into a question, read selectively, answer questions in their own words and review what has been learned.

Activating prior knowledge

Prior knowledge refers to what learners know about a topic. In his schema theory, Piaget (1926) suggests that learners understand by associating new information with their prior knowledge. Smith (2004, p. 11) emphasizes that making additions to existing schemata is easier than creating new ones and reminds the saying “the rich get richer” in his book. It is easier to grasp the new information when learners already have some prior knowledge to insert that new information into a context. Once a student creates a schema about a newly introduced topic, that schema facilitates the learning more about that. Rather than teaching new information without building a basis, teachers should begin with what learners already know and associate them with the new content. In their study Anderson and Pearson (1984) establish a link between prior knowledge and reader’s construction of meaning. In Schema Theory, Anderson (1994) stresses that reading is an active process in which readers build new information on their prior knowledge. To facilitate comprehension in the reading classes, Gillet et al. (2011) claim that learners should first have prior knowledge about the topics they are likely to read, which is enabled by an information-rich curriculum and reading abundantly. The next step should be remembering what is already known about the topic, which is done automatically after some time.

Ogle put forward KWL technique in 1986, which stands for three questions; “what I know, what I want to learn and what I have learned” (p. 569). It is the technique used to link the new content to prior knowledge to facilitate learning. Ogle and Blachowicz (2002, p. 261) state that “this technique results in improved comprehension of text content because readers make connections between their prior knowledge and what they are reading”. In KWL technique, Ogle proposes three procedures to adapt it into the classroom environment. In the ‘know’ step, brainstorming and discussions are employed to activate

the prior knowledge. The teacher tries to shed light on what learners already know about a topic by asking guiding questions. This step manipulates and directs the next steps on which the learners develop uncertainties to be clarified and evaluate their learning, respectively.

To integrate this technique into classroom, a KWL strategy sheet (KWL chart) can be employed in reading classes, to help build connections between the previously learned topics with the new ones.

| K-W-L strategy sheet | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| K- What we know | W- What we want to find out | L- What we learned and still need to learn |
| _____ | _____ | _____ |
| _____ | _____ | _____ |

Figure 3. K-W-L strategy sheet. Ogle, D. M. (1986). KWL: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *The Reading Teacher*, 39(6), 564-570.

In activating the prior knowledge, Smith also suggests applying two questions when reading; “What do you already know about the subject? How can you connect with this information?” (Smith, 2004, p. 12). By answering these questions, learners are expected to become aware of their previous knowledge on the topic and connect it to the new one.

Read the following sentences and activate your schema to answer the questions.

Passage A

Molecular biologists have given investigators the ultimate crime detector, the DNA fingerprint. Because of the variability in genes among individuals, a pattern of markedly different RFLPs can be produced from blotting.

1. What do you already know about the subject?

2. How can you connect with this information?

Figure 4. Sample questions for activating schema. Smith, B. D. (2004). The reader's handbook: Reading strategies for college and everyday life. New York: Addison-Wesley.

Likewise, Spangler and Mazzante (2015) propose another technique called 'Background Knowledge Post-It Notes'. In this technique, learners are given a short overview of the reading text and each learner is asked to write down what they think they know about the topic on post-it notes. They write one thought per post-it note and add their names at the end. Next the learners share their post-it notes, first with a partner and then with the large group. Finally the post-it notes are stuck into the larger charts with more general titles, gathering the same kind of information under a title.

Previewing

Previewing in reading is taking a glance at the text to get an idea of what it is about without reading the text intensively. Chen and Graves (1998) define previewing as the introduction process of learners and the reading text, with the aim of facilitating reading comprehension by providing specific information about the contents of the text. Swaffar, Arensand Byrones, (1991)state that it is possible to draw inferences before reading, by the help of contextual clues such as titles, headings or pictures. Previewing allows the identification of the main idea, noticing how the text is organized, and finding out important information without suffocating in details. It gives the learners the opportunity

of examining the layout of a text and identifying its genre (Swaffar et. al.,1991). By this way, readers will become familiar with different types of texts and they will employ the necessary features of the text to facilitate their comprehension. Chia (2001, p. 22) explains the aim of previewing as enabling the prediction about what the text is about and “thus activate effective top-down processing for reading comprehension”. Sarıgöz (1986) states that while previewing a text, the title, the table of contents, the appendix, chapters, paragraphs or headings are checked and by creating questions, readers try to understand the topic and the important details. It helps readers decide whether the text is relevant to the previously set purpose or not, which parts to read, and which parts to omit, thereby providing the time management in reading.

The elements that construct the text body; such as the title, headings, the author, pictures, tables, graphs or diagrams and their captions provide more or less some clues about the text content and are usually related to the author’s ideas. Emphasizing their importance, Sarıgöz (1986) proposes some questions to be answered by readers, taking a glance at them. He suggests that the readers should try to find out the style of the text to decide the reading type and speed, the familiarity of the topic, the easiness and the technicality of the vocabulary, the author’s purpose and the text’s main idea as well as the important details. Besides checking those elements mentioned above, reading the first and last sentence are also mentioned in previewing as they possibly include the main idea.

Chen and Graves (1998) describe a sample preview to begin with some statements or questions with the aim of drawing learners’ attention and creating some familiarity with the reading text. The statements and questions are followed by a short discussion to elicit learner involvement. Next, title, characters or any illustrations are viewed and learners are instructed shortly about the necessary points of the reading text.

Ajideh (2003) also emphasizes teacher guidance in previewing and suggests that teachers should direct learners to look at the title, first and last sentences of the text, names or numbers in the text or the pictures and graphs if available. She also emphasizes the

importance of activating the learners' prior knowledge, while previewing, by asking questions to reveal the topic of the text.

Skimming

Skimming is looking at a text quickly to determine its gist, to find out if the text is matching to the reading purpose (Nuttall, 1987). Park, Lee and Han, (2006) define skimming as a very fast reading of headings, subheadings, topic sentences and small sections of a text to get the gist of the document. It involves running the eye very quickly over the text, and it is more detailed than previewing (Sarigöz, 1986). It helps to catch the main idea and necessary details without losing time on unnecessary details and enables readers to determine whether or not to continue reading, which parts to read more carefully, and where to start. Skimming can be applied in three different situations; in pre-reading, to determine whether the text meets the readers' needs or not; in reviewing, to remember what a text is about; and in while reading, to skip the unnecessary parts when the text is too long. It is also useful when text is weak in headings or illustrations and does not give clues about its gist at a first glance. It gets ahead of the previewing and enables readers to derive further information. As it gives readers the chance to eliminate the texts that are not relevant to readers' purpose, it also saves time.

While doing skimming in the reading classes, it is better to start with titles, headings, words that are in bold, in italics or underlined and the diagrams or illustrations. Yorkey (1982) also suggests checking the first and last paragraphs or first and last sentence of each paragraph since the main ideas are usually expressed in them. Sarigöz(1986) proposes that the reader should also look for the clue words which may give information about the important details.

Scanning

Scanning is used to find out specific information from a large quantity of a text and can be used in any type of written materials ranging from reviews to dictionaries, from directories to maps. It is defined as

glancing rapidly through a text either to search for a specific piece of information (e.g. a name, a date) or to get an initial impression of whether the text is suitable for a given purpose (e.g. whether a book on gardening deals with cultivation of a particular vegetable) (Nuttall, 2003, p. 34).

When certain key words, proper names, numbers or themes etc. are required to be found out, scanning is applied, and readers look for the key words, words with capital letters or numbers given, rapidly, ignoring the rest of the text for some time. Sarıgöz (1986) points out that scanning requires rejection of all irrelevant data which refers to ignoring everything else apart from the information which is scanned for.

Beale (2007) states that before starting to scan a text, the reader has to set out a purpose, locate the appropriate material, and know how the information is structured. Emphasizing the fact that scanning is directed and purposeful, Sarıgöz (1986) also stresses the importance of keeping the purpose strictly in mind while scanning a text. Thereby, following the linearity of the text is not required.

Although “both skimming and scanning are not reading in the normal sense of the word” (Nuttall, 2003, p. 34), they are not the substitutes for intensive reading and can only be used to work on the reading material quickly.

Making predictions

Making predictions about what will next happen in a text is an important reading strategy. Readers, usually unconsciously, predict what the writer is likely to say next; relying on their sense, prior knowledge and experiences about the topic, the genre and what has happened so far in the text. Both the print text and illustrations give clues for this as well.

This is a continuous process that is done before and during the reading constantly. “As we read, we make hypotheses about what the writer intends to say, these are immediately modified by what he actually say and are replaced by new hypotheses about what will follow” (Nuttall, 2003, p. 12). She points out that readers who think parallel to the writer will do better in understanding and will find it easier to move within the text. Generally this process is done unconsciously, but creating awareness on this strategy helps readers, when faced to more difficult texts, deal with them easily. Making predictions during reading keeps the readers involved in the reading process actively and helps them feel more comfortable within the text.

To help learners make predictions before and while reading, the teacher acts as a moderator and asks key questions to canalize learners to make guesses about what will come next. Below there is an application sample of making prediction strategy proposed by Nuttall (1987).

| | |
|---|---|
| PREDICTING OUR WAY THROUGH A TEXT Use this text as described on p. 12. The text is part of Appendix A Text G. | other animals prey on it Which was it? What will follow now? |
| The Scope of Ecology What is this text likely to be about? | or compete with it for the same food; What does the semi-colon tell you? |
| No living creature, plant or animal, can exist in complete isolation. The writer starts by making a generalization, what do you think he will do next? | plants may provide shelter, Will the next statement refer to plants or something else? |
| An animal is bound to depend on other living creatures. What sort of dependence? What sort of living creators? | concealment or nesting material, Will the next words refer to plants, animals, or both? |
| ultimately plants, Do you want to change your prediction about the sort of dependence meant? | and so on. Which was it? What next? |
| for its food supply: Were you right? What next, do you think? | Similarly, Which of the preceding sections does this relate back to? What will follow? |
| it must also depend upon Upon what? Why? | the animal will produce Produce what sort of thing? |
| the activities of plants Were you right? What else must it depend on plants for? | its own affect What word will come next? How will the sentence continue after that? |
| for a continued oxygen supply why does it need oxygen? | on the surrounding plants What next? |
| for its respiration. What will the writer move on to a new point now? How is he likely to go on? | and animals: What does the colon signal? |
| Apart from these two basic relationships Do you want to change your prediction? | Some it may eat or destroy, What will follow reinforcement or contrast? |
| it may be affected directly What words will probably come next? | for others it will provide food: What will the writer do next? |
| or indirectly in countless different ways Did you expect this? What must come next? (note punctuation) | And through its contribution of manure The word 'through' signals what? (Purpose? Location? Result?) |
| by other plants and animals around it. What is the most likely to follow: a hypothesis, a definition (of what?) an example several examples (of what) | its influence the texture and fertility of the soil. |

Figure 5. A sample of making predictions. Nuttall, C. (1982). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language*. London: Heinemann.

Before reading, teachers can ask learners to predict what the text might be about after taking a glance at the illustration, the title, or the other elements of the text. Pressley (2002) proposes using the answers to questions which were created in the previewing process in order to teach learners how to make predictions. Those questions formed by previewing the text with the help of their prior knowledge can be transformed into hypotheses to be checked during reading (Neufeld, 2005). During the reading, teachers can also ask learners

about the next step of the characters or events. As the learners read, they continuously make predictions, and in the meantime, they confirm or revise their predictions. The teachers may also help the learners evaluate their predictions and compare them to the text as a post reading activity.

Questioning

Questioning refers to learners creating self-initiated questions about the content of the text, before, during and after reading to help them understand the text better. Neufeld (2005) handles it as the basic strategy which takes part not only in pre reading but also in while and post reading processes. He also states that questioning is necessary for all other reading strategies to be developed. According to him, helping learners develop the ability to ask and answer questions before, during, and after reading is an effective step in becoming a strategic reader.

A number of researchers claim that questioning helps learners understand a reading text and respond to it more fully thereby improving reading comprehension (Manzo, 1969, Oakhill, 1993; Robinson, 1946; Rosenshine, Meister & Chapman, 1996). Learners are encouraged to create questions and try to find out their answers before, during and after reading to help them deepen their understanding of a text (Mostow & Chen, 2009). In the implementing process of questioning as a strategy, Mostow and Chen (2009) propose that the teacher should begin by explaining the strategy explicitly. Right after describing it, the teacher models the strategy by building up a question about a sentence read. Modelling is followed by scaffolding in which the teacher tries to prompt the strategy by encouraging learners to develop questions without much help. Afterwards, teacher prompts learners to construct questions by using the options given by the teacher. Giving feedback is quite significant in this step.

| | |
|---|---|
| Tutor: | <i>Let's make a question about ____ (the town mouse; the country mouse; the man of the house; the cat).</i> |
| Student: | [The student chooses <u>the country mouse</u> from the on-screen menu of 4 characters.] |
| Next the tutor invites the student to choose what type of question to make up: | |
| Tutor: | <i>Let's ask a ____ (what; why; how) question.</i> |
| Student: | [The student chooses <i>why</i> .] |
| The tutor praises the choice: | |
| Tutor: | <i>Great! 'Why' questions can help you understand by making you think!</i> |
| The tutor lets the student choose how to complete the question: | |
| Tutor: | <i>Let's complete your question: Why did the country mouse ____ (decide to send the cat; try to taste everything before his tummy was full; run)?</i> |
| Student: | [The student chooses <u>decide to send the cat</u> .] |
| The text may answer a question (1) earlier, (2) never, (3) later, or (4) contradict it, e.g.: | |
| (1) <i>How did the town mouse meet a country mouse?</i> | |
| (2) <i>Why did the man of the house decide to send the cat?</i> | |
| (3) <i>What did the cat forget?</i> | |
| (4) <i>Why did the country mouse decide to send the cat?</i> | |

Figure 6. A sample of modelling questioning Mostow, J., & Chen, W. (2009). Generating instruction automatically for the reading strategy of self-questioning. *AIED*, 19(1), 465-472.

Strategies to be used during or after reading

Monitoring and repairing comprehension

Monitoring comprehension is a process in which readers turn into outsiders to watch their understanding, while they are reading. Good readers are claimed to check their own understanding while reading (e.g. Baker, 1985; Markman, 1977; Myers & Paris, 1978; Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991). They notice when there occurs a problem in their understanding and apply strategies to solve the problem. "For proficient readers, monitoring for meaning is a natural and often subconscious process. Proficient readers listen to their inner voices as they read and make ongoing corrections and adjustments and are aware of how meaning evolves" (Keene and Zimmermann, 2007, p. 49). For the word or sentence level problems, readers apply decoding strategies and/or word analysis strategies, and for text-level problems they use monitoring, evaluating, and making revisions. Keene and Zimmermann (2007) point that good readers use their prior

knowledge and compare it to the new information given, to overcome the problems occurred in comprehension.

Various researchers assert that in order to enhance the understanding teaching learners the importance of monitoring their understanding during reading and helping them develop techniques for doing so are crucial for reading comprehension (Baker, 2002; Neufeld, 2005; Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998; NICHD, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Klingner et. al.(1998) add these ideas a new point, saying that the monitoring strategies should be backed up with repairing or fix-up strategies when comprehension is not achieved. “When successful readers lose comprehension, they stop reading, go back to the start of where meaning was lost, slow down their rate, and reread the passage and check for understanding again” (Tankersley, 2003, p. 92). Explicit instruction, modelling and guided practice are usually suggested by researchers. Stopping at the end of a section, asking the learners to think about whether the information has been understood or not, and if necessary, utilizing various fix-up strategies are among the techniques to be applied in teaching how to monitor and repair understanding.

Neufeld (2005) stresses the importance of questions while teaching how to monitor and fix up comprehension. He suggests asking such questions to elicit general understanding; “Is what I just read clear to me? What parts of the text are still fuzzy or unclear?” (Neufeld, 2005, p. 308). Following the elicitation of general understanding, he proposes some other questions to find out the comprehension level of the learners on details; “Who were the main actors in the event? When did these events take place? What were the actors trying to accomplish through their journey?” (Neufeld, 2005, p. 308).

Another technique proposed by Neufeld (2005) to teach monitoring understanding is summarizing. As it shows clear evidences about the comprehension of learners, it can be applied to detect any breakdown occurred in understanding. Once a breakdown in comprehension is detected, learners should know how to find and utilize the proper fix up strategies, for which Neufeld (2005) suggests the following questions: “What strategy or

strategies can I use to help me better understand this text? Given my purpose for reading this text, how important is it that I understand this portion of the text clearly?” (p. 308). Readers may re-read the text, look ahead in the text, stop and check their prior knowledge on the topic or consult other resources addressing the same topic.

Making connections: Text to self, text to text, text to world

Associating what is read with readers’ own lives, with other texts or with the things or events that occur in the world is regarded as an effective strategy for reading (Morrison & Wlodarczyk, 2009). When readers manage to create a link between new information and their schemata, they are capable of both activating their previous knowledge and making connections, which has three dimensions: text-to-self connection, text-to-text connection and text-to-world connection (Morrison & Wlodarczyk, 2009).

Text-to-self connection refers to making a connection between the text and the reader, relating it to some personal experiences, previous knowledge, or understanding. Text-to-text connection stands for associating the text with other texts read before. Text-to-world connection, on the other hand, is relating what is read to the things or events happening in the world in a broader sense.

Several researchers (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Keene & Zimmerman, 2006; King, 1997; Miller, 2002; Morrison, 2005) claim that making connections to what is read enhances the comprehension. It contributes to the authenticity in the classroom and supports the connection between reading and everyday life. In Morrison’s study (2005), he revealed that the process of understanding the new information happened more rapidly when learners made connections to the material they were tackling with.

To encourage learners to make necessary connections in a reading class, it is crucial to start a discussion about how this helps them understand what they are reading better. King (1997) suggests thought-provoking questions for this. The questions are claimed to drive

learners to build up links between the text and the outside world, as well as learners themselves. While doing this, it is also important for learners to understand how reading contributes to their previous knowledge and, thus, facilitates building up connections.

Morrison (2005) states that the first connection to be taught should be the text-to-self connection. Learners are asked to tell what the text reminds them about their lives and experiences. Miller (2002) suggests that the learners should be informed about what they will do next, to create awareness about the strategy. During or after reading, the teacher models how to make text to self-connection and exemplifies it such as: “This part of the text reminded me of...” (Miller, 2002, p. 55). It is important during modelling to be careful about not being distracted by the personal experiences. Afterwards, the learners are expected to take the turn, share their previous experiences and how their experiences help them understand the text better.

Making text to text connection also starts with informing the learners about what is going to be done next. Teacher models and tells which other texts he/she remembers by reading that one. Selecting two books that employ similar features is suggested as another technique. The texts are read in different times and teacher models saying; “When I read this part of the story, I thought about...”, “This part is just like...”, or “This is similar to...” (Miller, 2002 p. 55). Next the teacher promotes the learners to discuss. Styles of texts, characters, themes, or the authors can be discussed and compared. As well as helping learners understand the text better, when applied in pre-reading stage, this discussion has a positive effect both in activating previous knowledge and predicting what the text can be about.

When making text to world connection, teacher again informs learners about the strategy and models saying what the text reminds him/her of, such as the things or events from the neighbourhood, community, country, or the world. Afterwards, learners apply the strategy either individually or in pairs/groups. What they know about the world facilitates their understanding of the text.

The chart below includes the responses given by the first grade learners after listening to a read-aloud of *Fireflies* by Brinckloe (1985) excerpted from Morrison and Wlodarczyk's research (2009).

| Text-to-self | Text-to-text | Text-to-world |
|--|---|--|
| I catch fireflies in the summer time and put them in jars, but I let them go cause I don't want them to die. | It happened in the evening. | If someone locks you up, you will be sad. |
| It's really fun cause you have to jump high to reach the ones flying over your head. | It happened outside. | You can't lock up wild things. |
| I catch them too, and it's fun seeing who gets the most. | They are about fireflies. | You can't put so many (<i>fireflies</i>) in one jar. |
| I wanted to find out what he would do with them in the end because I always let them go. | Fireflies wanted to be with their family. | Sometimes you can't have something you want. |
| I was scared for them when he went to bed and left them in the jar. I never did that. | All the fireflies are happy in the end. | |

Figure 7. Making connections on Fireflies by Brinckloe (1985).Morrison, V., & Wlodarczyk, L.(2009).Revisiting read-aloud: Instructional strategies that encourage students' engagement with texts. The Reading Teacher, 63(2), 110-118.

Attending to text structure

Text structure is the organization type of a text. It refers to the logic the text provides the information. Neufeld (2005) proposes a question to be asked, to identify the structure of the text: 'How is this text organized?'. It can either be describing something or sequencing an event. The content chosen by the author is presented in a logic which forms the structure of the text. Several researchers assert that helping learners find out that structure of a text facilitates the comprehension (e.g. Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987; Berkowitz, 1986; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Meyer, 1975, 1999; Meyer & Freedle, 1984; Taylor, 1982; Taylor & Beach, 1984). Being able to identify the structure of a text is claimed to affect the comprehension positively. In his study in 1992, Taylor revealed that learners who were able to identify the structure of a text showed better performance in comprehension than those who were not. Neufeld (2005) points out that there are a limited

number of text structure types, including; enumeration, time order, compare and contrast, cause and effect, problem/ solution, and description. To enable learners to utilize attending the text structure strategy, it is necessary to introduce the structures as a first step. Teachers can show examples of paragraphs that correspond to each text structure or model writing a paragraph in a specific structure chosen. Using a graphic organizer to chart the text structure is also a meaningful technique. Below there is a table which both explains the text structure and shows them in charts:


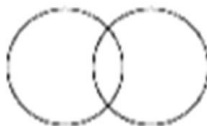
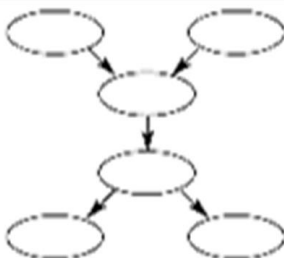
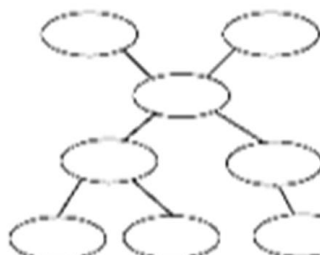
| Five common text structures and examples of associated visual organizers | | |
|--|---|---|
| Text structure | Explanation of structure | Visual representation of structure |
| Enumeration | A listing of items or ideas specified one after the other. |  |
| Time order | Lists a series of events in time. | |
| Compare and contrast | Describes or explains similarities and differences between two or more things or events. |  |
| Cause(s) and effect(s) | Explains how events cause other events (effects). |  |
| Problem(s)/solution(s) | Explains the development of a problem and one or more solutions to it. | |
| Description | A characterization of salient features or events intended to create a mental image of something experienced (e.g., a scene, a person, an object, an event). |  |

Figure 8. Text structures and their visual representations. Neufeld, P. (2005). Comprehension instruction in content area classes. *The Reading Teacher*, 59(4), 302-312.

After introducing the common text structures, it is necessary to model learners how to find out the structure type of a given text. Each of the structures mentioned above is associated with some keywords that readers can follow as clues to find out the text structure. For

enumeration, for instance, you may see ‘first, second, next, then, and finally’ as keywords to identify the structure. Likewise, for compare and contrast type, you may run into ‘however, but, on one hand, on the other hand’. It is necessary to help learners find out and utilize those key words that alert them to text structure. In the figure below there is a list of key words of the text structures:

| Keywords associated with text structures | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| Enumeration | Time frame | Compare and contrast | Cause and effect& Problem/solution |
| to begin first secondly next then finally most important also in fact for instance for example | on a specific (date) not long after now as before after when following soon later finally | however but As well as on one hand/ on the other hand not only/ but also either/or while although unless similarly yet | because since therefore consequently as a result leads to nevertheless accordingly if/then thus thereby |

Figure 9. Keywords associated with text structures. Neufeld, P. (2005). Comprehension instruction in content area classes. The Reading Teacher, 59(4), 302-312.

Visualizing

Visualizing is a strategy to promote comprehension of the ideas in written (seen) texts by forming pictures in the mind, which results in an image on readers’ head representing the information given in the text (Tovani, 2002). Defined as “movies of the mind” (Elbow, 1995, p. 93) or “seeing the story world” (Wilhelm, 1997, p. 187), visualizing is stated as the creation of mental images and envisioning of settings and situations (Park, 2012).

Visualizing text is an effective skill for readers as it can support them in coping with complexity and difficulty of a text. It can help readers focus, remember, and apply their

learning to new and creative situations. Ware (2004) states that visualization is effective because it enables forming a far more complex concept structure in a visual display rather than in verbal elements. Thus, Sweller and Chandler (1994) emphasize that visualization has an effect on reducing the cognitive load. It is claimed to enlarge the limitations of the memory, making the learning and problem solving easier and more permanent. Besides picturizing concrete things, it also enables visualizing abstract relationships between the elements of the text (Scaife & Rogers, 1996). Greene (1978) emphasizes that visualizing can support learners to become more aware of the context both literary and real. Park (2012) defines it as “the process of grappling with difficult issues; making connections between and among multiple texts; and cultivating a heightened awareness of the way we see the word and world” (p. 638).

Applying the strategy of visualizing helps readers comprehend the text better and while teaching this strategy, it is necessary for the teacher to model it using a variety of texts as the first step. Providing additional examples showing some mind pictures is also effective. Cruxton and Walker (1990) suggest that teacher can read a text and ask learners to try and ‘see’ in their minds what the words are saying. Below there is an example excerpted from Cruxton and Walker (1990).

| Text | Think-Aloud Script |
|---|---|
| Lumbering became a way of life for many in the pioneer communities. The season began in the fall. Canoes carried the loggers and their supplies to the camps in the forests. Thousands went to live in the shanties of the lumber camps as the timber trade grew in | I can picture early settlements of houses among many trees. The leaves on the trees are orange, red, and yellow because it is fall. I can see the loggers with big bundles of supplies in long, wide canoes on a river. |

| | |
|---|--|
| importance. | |
| The axemen carefully selected the trees they would cut. The best white pine might tower 50 m. high. Considerable skill was needed to bring these trees down safely. A good axeman could drop a tree on a precise spot. His skill and power were essential to the profit of the camp. | I'm having a hard time imagining how high a 50 m. pine tree would be. I think of my own height and multiply until I reach 50. Or I compare the height to the height of a room or a building. In my mind, the axeman is a big, muscular guy because the text talks about his power. |
| Once the logs were felled, they were squared to fit more easily into the timber ships. Rounded edges wasted important space. Squaring was done with an adze and a heavy broad-axe which could weigh as much as 4 kg. Actually, squaring timber was very wasteful. About a quarter of the log was cut away and left on the ground. In winter the logs were hauled out of the woods with teams of oxen. | I can see the loggers working with axes to chop off the round edges of the trees. I don't know what an "adze" but I imagine it is a special tool with a sharp blade for trimming logs. I can see all that wasted wood on the ground, but at least it would decompose and be recycled into the soil as a nutrient. |

Figure 10. A sample for visualizing. Cruikshank J. B. & Robert J. W. (1990). *Community Canada*. Toronto: Oxford University.

Teacher can either ask learners to do self-study or allow them work in pairs or groups. Moreover, a discussion on the differences between the mental images may be helpful to create awareness on various points of views.

Spangler and Mazzante (2015) suggest an activity (Quick, Draw!) to implement visualizing in reading classes. The main aim of the activity is to promote concentration, encourage readers to review and remember what they read, and ensure better remembering. After reading the text, teacher divides the class into two groups. A student from the first group draws a picture of something from the story and his teammates guess what it is. If the team guesses correctly, it wins a point and draws again. This can also be used with several smaller teams. Spangler and Mazzante (2015) suggest that the activity is useful in terms of giving clues about the comprehension and retention level of the learners.

Using graphic organizers

Graphic organizers are defined and employed by various researches in a great number of studies. The most common definition is the one stated by Jiang and Grabe (2007) as being “the visual representations of information in the texts” (p. 34). Darch and Eaves (1986) define them as visual and spatial images created to foster teaching and learning of written materials by using “lines, arrows, and a spatial arrangement that describe text content, structure, and key conceptual relationships” (p. 310). Chmielewski and Dansereau (1998) assert that they are the images mostly employed to express variety of relationships and structures.

According to the schema theory, old information and past experiences help people make sense of new experiences and they lead to the creation of mental frameworks in people’s minds (Hirsch 1987, cited in Gillet et al., 2011; Nunan, 1999; Piaget, 1926). Likewise, Ausubel (1960, 1963) refers to those frameworks and emphasizes that the purpose of the graphic organizers is to help learners locate new information in an abstract graph in their minds linking it to the previously learned information. He reminds how learning occurs, mentioning the cognitive processes and emphasizes that utilizing graphic organizers enables learners to visualize the relations between the existing knowledge and the new information. Using the same line of thinking, Alvermann (1981) asserts that graphic organizers activate the readers’ prior knowledge and “...depict the organizational pattern of a reading selection by schematically representing key vocabulary terms” (p. 4). In the reading context, Mayer (1984) puts forward that graphic organizers enable readers to connect their prior knowledge with the text by showing the connections among them visually. According to Simmons, Griffin and Kame’enui (1988), by utilizing graphic organizers, readers’ are expected to understand the text better through visualizing the main points and the relationships among them. A good number of researchers emphasize the same point, stating that teaching learners how to use graphic organizers correctly improve their comprehension skills as they help learners to identify, organize and prioritize the

ideas in a text (Armbruster et al., 1987; Berkowitz, 1986; Chang, Sung & Chen, 2002; Chmielewski & Dansereau, 1998; Guri & Rozenblit, 1989; Idol, 1987; Kiewra, Kauffman, Robinson, Dubois, & Stanley, 1999; Oliver, 2009; Robinson et al., 2006).

Besides having a direct effect on comprehension, graphic organizers are also stated to be effective in answering questions by locating specific information quickly (Robinson and Skinner, 1996). This is in particular crucial for relatively poor learners and they show better performances when they use graphic organizers (e.g. Balajthy & Weisberg, 1990; O'Donnell, Dansereau & Hall, 2002). Moreover, the graphic organizers are claimed to be effective in creating awareness on text structures. As well as fostering summarizing abilities, (Armbruster et al., 1987; Chang et al., 2002) they are claimed to facilitate the identification of how the texts are organized and what key words are employed (Alvermann & Boothby, 1986; Armbruster, Anderson, & Meyer, 1991; Geva, 1983; Guri-Rozenblit, 1989).

Using graphic organizers as a reading strategy has become a subject for several studies (Davis, 1994; Griffin & Tulbert, 1995; Jiang & Grabe, 2007; Moorf & Readence, 1984; Simmons et al. 1988). Common point of these studies is that they all emphasize the positive effects of graphic organizers on reading comprehension. Jiang and Grabe (2007) stress the importance of the reading stages (pre-reading, post reading stage) and the constructor of graphic organizers (teacher-constructed, student-constructed, teacher/student constructed) while implementing them in reading classes.

In pre-reading stage, graphic organizers are usually implemented within the brainstorming activities to generate ideas, to activate learners' prior knowledge, and to provide a purpose for reading (Manoli & Papadopoulou, 2012). For the while and post-reading stages, graphic organizers are used to facilitate comprehension, and they give clues about learners' understanding and retention level, which are necessary for assessment. Researchers claim that graphic organizers are more effective when used in the post-reading than in the pre-reading stage (e.g. Griffin & Tulbert, 1995; Moore & Readence, 1984).

It terms of the constructor of the graph, studies show that teacher-initiated graphic organizers improve reading comprehension (Alvermann, 1981; Idol, 1987). On the other hand, when learners are involved in the construction process, they feel more engaged and become more active in the learning process (Berkowitz, 1986; McCagg & Dansereau, 1991).

In the instruction process as a strategy, according to Manoli and Papadopoulou (2012), graphic organizers should be introduced by teachers and learners should be encouraged to construct and implement them in reading. Modelling is important just like in other strategies and it is necessary to give feedback to learners (Manoli & Papadopoulou, 2012).

There are several graphic organizers with various appearances being used to display different types of relationships or text types. Manoli and Papadopoulou (2012) categorize and define them according to their qualifications in the context of reading strategies.

Story Maps

Story Maps are mainly used for narrative texts and appropriate for displaying the main elements of stories, such as characters, time, setting, plot. Besides emphasizing relations within a story, which enables deeper understanding (Gardill & Jitendra, 1999), they also consist of the key points of the text.

In pre-reading step, they can be used to link the prior knowledge to text, in while reading they can facilitate monitoring the comprehension and in post reading step they are regarded as effective tools for summarizing (Boulineau, Fore, Hagan-Burke& Burke2004; Davis, 1994; Gardill & Jitendra, 1999).

In many studies conducted, story maps are regarded as effective tools fostering reading comprehension (e.g. Boulineau et al., 2004; Dimino, Taylor, & Gersten, 1995; Gardill & Jitendra, 1999; Idol, 1987; Idol & Croll, 1987; Singer & Donlan, 1983; Vallecorsa & de Bettencourt, 1997).

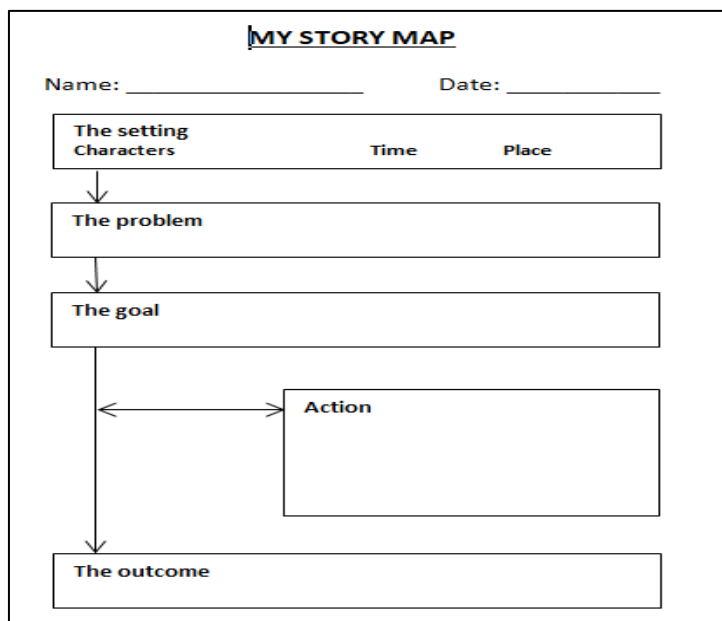


Figure 11. My story map. Idol, L. (1987). Group story mapping: A comprehension strategy for both skilled and unskilled readers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 20(4), 196-205.

Matrixes

Contrary to story maps, matrixes are mainly used in expository texts. They can be defined as input tables which are used to display the key points of the texts as well as the important categories or relationships, similarities and differences between people, things, places or events (e.g. Graney, 1992; Jones, Pierce, & Hunter, 1989; Kang, 2004). In designing matrix, it is necessary to determine the significant parts of a text and the relationship among the elements given in the text.

In addition to embodying the abstract information of a text, matrixes enable readers to see the relationships both vertically and horizontally which makes comparing possible. The information given in the separate parts of the text can be brought closer to each other and this helps learners see the text as a whole in a small graph (e.g. Kiewra et. al, 1999; Robinson & Skinner, 1996).

| | Name 1 | Name 2 | Name 3 |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Attribute 1 | | | |
| Attribute 2 | | | |
| Attribute 3 | | | |

Figure 12. Compare and contrast matrix sample. Kiewra, K. A., DuBois, N. F., Christian, D., McShane, A., Meyerhoffer, M., & Roskelley, D. (1991). Note-taking functions and techniques. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(2), 240-245.

Various researchers emphasize that matrixes ease answering the questions and they boost relational learning (Kiewra et al., 1999; Robinson & Schraw, 1994; Robinson & Skinner, 1996).

Semantics Maps

Graney (1992) defines sematic maps as the shapes looking like “the sun or the stars with rays emanating from them, as they consist of a circle with lines radiating from the circle” (p. 164). They are also called mind maps or spider maps and their development is based on the schema theory (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). A key word or phrase is located in the centre and the related ideas or things are written around, connected to the centre with lines. They are mostly used to describe relationships in a text or the different components of an idea (Graney, 1992; Iranmehr, Davari,& Erfanie, 2011). According to Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek & Wei(2004), the use of semantic organizers enhances learners’ comprehension skills.

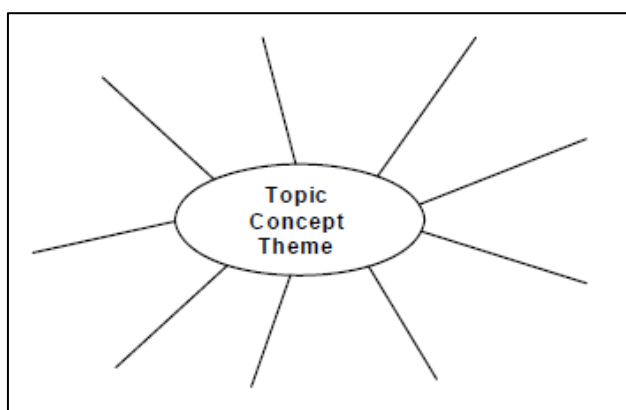


Figure 13. Semantic map. Graney, M. J. (1992). A framework for using text graphing. *System*, 20, 161-167.

Concept Maps

Concept maps are types of graphic organizers which are used to visualize the organization and the relation of the various concepts. They are mostly used with expository texts. Taking the Ausubel's (1968) assimilation theory of cognitive learning as the basis, Novak developed the concept maps (Novak, 1990; Novak & Musonda, 1991) and defined them as the circles or boxes linked to each other. The concepts are written in those boxes or circles, and the relationships among them are displayed with arrows. There are sometimes words on the arrows as well, showing the way how the two concepts are linked. Concept maps are used to indicate hierarchical relationship among the concepts locating the most general idea on the top and the least one at the bottom (Novak, 1990; Novak & Cañas, 2008). Several researchers mention the effectiveness of concept maps in organizing, understanding and recalling new material (Chang et al., 2002; Chularut & De-Backer, 2004; Novak, 1990; Schmid & Telaro, 1990) as well as in reading comprehension (Oliver, 2009).

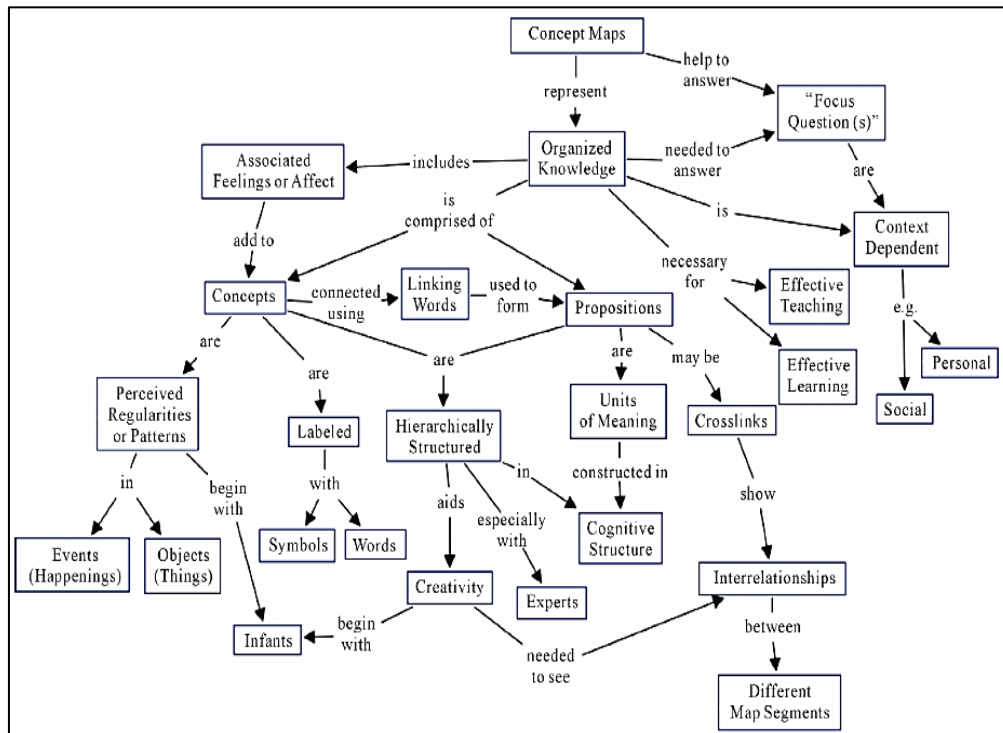


Figure 14. Concept map. (Novak, J. D., & Cañas, A. J. (2008). The theory underlying concept maps and how to construct and use them (Technical Report No. 01). Retrieved from <http://cmap.ihmc.us/Publications/ResearchPapers/TheoryUnderlyingConceptMaps.pdf>)

Knowledge Maps

Usually confused with concept maps, knowledge maps are “two-dimensional graphical images visualizing information in the nodes linked to each other with arrows” (McCagg & Dansereau, 1991, p. 318). In those nodes, the conceptual information is written in simple words and they are connected to others by arrowhead to indicate directionality (McCagg & Dansereau, 1991; O’Donnell et al., 2002). Knowledge maps are credited to the studies of Dansereau (Chmielewski & Dansereau, 1998; Hall, Dansereau, & Scaggs, 1992; McCagg & Dansereau, 1991), and they are claimed to be effective in getting the main points and remembering more central ideas (O’Donnell, Dansereau, & Hall, 2002).

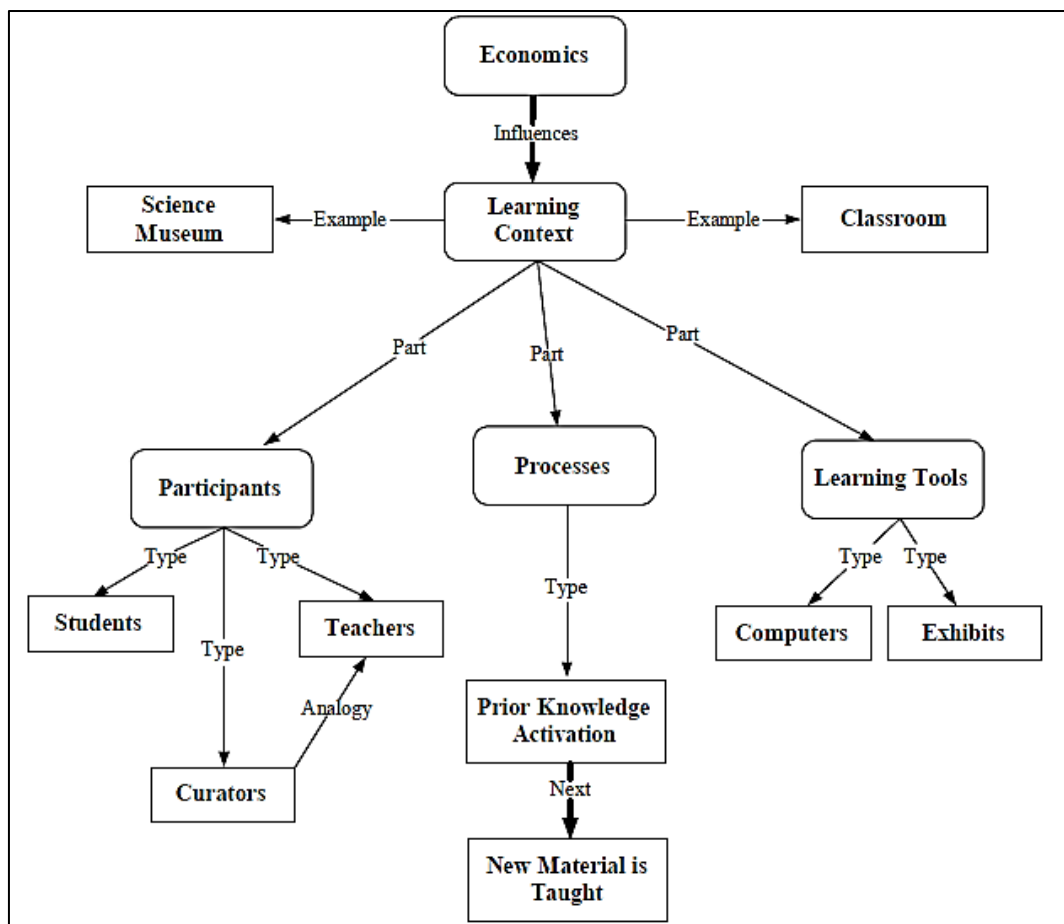


Figure 15. Knowledge map. O' Donnell, A. M., Dansereau, D. F., & Hall, R. H. (2002). Knowledge maps as scaffolds for cognitive processing. *Educational Psychology Review*, 14(1), 71-86.

Tree Diagrams

Tree diagrams are used to display the relations among the ideas in a text hierarchically from general to specific or from specific to general (Graney, 1992). They visualize the main ideas and the ideas derived from them. In classroom contexts, they are mostly used to describe family trees, the construction of a sentence, the structure of associations, taxonomies, and various hierarchical models (Guri-Rozenblit, 1989; cited in Manoli & Papadopoulou, 2012). Guri-Rozenblit (1989) states that tree diagrams foster comprehension and facilitate remembering the main points.

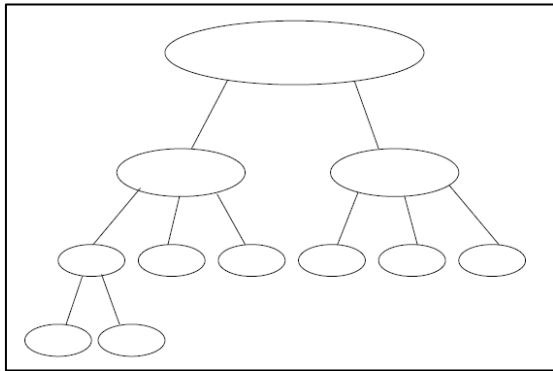


Figure 16. Tree diagram. Jones, B. F., Pierce, J., & Hunter, B. (1988). Teaching students to construct graphic representations. *Educational Leadership*, 46(4), 20-25.

Venn Diagrams

The Venn diagram, which is named after John Venn (Venn, 1880), who used it in maths, consists of two circles overlapping each other. It is used to display the common points of different ideas or items in a text and it enables making comparisons between two or more concepts (Kang, 2004).

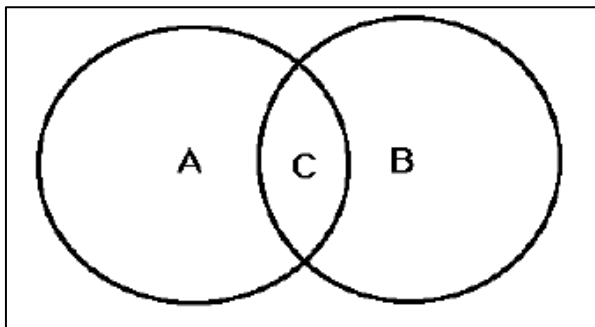


Figure 17. Venn diagram. Venn, J. (1880). On the diagrammatic and mechanical representation of propositions and reasonings. *Dublin Philosophical Magazine and Journal of Science*, 9, 1-18.

Annotating

Annotating is writing down notes about a text while reading or rereading it (Porter-O'Donnell, 2004). Spangler and Mazzante (2015) define it as the creation of a summary of the text by writing brief key points. “It is an active reading strategy that improves student

comprehension and it helps learners to learn and to remember the text content using the student's own words" (Spangler & Mazzante, 1998, p. 26). It is the concrete version of the reader's thoughts and the meaning derived from the text. It is not writing down everything in the text word by word; rather, it is somehow paraphrasing and noting the key words down. Annotating also consists of personal thoughts which help readers remember the main points of the text better (Porter-O'Donnell, 2004).

In 2004, Porter-O'Donnell conducted over the effects of annotating on reading and the results were inspiring. In addition, facilitating comprehension, it turned out to be a promoter in terms of helping learners reach a deeper level of involvement and see that reading is a process. The learners reported that they went beyond understanding the surface meaning of the text and they could develop new ways of thinking by applying annotation. In her study, Porter-O'Donnell stated that the notes learners took made the mental reading processes visible and indirectly they also facilitated writing. Contrary to what had happened before, the learners were reported to ask questions that are not found explicitly in the text. Although it revealed several benefits for the readers, there occurred some criticism for slowing the reading down. Nevertheless, in Porter and O'Donnell's study, many learners reported that they realized more ideas and points that they would not have realized otherwise. They also stated that they had to read the text genuinely; it was not possible to do fake reading when they had to annotate (Porter-O'Donnell, 2004).

Going along with Porter-O'Donnell, Spangler and Mazzante (2015) state that annotating provides a purpose for reading and increases learner concentration and attention to reading. Rather than reading without thinking about the hidden meaning, annotating allows learners to be deeply engaged with the text and become critical readers. It is also an effective tool for revising the previously learnt topics and it provides clues for assessing learner understanding.

To annotate a text, the first step is to decide on the objectives (Spangler & Mazzante, 2015). Then, it is necessary to preview the text, as it provides learners with some advance

information about text. For the information that is explicitly located in a text, learners are suggested to underline necessary points and develop a coding system according to their wishes. Below, there is a sample coding for annotation by Porter-O'Donnell (2004).

| |
|--|
| <p>BEFORE READING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> Examine the front and back covers (books)> Read the title and any subtitles> Examine the illustrations> Examine the print (bold, italics, etc.)> Examine the way the text is set up (book, short story, diary, dialogue, article, etc.) <p>As you examine and read these, write questions, and make predictions and/or connections near these parts of the text.</p> <p>DURING READING</p> <p>Mark in the text:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> Characters (who) ○> When (setting) □> Where (setting)> Vocabulary ~~~~~> _____ Important information <p>Write in the margins:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> Summarize> Make predictions> Formulate opinions> Make connections> Ask questions> Analyze the author's craft> Write reflections/reactions/comments> Look for patterns/repetitions <p>AFTER READING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> Reread annotations—draw conclusions> Reread introduction and conclusion—try to figure out something new> Examine patterns/repetitions—determine possible meanings> Determine what the title might mean |
|--|

Figure 18. A sample coding for annotation. Porter-O'Donnell, C. (2004). Beyond the yellow highlighter: Teaching annotation skills to improve reading comprehension. *English Journal*, 82-89.

Spangler and Mazzante (2015) offer another coding system below:

| |
|---|
| <p>Double underline the author's explanation of the main point(s) and put M.P. in the margin to denote "main point(s)."</p> <p>Single underline each major new claim or problem the author presents and write "claim 1," "claim 2," or "problem 1," "problem 2," and so on in the margin.</p> <p>Asterisk * pieces of evidence like statistics or arguments and note in the margin the kind of evidence or information and its purpose.</p> <p>Write "conclusion" in the margin at the point or points where the author draws conclusions.</p> <p>Put a question mark ? next to any points or parts of text that are unclear to you as the reader.</p> <p>Put an exclamation mark ! next to passages that you react strongly in agreement, disagreement, or interest.</p> <p>Attach a post-it note next to parts of text and write a brief reaction to the text as you read."</p> |
|---|

Figure 19. Another coding system. Spangler, D., & Mazzante, J. A. (2015). Using reading to teach a world language: strategies and activities. New York: Routledge.

For implicit information, learners are advised to highlight the related parts and write their comments on a sticker or margins. As applied in many other strategies, it is necessary to display the models of annotations in the instruction process. The models can be from the former students or teachers themselves can model while reading a text. By that way, learners may get the opportunity to see samples of notes which vary from one reader to another.

Porter-O'Donnell (2004) proposes that it is necessary to show learners that there is no one right way to annotate. To help struggling learners, teacher may interrupt reading and ask them to consider ideas. Newspapers, magazines or online articles can be used as sample texts to work on. Berthhoff (1987) suggests dialectical journals for annotating. In a dialectical journal, learners write short parts from the text in the first column and their interpretations in the second. They are in particular useful with the informational texts.

| INFORMATION | INTERPRETATION |
|-------------|----------------|
| | |

Figure 20. Dialectical journal. Berthoff, A. E. (1987). Dialectical notebooks and the audit of meaning. *The Journal Book*, 44, 11-18.

Using sticky notes or highlighter tapes are other alternatives for annotating. Readers highlight the important points or can write their responds or ideas on the stickers; they can also use the margins of the texts. Although annotating is an individual activity, pair or group work can also be applied particularly when learners are not much familiar with annotating (Spangler & Mazzante, 2015).

Summarizing

Summary is defined as oral, written, or visual statements, texts or diagrams that consist of main points of the text in a short form (Neufeld, 2005). Summarizing as a reading strategy refers to an abstract of a text formed by readers after reading it. Neufeld suggests three basic questions to be answered while summarizing a text: “What was the gist of the text? What were the main points made by the author? What organizational structure(s) did the author use to present the information?”(2005, p. 306). The questions are supposed to help readers reveal the necessary points and get the summary.

Summarizing a text fosters understanding the content and structure of a text. Several researchers emphasize the effect of summarizing on improving the overall comprehension (Armbruster et al., 1987; Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Berkowitz,1986; Brown, 2002; Taylor, 1982; Taylor & Beach, 1984). Neufeld (2005) handles summarizing under three titles; oral, visual and written summaries.

Oral summaries

Oral summaries are applied to get feedback from learners about a text which has just been read. Readers stop after reading a section of text and check their understanding by mentioning the main points (Pearson & Duke, 2002; Pressley, 2002).

Visual summaries

Visual summaries are the summaries in the form of notes that are embedded in graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, semantic maps, matrixes etc. As graphic organizers include the main ideas presented in a text and show how the ideas relate to one another, they can be regarded as the visual summaries of the texts (Neufeld, 2005). The only point to be considered is that different organizers represent different text types so while summarizing, learners need to take it into consideration. For instance, a Venn diagram or a matrix can be used to summarize texts with compare-and-contrast text structure, and a concept or knowledge map can be used for texts with cause effect text structures.

Written summaries

Written summaries generally begins with outlining, which is roughly defined as listing the main ideas separating them from the supporting ones and which can be regarded as a part of the annotating process. However, summarizing goes beyond it and it reorganizes those main ideas listed in the outlining process. In other words, written summaries are bringing main ideas together in readers' own words to form a new body of text.

McNeil and Donant (1982) propose a set of rules to create written summaries. As the first step, learners are asked to delete details that are not related to the main topic. Next they are supposed to delete the ideas that are repeated in different words. The following step is to replace a list of words with a more common one, such as replacing TV, laptop, mobile phone with technologic devices. Learners are then asked to replace the long descriptive

statements with short ones. The final step is to select a topic sentence from the text and create a new one which is not available in the text.

Spangler and Mazzante (2015) also suggest an activity to practice summarizing. In their proposal, students read a text and write a retell of the text in their own words. Then the teacher asks learners to exchange their new texts with their partners. The partners are then asked to summarize the texts they get. At the end of the activity, the partners exchange the summaries and read them. The main purpose behind the activity is to specify what each partner understood from the reading and study on each other's summaries.

Self- Assessment/ Self evaluation

Any step taken in teaching reading carries the ultimate goal of having more self-dependent learners (Afflerbach, 2002). From the basic skills of decoding and phonemic awareness to comprehension, the main point is to enable learners to develop those skills and to move on their own successfully. When the ultimate goal is independence, self-assessing gains importance, as it allows learners to be truly independent readers, and good readers are claimed to assess their own reading processes and products (Afflerbach, 2002). Self-assessment is regarded as important as decoding and comprehension strategies as well as being central to success in reading (Afflerbach, 2002; Clay, 1993; Goodman & Goodman, 1977). Evaluative and regulative strategies are regarded as the corner-stones of a good reader's self-assessment (Afflerbach, 2002). Several researchers emphasize the common point that the evaluative and regulative strategies in self-assessment have positive effects on reading (Baker & Brown, 1984; Hacker, 1998; Paris et al., 1991; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995).

Afflerbach (2002) states that upon detecting a mistake, good readers regulate the reading act by re-reading, and they self-correct their mistakes. They evaluate and regulate the meaning construction comprehensively (Afflerbach & Pressley 1995) and this process reoccurs consistently during reading. When they face a difficulty, they develop self-

assessment reports which suggest that they need to reread or read slowly. Accordingly they reread or change the way they read the text. Bazerman (1985) proposes that good readers also assess their prior knowledge related to text content and text structure. While reading a text, readers assess what they know about it and benefit from it. When they notice that their prior knowledge is not adequate, they may need to get the help of another source (Vansledright & Afflerbach, 2000).

To help learners develop self-assessment strategies and become familiar with assessment routines, Afflerbach (2002) emphasizes the importance of introducing learners to reading assessment materials and procedures. He states that the only way to develop independence and achievement in reading is to enable them to do the assessment by themselves. It is necessary to let readers know how reading assessment works before expecting them to do self-assessment and self-evaluation of their own reading.

Like the instruction of other strategies covered up to now, teaching learners how to do self-assessment also starts with explicit instruction and followed by detailed modelling. There are some specific reading assessment materials and procedures proposed by Afflerbach (2002) to teach reading assessment.

Teacher questioning and oral feedback to learners

Discussion within the classroom or classroom talk provides an effective context for teaching assessment strategies. I-R-E (Initiate- Respond- Evaluate), which is regarded as a prevalent form of classroom talk (Cazden, 1986), is an efficient pattern for self-assessment. Teacher initiates the talk with a question. He may ask if the part that has just been read make sense and how the learners know it. The questions provoke the attention, remind the purpose and facilitate comprehension. Then, learners respond and teacher evaluate those responses. While doing this, teacher actually models an assessment which gives learners the chance to witness how the evaluation can be done.

TEACHER: I am interested in how well each of you understood this section of chapter. Remember, we will be writing about this chapter later today, so we need to check on our understanding of what we're reading. So I want to ask you about the main idea of the paragraph. What is the main idea? (Initiate)

STUDENT: It's about weights and levers...and gravity. (Response)

TEACHER: That's a good beginning, because you've identified important information in the text. (Evaluate) I am thinking about your answer in relation to our upcoming writing task.

Figure 21. A sample of I-R-E (Initiate- Respond- Evaluate) pattern. Afflerbach, P. (2002). Teaching reading self-assessment strategies. In Block, C. C. & Pressley M. (Eds.), *Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices* (pp. 96-111). New York: Guilford.

Checklists and observation forms

Checklists and observation forms are necessary tools that are employed in teaching self-assessment as they are ready-made lists of the points that will be taken into consideration. Afflerbach (2002) states that they provide learners with concrete examples of what to focus on when doing self-assessment and how to do it. The checklists serve both as facilitators for learners to do self-assessment and clues for teachers about the learners' decoding ability, comprehension strategies, fluency, and motivation to read. Written and mental checklists are claimed to help teachers evaluate the student reading behaviour in the decision making process (Hill, Ruptic & Norwick, 1998).

Let's begin with your goal for reading today. What is your goal?

As you finish each paragraph of the chapter, review the checklist to determine if you have been assessing your own reading.

- ☐ I remember why I am reading and I keep this goal in mind.
- ☐ I regularly assess my reading in relation to this goal.
- ☐ I ask the questions, "Does that make sense?" and "How do I know?"
- ☐ If I find a problem or difficulty, I remember the "If, then..." strategies we learned.
- ☐ I ask the question, "Am I understand the text well enough to meet my goal?"

Remember that you can ask for help, but try to do so only after you've gone through each item on this checklist.

Figure 22. A reading checklist. (Afflerbach, P. (2002). Afflerbach, P. (2002). Teaching reading self-assessment strategies. In Block, C. C. & Pressley M. (Eds.), Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices (pp. 96-111). New York: Guilford.

Performance assessments

Performance assessments are efficient self-assessment tools (Marzano, Pickering & McTighe, 1993) which focus on processes, complex performances and products and thus introducing learners to higher levels of reading assessment (Afflerbach, 2002). Rubrics are decent examples of performance assessments. They consist of detailed information in the form of samples of performances, patterns for scoring and grading, and the examples for learners showing how to get those scores or grades. As well as providing contexts in which learners get the chance to evaluate their own work, they give learners clues about what a good performance is. They show what is necessary, what is ideal and what is inadequate, which are crucial for self-assessment.

| | | |
|---|---|------------------|
| Directions to students: Please rate your ongoing performance in relation to the following criteria. | | |
| <u>My teacher's rating</u> | <u>Using pre-reading strategies</u> | <u>My rating</u> |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Preview and skim text | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Anticipate and predict meaning | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Determine difficulty of vocabulary | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Identify helpful resources | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| <u>My teacher's rating</u> | <u>Using pre-reading strategies</u> | <u>My rating</u> |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Answers to questions at end of chapter | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Creating questions for the author | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1 2 3 4 5 | Using what is learned from text in a context performance | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Figure 23.A a reading performance assessment rubric. Afflerbach, P. (2002). Teaching reading self-assessment strategies. In Block, C. C. & Pressley M. (Eds.), *Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices* (pp. 96-111). New York: Guilford.

Portfolios

Portfolios are the collection of learners' works which are claimed to hold great promise for helping learners develop self-assessment and have various possible uses (Tierney, Carter, & Desai, 1991; Afflerbach, 2002). As well as being contexts for learners in which they can find chances of practicing self-assessment, they also include reading assessment materials and procedures. Genesee and Upshur (1996) indicate that they show the proves of learners' views and strategies they implement. They also include learners' draft works, and those drafts can be used in self-assessment to see the improvement by comparing them with the final works. As portfolios provide the evidences of the process in a long term, they have larger dimensions than the other self-assessment tools.

Paper and pencil tests

Paper and pencil tests are the classical forms of assessment, and they are helpful in terms of representing the opportunity to help learners see how they will be assessed (Afflerbach,

2002). They remind the purposes for assessment and offer an opportunity to see what to focus on and what to ignore in reading.

Strategy Instruction

Strategy instruction refers to informing and instructing learners to help them use the appropriate strategies in order to improve their learning process (Viswanathan, 2015). In a broad sense, it supports learners to discover their strengths and weaknesses in language learning, to become aware of the techniques that enhance and support their language learning and to monitor and evaluate their performances. Macaro and Erler (2008) state that strategy instruction is efficient on learners' strategic behaviours and their learning outcomes. In their study on reading comprehension, McNamara, O'Reilly, Best, and Ozuru, (2006) reveal that less strategic readers experience more difficulties at comprehension whereas more strategic readers show better performances. Strategy instruction is said to be effective on both poor readers by enabling and facilitating their comprehension and on good readers by enhancing their ability to choose the correct strategy for the appropriate task.

Cohen (2003) states that strategy instruction aims to provide language learners with the tools to enable them to realize their pluses and minuses in language learning and be aware of the tools that help them to learn the target language most efficiently. It facilitates making decisions about how to approach a language task, how to monitor and self-evaluate their performance and transfer the appropriate strategies to new learning contexts.

There are various models of strategy instruction which are designed to enable the application of strategies in a classroom environment and to facilitate the integration process. In the design of a strategy instruction model, learners' needs are regarded as the most important points, and the circumstances of the learning environment are also taken into consideration.

Most of the techniques suggested by the strategy instruction models overlap and they generally follow the phases of raising learner awareness of the importance and the aim of using strategies, providing opportunities of practicing the strategies and helping the learners use the strategies in new learning contexts. Nearly all of them emphasize the importance of practicing and evaluating, as they are presented as the ways for the strategies to be internalized and automatized by learners. The common final goal of the instruction models is enabling learners to transfer the learned strategies to the new contexts.

In 1987, Pearson and Dole proposed a strategy instruction model which suggests explicit strategy instruction. In that model, teacher initiates and models the strategy through examples at first, and then the use and importance of the strategy is explained by the teacher directly. Afterwards, the learners practice the strategy with the guidance of the teacher. Following the adequate guided instruction, learners practice the strategy independently, and they apply it in a new context.

In another model developed by Oxford (1990), creating awareness is placed into the starting point of the instruction. It is continued with a discussion among learners about the benefits of using the mentioned strategy. Practicing follows the discussion, and afterwards self-evaluation and monitoring of learning performance are applied. The final aim of the instruction model is to help learners be able to transfer the strategies to the new tasks. Although it is claimed to be flexible and could be modified or rearranged for different needs, it is criticised by Cohen (2003) about being difficult to integrate into a regular classroom program.

In 1998, Cohen developed Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction Model (SSBI), which suggests the integration of strategies into the course content both explicitly and implicitly. In his model, teacher introduces the current strategies and learning styles and trains learners to use those learning strategies effectively. During the instruction, as well as observing the learners' progress, teacher acts as a supervisor and gives feedback as well. SSBI model is claimed to create awareness on strategies available, to facilitate choosing

the correct strategy, to teach how to use them effectively, and to enable learners to transfer the strategies to new language contexts. The model is applied in ELT classes in five phases. In the first phase, strategy preparation, learners' previously owned strategies are tried to be found out, as it is believed that all learners more or less have some strategies to learn something. In the second phase, the main aim is to create awareness on the strategies available that are not employed by learners. Explicit strategy instruction begins in the third phase. Learners are informed about which strategies to use and when and how to use them. Teacher demonstrates the application of the strategies and encourages learners to discuss about them. In the next phase, intentionally designed activities are brought into the classroom and learners practice and experience the strategies. Learners take active role in both deciding which strategy to employ and how to deploy it. At the end of the process they evaluate their use of the strategies and their effectiveness. In the final phase, learners are supposed to personalize what they have learned about these strategies and be capable of transferring them to new tasks when necessary.

Grenfell and Harris (1999) put forward another model for strategy instruction which explains the instruction in six main steps. It starts with identifying the strategies which are used, namely raising awareness, and it is followed by the modelling of teacher. Next, learners are given opportunities to practice the strategies available. Afterwards, they decide their goals and employ suitable strategies to reach those goals. In the next step, teacher steps backwards gradually and learners carry out the practice more independently. The final step is the evaluation in which both the teacher and the learners evaluate the instruction process from their own sides and set new goals.

Likewise, Chamot and O'malley(1994) proposed Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) to develop the language skills of learners with limited proficiency. In this model, teacher diagnoses the objectives and creates awareness about the strategies learners already apply such as associating the new information with the prior knowledge. Next, teacher models and explains the new strategy and the learners practice it. The teacher

tries to encourage independent strategy use and learners evaluate their own progress. Following that, the learners are supposed to transfer the strategies to new tasks and integrate them into their existing knowledge. At the end of the instruction, teacher assesses the use of strategies and its effectiveness.

Another scholar, Neufeld (2005) handles strategy instruction in two main phases which are the explicit instruction (Duffy, 2002; Duffy & Roehler, 1989; Roehler & Duffy, 1984) and teaching for self-regulated strategy use (Block & Pressley, 2002; Pressley, 2002; Pressley et al., 1992; Schuder, 1993).

Phase 1- Explicit instruction: In Neufeld's model, the initial step of the strategy instruction is explicit instruction. The teachers are supposed to present the strategy clearly in this phase which constitutes of four steps to follow.

Introduction and justification: Explaining what it is and why it is useful, teacher simply introduces the strategy as a first step. Activating any prior knowledge on the strategy, if available, and explaining how the strategy is effective on the comprehension are the steps to be taken in this stage.

Modelling: During modelling, the teacher takes the whole responsibility and shows clearly how the strategy is implemented. Demonstration (Gambrell, Kapinus & Wilson, 1987, cited in Neufeld, 2005) and thinking aloud (Baumann & Ballard; Gambrell et al.; Gersten & Carnine, 1986; Pearson & Dole, cited in Neufeld, 2005) are reported to be effective techniques to be employed while modelling.

Guided practice: In this step, the main aim is to provide learners with as many activities as possible to practice how the strategy is implemented. Teacher acts as a facilitator who supports learners and gives feedback about the process. The responsibility is now shared between teacher and learners. Pearson and Dole (1987) suggest that teacher should leave the responsibility for implementation of the strategy to learners by degrees.

Independent practice: As the last step of the first phase, the teacher gives assignments which necessitate unaccompanied student implementation of the strategy (Baumann & Ballard, 1987; Gambrell et al., 1987, cited in Neufeld, 2005). Teacher still gives feedback and intervenes when necessary, but the responsibility to implement the strategy belongs to the learners.

Phase 2- Teaching for self-regulated strategy use: The second phase refers to the independent act of learners on deciding which strategy to implement and how to implement it. The more strategies the learners learn, the larger repertoire they will have to utilize, which leads to the determination of the appropriate strategy. This determination process will require flexibility and self-regulation which are regarded as the main aims of the strategy instruction (Pressley, 2002; Pressley et al., 1992, cited in Neufeld, 2005).

Neufeld (2005) points out that the phases do not have sharp borders, in contrast they overlap to a large extent which makes it possible to change the sequence of their usage. Although the process is reported to be followed generally in sequence, it is also possible to be flexible and change the order.

In this study, the strategy instruction phases suggested by Neufeld (2005) have been implemented and the steps given under those phases have been followed.

Autonomy

Autonomy is a wide concept which has many references in various fields. It has implications for individuals, organizations, societies, systems, relations and even for technological devices. In individual sense, it is regarded as the capacity to make decisions and to have control over important areas of one's life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Schwartz (1977) defines it as “the ability to assume responsibility for one’s own affairs” (cited in Esch, 1996, p. 37). Little (1990) also emphasizes the independency dimension and states that it refers to the critical reflection and decision making. Autonomy is claimed to be in

relation with the development of a sense of self and take part in the construction of a personal identity (Moshman, 2005; Nucci, 2001). It stands for self-governing (Buss, 2016), and autonomous individuals are reported to act according to their own discretion (Gewirth, 1978; Nucci, 2001).

Grounded in the same definition, autonomy in learning is also defined as the learners' capacity of being responsible for their own learning (Benson, 2001). A great number of researchers agree on the same definition (Barfield & Brown, 2007; Benson, 2007; Burkert & Schwienhorst, 2008; Dam, 1995; Lamb and Reinders, 2007; Lamb & Reinders, 2008; Little, 2007; Murphy, 2008; Palfreyman & Smith, 2003; Smith, 2000) stressing the independency of the learners while defining autonomy.

Holec (1995) asserts that "autonomy is a capacity and critical ability to reflect on one's experience and to take charge of one's own learning" (cited in Dickinson, 1995, p. 166). He characterises the autonomous learners as the ones who set goals for themselves, define the content and progression, determine the techniques to apply, and monitor and assess their learning process as a whole (cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006).

Chan (2001), likewise, describes the autonomous learners as the learners who set goals, develop strategies, make planning, reflect on their learning, determine the sources to be used, and assess their own learning processes.

Using the same line of thinking, Dickinson (1987, p. 11) defines autonomy as "the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions". He lists five distinguishing characteristics of autonomous learners:

- They understand what is being taught
- They create their own learning objectives
- They manage to determine and apply the appropriate learning strategies

- They monitor their use of those strategies
- They do monitoring and self-assessment for their own learning. (Dickinson, 1993, cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006, p. 33)

Apart from the definitions above, several researchers also focus on the same point. Dam (1990) describes autonomous learners as learners who are motivated to learn, knowing their own learning style and strategies, taking responsibility in setting purpose and carrying out the chosen task. He states that they are good guessers, making and rejecting hypotheses, who also monitor and evaluate their own learning. Using the same line of thinking, Breen and Mann (1997) add that to be adapted to the changing environment and to deal with the difficulty of learning, autonomous learners discover their own needs and interests and develop necessary strategies.

Taking part in the deciding process of language learning and being involved in making choices about aspects of the program make learners feel more secure, enthusiastic and focused (Littlejohn, 1985; McCafferty, 1981). Nunan (1996, p. 15) states that autonomy is taking responsibility of all aspects of learning such as “determining the objectives, defining contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition and evaluating what has been acquired”.

Pointing out that “learners have the power and right to learn for themselves”, Smith’s view (2008, p. 2) is employed as one of the key concepts in defining the autonomous learners. Little (1991) also adds this view a new dimension which refers to the learners’ ability to develop capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independency.

Going along with the idea that autonomous learners take significant responsibility for their own learning, Boud (1988) stresses that they take this responsibility by setting their own goals, planning practice opportunities or assessing their progress. The autonomous learners are claimed to have the capacity to choose what to think and what to do and be aware of

the affective dimension of their learning as well as managing to utilize them as their motivational advantage (Kupfer, 1990; Ushioda, 1996).

All in all, these somehow overlapping characteristics of autonomous learners defined by various scholars above have become the guideline for the current study, and the definitions of Chan (2001), Dam (1990), Dickinson (1987), Holec (1995) and Nunan (1996) constituted the main pillars of this study.

Necessity of autonomy

Given all the definitions and descriptions above, it can be claimed that autonomy is a desirable feature which can be developed, and Benson and Voller (1997) shed light on why autonomy in learning is required. They report that autonomy is necessary in situations where learners have to be alone, or where they have to decide the direction of their learning on their own. In addition, in the situations where the education systems may suppress the capacity of learners, or where learners need to practice taking responsibility, autonomy is required. They also state that some certain skills necessitate self-directed learning, and autonomy provides that environment.

Boud (1988) also emphasizes the necessity and desirability of autonomy in three main reasons; philosophical, pedagogical and practical. Having the right to decide in their own learning processes, getting prepared for the future and becoming more independent are evaluated as the philosophical reasons of why autonomy is necessary. In pedagogical perspective, as Littlejohn (1985) suggests, enthusiasm for learning can be enhanced by autonomy, and adults learn better when they are consulted about the instruction type or content of what they are learning (Caef, 1988, cited in Finch, 2001). On practical ground, without needing someone as a facilitator, it enables learners to interiorise some strategies to an automatic level, making them parts of their characters, which affects any stage of their lives.

Autonomy In Language Learning

Henri Holec (1979) was the first to employ the concept of autonomy in the field of language learning. In his report of autonomy and foreign language learning, first published by the Council of Europe in 1979, autonomy was defined as the ability to take charge of one's own learning. With this approach, communicative language learning has gained importance (Wenden, 1991), and it was claimed to have changed the way of foreign language education in which teachers taught and learners learnt in the past (Balçıkanlı, 2006).

Encouraging learners to be active and to operate their own learning process, learner autonomy has been asserted to become a characteristic of modern communicative language teaching (Broady & Kenning, 1996; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, cited in Matsubara and Lehtinen, 2007). Kumaravadivelu (2003) stresses that learner autonomy has become a desirable goal in language learning and teaching. As Wenden (1991) accentuates, with that awareness, teachers have started to allocate more space for learners where learners can move independently and take the responsibility of their own language learning.

Matsubara and Lehtinen (2007) define language learning autonomy as a sense of responsibility for language learning. In the same vein, Littlewood (1999) focuses on the main aim of autonomy and states that in foreign language education autonomy aims to construct a social group of learners who are responsible and self-directed. It is claimed to have changed the way the learners are perceived, and it allows learners to choose learning resources and activities in a language classroom (Nunan, 2000).

Levels of Autonomy

Viewing autonomy as 'a matter of degree', Nunan (2000) proposes a model of five levels ranging from realizing to interiorising autonomy. In the first level, awareness, learners are expected to be aware of their goals and recognize their own learning styles. As the second

level, involvement refers to learners' getting involved in the selecting and deciding processes. In the intervention level, Nunan (2000) states that learners modify and adapt the previously set goals, according to the current conditions. The forth level is the creation level in which the learners create their own goals, and as the final level, transcendence, learners manage to carry what they learned, beyond the classroom, becoming their own teachers. Below, there is a table showing Nunan's model cited in Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012).

| Level | Learner action | Content | Process |
|-------|----------------|---|---|
| 1. | Awareness | Raising learners' awareness of the pedagogical goals of the materials used. | Learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles/strategies. |
| 2. | Involvement | Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a list of alternatives given. | Learners make choices among a range of options. |
| 3. | Intervention | Learners take part in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the programme. | Learners adapt tasks. |
| 4. | Creation | Learners create their own goals and objectives. | Learners create their own tasks. |
| 5. | Transcendence | Learners go beyond the classroom and make links between what they learn in class and the outside world. | Learners become teachers and researchers. |

Figure 24. Nunan's model for levels of autonomy. Nunan, 2000, cited in Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT Journal*, 12(7), 1-45.

However, on Nunan's model, Benson (2001) argues that little is known about the stages gone through in developing autonomy in different contexts, and drawing dramatic borders for measuring degrees of autonomy is not always on the cards.

Littlewood (1996) focuses on another model in defining the levels of autonomy. He states that there is “a level of behaviour at which a person makes independent choices and those choices operate within a hierarchy of different levels” (p. 429). Within that hierarchy, the low level choices stand at the bottom, and they control some certain activities rather than the overall activity. However, high level choices, which are at the top, control the whole. Between those two levels, learners go through some processes which range from making their own choices, shaping their own learning contexts, determining their own syllabus to using language independently outside the classroom.

Components and Domains of Autonomy

Defining an autonomous learner as the one who has an independent capacity to decide and apply those decisions, Littlewood (1996) draws attention to that independent capacity. To shed light on that capacity, he states that it depends on two main components: ability, which is the combination of having knowledge and skills about choosing the appropriate alternatives, and willingness, which stands for being motivated and self-confident about taking responsibility. Littlewood (1996) asserts that to be autonomous, these two components need to be possessed together. Learners may either be capable of making decisions independently but not willing to do it, or willing to make decisions but not capable of doing so. Thereby, he asserts that ability and willingness together can compose autonomy.

Littlewood (1996) also proposes three domains of autonomy which have sub-skill areas to be studied on. He explains the first domain as the autonomy as a communicator. The creative use of the language and the correct implementation of the strategies for communication are the main points focused under this title (Littlewood, 1996). The second domain, autonomy as a learner, focuses more on independent work and the ability to use appropriate learning strategies, both inside and outside the classroom. Lastly, autonomy as a person is bound to the ability to express personal meanings and the ability to create

personal learning contexts. In the figure below Littlewood displays the components and domains of autonomy together.

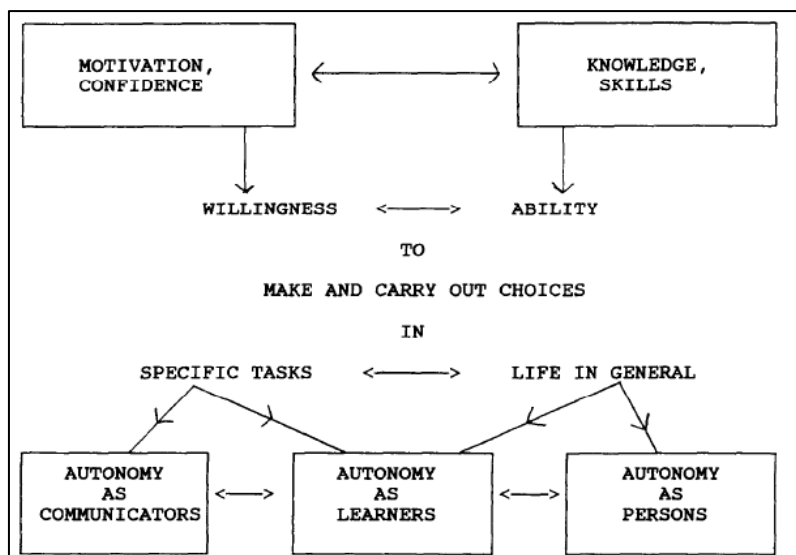


Figure 25. Components and domains of autonomy. Littlewood, W. (1996). "Autonomy": An anatomy and a framework. *System*, 24(4), 427-435.

In another graph below, Littlewood (1996) expresses the overlapping points of the domains and areas of autonomy. He prefers employing a circle as he accentuates the interrelation between those domains and components. He exemplifies the issue stating that the linguistic creativity is mainly related to autonomy as a communicator; however, it also fosters the autonomy as a person.

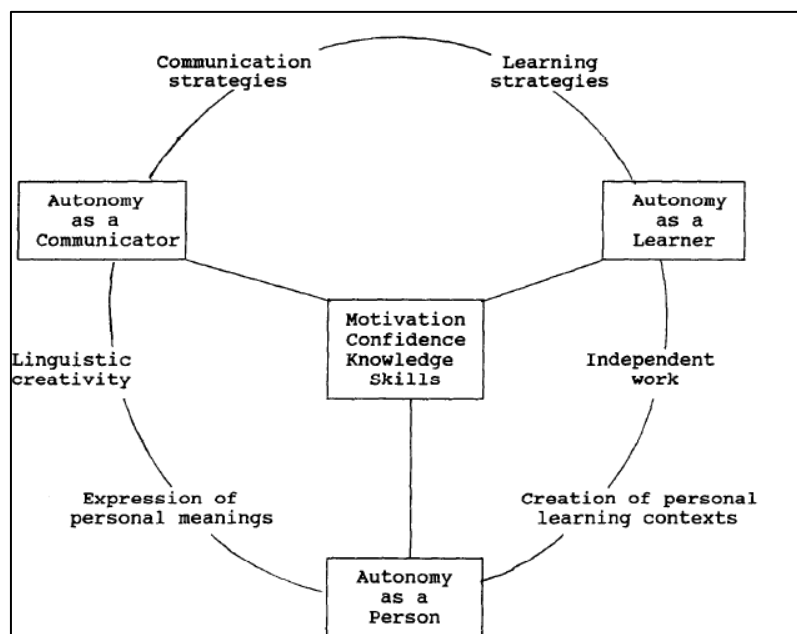


Figure 26. Overlapping points of the domains and areas of autonomy. Littlewood, W. (1996). "Autonomy": An anatomy and a framework. *System*, 24(4), 427-435.

Under the title of autonomy as a learner, autonomy as a reader can be attached to the edge of the graph above. Going along with the relationship between autonomy as a learner and learning autonomy in Figure 23, reading strategies are likewise associated with autonomy as a reader.

Autonomy in Reading

Having many references to various dimensions of human life, from psychology to education, autonomy also takes part and creates attention in reading classes. Benson (2001) defines autonomy in reading as learners controlling in what way they read, such as setting their own reading pace or deciding what comprehension tasks to complete. He stresses the importance of recognizing three levels at which learner control may be exercised: "learning management, cognitive processes and learning content" (Benson, 2001, p. 50, cited in Matsubara& Lehtinen, 2007).

Matsubara and Lehtinen (2007) define autonomy in reading by taking Benson's definition into centre. In their study, the three levels given in Benson's definition are associated with

reading contexts, claiming that the term ‘learning management’ turns into the learners controlling the way they read “such as setting their own reading pace or deciding what comprehension tasks to complete” (Benson, 2001, cited in Matsubara & Lehtinen, 2007 p. 50). Likewise, ‘cognitive processes’ are related to the learners’ perceiving their own reading, and ‘learning content’ is claimed to deal with reading topics to be selected by learners to read. They state that learners in a reading classroom should be allowed to decide what to read and which activities to fulfil according to their interests and language ability.

Reading is considered to be a receptive and rather a passive skill which necessitates comprehending a received message rather than producing language elements. Arguing that, Jaisook (2015) states that learners need to be active in reading classes, and autonomy is necessary to be developed as they depend more on their own in reading classes. However, as autonomy in reading is rather a new field still needs to be studied on, there are few studies to reveal and promote autonomy in reading. One of these rare studies on autonomy in reading is conducted by Johnson, the founder of The English Language Institute at Kanda University of International Studies in Japan, and it took place in Matsubara and Lehtinen’s research in 2007. According to Johnson, focusing on autonomy, flexibility in the way, the speed and the route of learning; learners’ decision of which tasks to accomplish, and learners’ taking responsibility on their own progress and achievement are significant in shifting the classroom environment from teacher-centred to student-centred. These three components are claimed to foster autonomy in Matsubara and Lehtinen’s research, and they handle autonomy in reading placing those three components in the centre.

To enable autonomy in reading classes, Hart (2002) and Sinclair (1996) propose two levels which learners pass through; reactive and proactive levels. The reactive level is the preparation level of the learners for autonomy. They are guided to set goals for reading and

arrange plans to reach them. On the other hand, at the proactive level learners become responsible of their own learning through reading.

Developing Autonomy

Upon defining autonomy, researchers also studied on how to develop and promote it. Nunan (2000) stresses that autonomy is an on-going process, and it can be developed. Lee(1998) points out five factors which are significant in developing autonomy.

Voluntariness: It is a necessity for enabling independence, as reluctant learners are claimed to take less advantage of learning than volunteers (Lee &Ng, 1994). Littlewood (1996) calls it willingness and focuses on the same point expressing that learners can only be independent when they feel motivated and self-confident about taking responsibility. Motivation influences the way learners approach a task (Butcher & Kintsch, 2003; Schallert & Martin, 2003), and self-confidence is necessary for learners to take initiatives and be more active (Noels, Pon & Clement, 1996).

Learner choice: As Holec (1981) emphasizes, autonomy means the ability to make decisions in learning, including setting objectives, defining contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques, monitoring the procedure, and evaluating the outcome of learning. In reference to the definition of Dam (1990) and Wenden (1998), autonomous learners are supposed to make predictions, create hypothesis, decide on the methods and techniques and assess their performance. Learner choice refers to the managing and operating skills on learners' own learning process mentioned above.

Each learner is unique in terms of the characteristics he/she possesses and the way he/she learns (Butcher & Kintsch, 2003; Fletcher, Tobias & Wisher, 2007; Narvaez, 2002). Learner's prior knowledge, which is shaped by the culture and the previous experiences, is among these characteristics (Fletcher et al., 2002).

Another characteristic of learners is their learning styles which are defined as the “consistent and enduring” ways (Brown, 2007, p. 264) the individuals get, keep and reuse the information, changing from one individual to another (Felder&Henriques, 1995). They are regarded as the general approaches that are implemented in learning a new subject (Oxford, 1990) and are effective in developing autonomy (Carr, 2013). Carr points out that when learners recognize their learning style preferences, they can manage, plan, monitor and evaluate their learning, which results in autonomy and on-going learning. In 1976, Reichert put forward the idea that there were four basic “perceptual learning channels” (cited in Reid, 1987, p. 89): visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile, which later have been known as sensory preferences under the title of learning styles. Visual learners are reported to prefer working with more visual materials while auditory learners feel more comfortable with oral instructions and materials. Likewise, movement is said to be necessary for kinaesthetic learners who learn better when they move in the classroom, and tactile learners are said to perform better when they experience the actual sensation of touching.

Another point to be considered regarding learners is the eight types of personality, which are based on the work of Oxford (1990). Extraverted learners are motivated from the external world, and they like being social, in contrast to the introverted learners who prefer solitariness and like studying alone. Intuitive (random) learners like to deal with abstract things and fictions while sensing-sequential learners prefer facts. Thinking learners are behind the truth, indifferent to the others’ feelings, on the other hand, feeling learners value other people, and they show empathy. Finally, closure-oriented learners want to reach the result swiftly; however, open learners feel more flexible about their responsibilities.

Flexibility: Flexibility in learning environment is claimed to affect the learning process (Esch 1996). Lee (1998) asserts that giving learners the freedom of changing the objectives, contents or the process of learning according to their needs develops autonomy. Involving learners and enabling them that flexibility in classroom environment contributes

to the development of learner autonomy in language classrooms (Balçıkanlı, 2006). Nunan (1999) also states that autonomy alters classrooms by making them learner-centred rather than teacher-centred, and flexibility in classroom gives learners the opportunity to take responsibilities. Materials utilized are also necessary in terms of autonomy. Sinclair (1996) highlights that the design of materials fosters the independence. The materials prepared should be flexible enough to allow the learners move independently (Little, 1990), and they should appeal to the interests of the learners to be motivating (Lee, 1996). McGarry (1995) emphasizes the effect of authentic materials on autonomy stating that they provide opportunities for learners to meet their learning needs. In addition to the classroom environment and materials, the learning program applied is also necessary in terms of autonomy development. Cotterall (1995) claims that autonomy cannot be integrated in an existing learning program. In contrast, she proposes that the entire curriculum should be shaped in accordance with autonomy development.

Teacher support: The main aim of developing autonomy is to promote learners be independent in their learning processes; however, teachers are crucial to enable this independency (Little, 1991; Kelly 1996). Barfield et al.(2001, p. 3) point out that “the ability to behave autonomously for learners is dependent upon their teacher creating a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted”. On the edge of being autonomous, the learners require some level of coaching and guiding particularly in terms of setting clear goals, getting feedback and reinforcement (Lee, 1998; Matsubara & Lehtinen, 2007). The teachers’ role changes from an expert to a facilitator (Little, 1991) and their being supportive and encouraging motivates learners to get more involved and take more initiative. Little (1991) suggests that it is necessary for teachers to guide learners set their own goals and decide on the appropriate activities to help the learners be autonomous. In addition, monitoring and assessing the learning are the points that the learners should be promoted to handle.

Similar to the learning styles, teaching styles are also effective in developing autonomy. In their study in 1995, Felder and Henriques found out that learners develop negative attitudes towards learning when their learning styles do not correspond with the teacher's teaching style. Pointing out the same issue, Reid (1987, p. 91) expresses that "the frustration or even the failure in the classrooms" may not be just because of the materials used, but the mismatch of the teaching and learning styles. In order to provide all learners with equal opportunity and to hinder losing any learners who have mismatching learning styles with the teaching style, Felder and Henriques (1995) suggest the teacher appeal to all learning styles.

Peer support: As Dam views (1995), learner autonomy has a social dimension which necessitates individuals' being in cooperation with others. Learning does not take place in an isolated environment; interaction, communication and cooperation are the indispensable factors in learning (Pemberton, 1996). Peer support or "interaction, negotiation and collaboration with others" has a profound effect on autonomy (Lee, 1998, p. 286). Besides interacting with other learners in classroom, technology, by means of social media applications, also provide options for learners to socialize. Louis (2006) notifies that having others around to consult promotes and encourages learners who are in need of feedback.

In addition to the factors mentioned above, proposed by Lee (1998), Benson (2001) outlines some approaches to develop autonomy:

- Resource based approaches lay the emphasis on independent interaction with resources and materials,
- Technology based approaches accentuate independent interaction with educational technologies,
- Learner based approaches focus on the behavioural and psychological changes in the learner,

- Classroom based approaches stress the learner management on planning and evaluation,
- Curriculum based approaches highlight the learner management on the curriculum,
- Teacher based approaches focus on the teacher's effect in education (cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006, p. 36)

Various researchers focus on some other elements which are also effective in developing autonomy. Cottterall (1995) proposes that talking about learning fosters autonomy. Building up dialogues on learning between learners and teachers may result in establishing personal relationship, which has supportive and encouraging effect on developing autonomy. Below, there is a sample activity proposed by Cottterall (1995).

| | |
|--|---|
| Appendix Sample strategy task—speaking course¹ | <p>a Read the list of language learning problems in Table 1.</p> <p>b Work with a partner to brainstorm solutions to each problem.</p> <p>c Look at the list of solutions presented in Table 2, and discuss each one.</p> <p>d Modify the solutions in any way you like, and then try and match them to selected problems.</p> <p>e Be prepared to report back to the class.</p> |
| Table 1 | <p>Problems</p> <p>I can't find the right words.</p> <p>I don't know how to make good sentences.</p> <p>I want to use a greater variety of sentences.</p> <p>I don't speak smoothly enough or fast enough.</p> <p>I don't have much confidence to speak.</p> <p>I translate when I speak and listen.</p> <p>I want to use native speaker expressions and not just speak in learner language.</p> |
| Table 2 | <p>Solutions</p> <p>Get involved in lots of social activities.</p> <p>Read a range of simple, interesting texts.</p> <p>Study vocabulary lists.</p> <p>Never pay attention to grammar.</p> <p>Do lots of intensive comprehensive activities when you read and listen.</p> <p>Ask your conversation partner(s) for feedback.</p> <p>Only talk with native speakers.</p> <p>Talk often about familiar topics.</p> <p>Talk about texts you have read.</p> <p>Learn appropriate ways to interrupt and to express misunderstanding.</p> <p>Pay attention to the form of language you hear.</p> <p>Spend most of your time studying hard by yourself.</p> <p>Regularly review your progress.</p> <p>When you are having a conversation, check that your conversation partners understands you.</p> |

Figure 27. A sample activity for talking about learning. Cotterall, S. (1995). Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. *ELT Journal*, 49(3), 219-227.

Littlewood (1996) accentuates the knowledge and skills learners possess. He states that when learners have more knowledge and skills they feel more confident, and this confidence can lead them to perform more independently. Little (2009) views the European Language Portfolio (ELP) as an important tool for developing autonomy. ELP is defined as all the works learners have done, which are accepted as their property (Council of Europe, 2006). As it necessitates setting goals, monitoring and self-assessment, it is accepted as an effective means of developing autonomy (Little, 2006). Matsubara and Lehinen (2007) assert that culture and autonomy have a direct relationship. Although it is not always easy to make adjustments in the culture—in its broad meaning—of the learners, teachers may work on developing a classroom culture which fosters independency and accordingly autonomy.

Strategy Instruction and Autonomy

Apart from the factors listed above, strategy instruction is proposed as one of the most effective ways to develop autonomy (Louis, 2006). Dam (1990) defines the autonomous learners as those who independently set goals, determine materials and techniques to utilize, monitor, repair and evaluate their learning processes. Taking the Dam's (1990) definition as basis, Louis (2006) outlines the features of autonomous learners. He states that they are aware of their own learning style and strategies, they have the ability to choose materials and techniques to utilize and they are willing to manage their own learning processes.

To develop autonomy, making the learners be aware of these strategies and helping them implement those strategies are the main points (Louis, 2006). This is claimed to be possible through strategy instruction (Sinclair, 1996), which informs learners about the necessary strategies to overcome the difficulty of learning and the ways to take initiative to become more effective learners (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989).

Implementing strategies intentionally requires control over learning, and to make that control possible, learners need to be aware of their own learning process and be eager to

manage it, which results in autonomy. In her definition of autonomy, Wenden (1991) also describes autonomous learners as the ones who apply the appropriate learning strategies independently and self-confidently. Agreeing with that idea, numerous researchers point out that strategy instruction holds great promise for the development of autonomy (Chamot, 2005, Cohen, 2007; Figura& Jarvis, 2007; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Wenden, 1991).

Previous Studies On Autonomy

Since it was introduced in the learning context, autonomy has been an attractive topic for researchers studying learning process. They handled various aspects of autonomy ranging from its effects on the learning process to the developed attitudes towards it.

In terms of learners' attitudes towards autonomy, Gündoğdu (1997) carried out a study on primary school students, which aimed to reveal the development of autonomy in their learning process from the point of their relations with teachers. He applied observations and a questionnaire, and the results showed that when the teachers became the facilitator and supported the students' self-confidence, students became more independent. In another study conducted by Oh (2002), the relation between the beliefs of learners and autonomy was handled. He worked with Korean learners using observations, interviews, email correspondence and open consultations to gather data. The findings of the study indicated that learning beliefs and autonomy were closely associated and learners' positive beliefs on autonomy supported and enhanced the autonomous learning actions. Chan (2001) also studied on the learners' attitudes towards autonomy with 20 learners in Hong Kong. He included their expectations of language learning and the roles of teachers and learners. The data was gathered by a questionnaire. The findings of the study revealed that the learners created awareness on the allocated roles in that new way of learning in accordance with the autonomy.

Besides the learners' attitudes, teachers or student teachers' views also became a subject to various studies in different contexts. In 2010, Balçıkanlı focused on student teachers' beliefs on learner autonomy with 112 university students. A questionnaire developed by Camilleri (1997) and interviews were implemented. The results indicated that student teachers had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy; however, most of them declared that they would not prefer their future students intervene the selection of materials or the course content. As the implications of the study, the educators of the student teachers were recommended to involve their students in decision learning processes to provide modelling.

Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) also conducted a similar project in Omani context, in association with British Council, on teachers' attitudes towards autonomy. They utilized questionnaires and interviews with 61 teachers of English working for a university. According to the results, the teachers were reported to perceive learner autonomy as strategies for independent and individual learning. They were reported to believe in the efficiency of autonomy; however, they also stated that practicability of autonomy was not always possible. Another point stressed in the study was the obstacles for developing autonomy. Teachers were reported to believe that lack of motivation and limited experience could hinder autonomy. Speak of obstacles; the study also revealed that an inflexible curriculum was also a limitation for developing autonomy. Apart from obtaining teacher's views on autonomy, the project also included professional development workshops on learner autonomy for the participants. In terms of including both a problem detection and a solution, Borg and Al-Busaidi's (2012) project constituted a model for the following researches.

Chan (2003) conducted a study on the teachers' attitudes towards learner autonomy as well. To understand their perspectives of how responsibility is allocated in their classrooms, he implemented a survey to 41 English teachers. According to the results

teachers intended to take responsibility more on themselves, still they had positive attitudes towards learners' autonomy.

In Özdere's study in 2005, the university instructors' attitudes towards autonomy were handled. The study was carried out with 72 instructors, and he implemented a questionnaire to gather the data. The results showed that the instructors had neutral feelings towards autonomy, and their attitudes showed some alterations according to the various areas of learning.

Apart from the learners' and teachers' attitudes towards it, several studies were implemented to find out the ways to promote autonomy. In 1998, Lee carried out a study with 15 learners in Hong Kong. According to the results of the study, in which several suggested materials and activities were used in order to promote autonomy, the self-directed programs were reported to be inefficient alone in promoting learners to be self-directed, and it became clear that the motivation and willingness were also necessary in learners' taking more responsibility, thus in their being autonomous .

Focusing on the materials to be exploited to promote autonomy, in 2011, Reinders and Balçıkanlı carried out a study on course books in order to reveal how supportive they are in classroom environment. They handled five basic text books mostly used in ELT classrooms and analysed them in terms of fostering autonomy and supporting learners independency. The results showed that the course books do not provide much opportunity for learners to develop autonomy. Egel (2003) focused on another material; European Language Portfolio (ELP). Working with teachers and students in both state and private primary schools, she studied the effect of portfolio on learner autonomy in language teaching. Implementing experimental research model, she used portfolios as the treatment for the experimental group and declared that the experimental group have become more autonomous than the control group at the end of the study.

The relationship between the learning strategies and autonomy has also attracted researchers' attention. In Şahin's study in 2005, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990) was implemented to identify the relations between metacognitive strategies and learner autonomy with 110 university students and the researcher focused on whether the students who developed metacognitive strategies were more autonomous or not. The findings revealed that students implementing of strategies better turned out to be more autonomous.

Figura and Jarvis (2007) handled the same subject in a different context. They investigated the reciprocal effect of technology using and strategy implementation and their relation with autonomy. Data generated by the questionnaires, interviews, and snap-shot observations. The participants were reported to show reasonable levels of autonomy, good metacognitive awareness and they implemented cognitive strategies appropriately when they use computer based materials in and out of the classroom.

In reading context, despite being limited, the relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in reading has also been topic to some researches. Castillo and Bonilla (2014) worked with 6 ninth grade students in Colombia to find out the relationship between reading strategies and reading autonomy. They investigated whether students showed improvement in autonomy when they determined the reading topics or not, and they utilized three specific reading strategies (skimming, scanning, and making predictions). An instruction program including the modelling and helping the students improve reading comprehension to promote reading strategies was implemented, and data were collected from three questionnaires one for each strategy. Self-assessment checklists were also applied after each instruction course, and students also took tests for the assessment of their reading achievement. At the end of the program, the learners were reported to create more awareness on reading and to develop some autonomous features such as making decisions for learning. Given the results of their studies, they reported the reading strategies as tools to help the students become autonomous. Moreover, their test results

showed a positive tendency after the strategy instruction program, which was interpreted as improvement in comprehension.

Lake and Holster (2014) conducted another study with first year university students in Japan. Through an extensive reading program, the researchers investigated the benefits of extensive reading on developing autonomous readers. The students and the teachers utilized an open source audience response system which provides students with an autonomous environment by enabling the choice of text, monitoring and writing reflections about them and teachers with a setting in which they can give feedback to students. The data were collected in three different dimensions, autonomy, motivation and reading speed. An autonomy and a motivation questionnaire were implemented at the beginning and the end of the program. The reading speed was also measured at the beginning of the semester, mid-semester and at the end of the semester. The results showed that the students gained reading speed, developed a more positive L2 reading self and increased L2 reading motivation. By enabling the students read out of the classroom voluntarily, the program was also reported to foster reading autonomy.

Matsubara and Lehtinen (2007) described a study conducted at Kanda University in Japan, where a reading program was designed by Dr. Francis Johnson to promote reading autonomy. In their first year, students followed a curriculum, Basic Reading, which consists of a mixture of real and authentic texts. The students were introduced to reactive autonomy by giving the opportunity to decide on the materials to be used. In order to evaluate the perception of learner autonomy in Basic Reading, Matsubara and Lehtinen implemented a questionnaire in the middle of the second semester. The students were reported to find the new curriculum different from their high school reading. Most of the students declared feeling responsible for their learning, which was also interpreted as autonomy (Littlewood, 1999). Providing the learners with the opportunity of determination on materials also referred to an important step in developing autonomy (Benson, 2001;

Nunan, 2000). Continuously they followed an Advanced Reading course in their second year, which enabled the progression from reactive to proactive autonomy.

In Japanese context, Mason (2006) searched the relation between extensive reading and autonomy. The learners were explicitly informed about extensive reading in advance. The books to be read were all decided by the learners themselves according to their interests. They were not asked to summarize, but just to keep a record of the book they had read. They were not even supposed to finish every book they started. The participants volunteered to continue reading on their own, after the class. As an instrument, TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), ITP (Institutional Testing Program), which was constructed from previously administered TOEFL tests, and an autonomy scale were implemented. The results revealed that reading was effective in vocabulary and grammar, and the learners were reported to become more autonomous language acquirers with extensive reading.

Conclusion

In the literature review chapter, the literature relevant to the current study was presented. The chapter started with the literature on reading as a skill. It included reading comprehension as well as the mechanic reading skills. Types of reading were also described in detail in this chapter. The chapter was followed by literature on reading strategy instruction which constitutes the basis of the study. Each strategy included in the instruction was defined, and some sample methods and techniques to be used in strategy instruction were included in this part of the study. As the next part, autonomy in EFL reading was presented. It consisted of the domains and levels of autonomy as well as the techniques presented to develop it. The chapter was concluded with the previous studies on reading strategy instruction and autonomy in EFL reading. Some researches done previously in different contexts were presented as samples.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The study focuses on the effects of reading strategy instruction on autonomy in EFL reading. The research methodology preferred to be utilized in this study will be displayed and justified in this chapter. Starting with the quantitative research design, in particular the experimental design, it subsequently will describe the research design of this study, setting and participants, data collection instrument and procedures, and the strategy instruction program.

Quantitative Research Method

This study adopts a quantitative research method which was defined as a design used to “determine the relationship between one thing, an independent variable, and another, a dependent or outcome variable, in a population” (Hopkins, 2008, p. 2), was chosen as the research design of this study. In quantitative research, the case is explained by using numbers to define the data, and the obtained data is analysed by using mathematically based methods (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002). The biggest criticism on quantitative method is that some cases, particularly the ones related to the feelings and beliefs, cannot be explained by numbers. However, Muijs (2004) opposes this point of view claiming that by using the correct instruments, those abstract concepts can also be turned into numbers.

Another important point Muijs (2004) stresses is that in quantitative research method researchers can both explain what happens and why it happens. With the correct instruments designed elaborately, a quantitative research design can be quite practical in many areas and can explain a good deal of issues under investigation. Out of the four main kinds of quantitative studies which are experimental, survey, causal-comparative and correlation, this study opts for an experimental research design, whose results are claimed to be highly generalizable.

Experimental Design

In the experimental design, the researcher aims to find out the cause of something by first isolating the cause and comparing the results obtained. In other words, the main purpose is to reveal the cause- effect relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007, p. 504), in an experimental design the researcher “deliberately controls and manipulates the conditions which determine the events, in which they are interested, introduce an intervention and measure the difference that it makes”. In an experimental design, researcher may have pre and post conditions of an experimental group, or may have both control and experimental groups. Following the identification of key variables and controlling or excluding some of them, if necessary, the researcher gives a special treatment to the experimental group while trying to hold every other variable constant. Applying the treatment, researcher does the final measurement to compare the control and experimental groups or pre and post situations and passes into the stage of generalization.

According to Kothari(2004) there are three principles of experimental designs:

The principle of replication which refers to the validity of the research. He suggests that the results will be more valid if the experiment is repeated as many times as possible.

The principle of randomization which stresses the importance of providing an equal chance of being chosen to the control or experimental group for each participant

The principle of local control which refers to dividing the field into small homogenous blocks which helps the researcher measure any contribution of each block's to the total variability of the data (Kothari, 2004, p. 39).

According to the way the samples are chosen and whether a control group is included or not, the experimental design is categorised into three groups: pre experimental design, true experimental design and quasi experimental design.

In a pre-experimental design, the researcher has only one group or one situation which is the experimental group/ situation. No control group is included. The researcher only tries to measure the difference in the experimental group/ situation after applying a treatment. Sampling is not done randomly. The researcher determines samples on purpose. On the other hand, in a true experimental design, there are both control groups/situations and experimental ones. The sampling is done randomly, which also constitutes its main difference from a quasi-experimental design. Quasi, which means "as if" in Latin, refers to the research design in which the sampling is done non-randomly. Researchers can intentionally include or exclude a group or participants, taking their characteristics into consideration.

This study is a pre-experimental study in which any difference within the experimental group is investigated. The strategy instruction constitutes the independent variable and the main objective is to measure any difference in the dependent variable, which refers to all participants constituting experimental group, before and after the treatment process.

Research Design

In this study, a pre-experimental design was implemented to explore any relations between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. Following a test, participants from Giresun and Karabuk University who constituted the experimental group got a strategy instruction for three months. At the end of the study the same test was applied to measure any effects resulted from the instruction.

As the instrument, two questionnaires measuring reading strategy use and autonomy in EFL reading were utilized. The same instruments were first applied and after a three-month period of strategy instruction they were implemented again. The results were compared and contrasted to observe any relation between autonomy in EFL reading and reading strategy instruction.

Participants

The study was conducted at Giresun and Karabük Universities, Schools of Foreign Languages. The Schools of Foreign Languages in both universities currently offer a one-year preparatory intensive English program for those majoring in English at the undergraduate level. Students who fail to pass the English language proficiency test at the beginning of the first academic year have to take a one- year intensive English program. The participants of this study were chosen through convenience sampling which is defined as including “individuals who (conveniently) are available for study” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 98). The participants, who were adult learners of English as a foreign language, were all the students registered in intensive English class of Applied English and Translation/Interpretation department in both universities. However, since some students dropped out of school and some others did not accept to take part in the study, the final number of the participants became 76 for Giresun University and 108 for Karabük University, with a total of 184. At the time the study was initiated, the participants were A2 level intensive English class students who were expected to finish the term at B1+ level according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Although all participants were in an English-based department, they had not been accepted into university via an exam testing their knowledge of English. Below, the number of participants are shown.

Table 1

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their School

| School | Number | Percent |
|--------------------|--------|---------|
| Giresun University | 76 | 41,3 |
| Karabuk University | 108 | 58,7 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 |

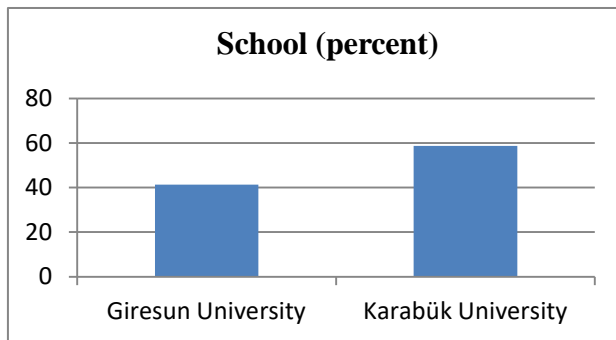


Figure 28. Distribution of participants with respect to their school (percent)

Table 2

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their Gender

| Gender | Number | Percent |
|--------|--------|---------|
| Male | 43 | 23,3 |
| Female | 141 | 76,7 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 |

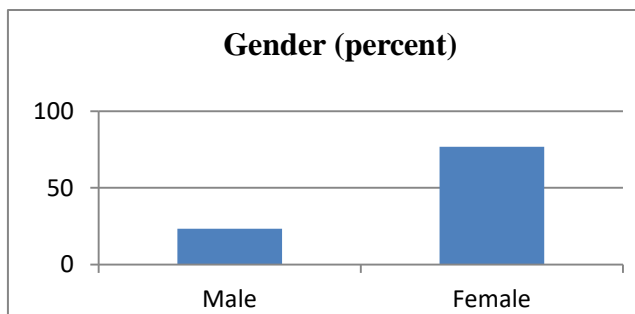


Figure 29. Distribution of participants with respect to their gender

Table 3

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their Gender and University

| | Number | | | Percent | | |
|--------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total |
| Male | 22 | 21 | 43 | 12,0 | 11,4 | 23,3 |
| Female | 54 | 87 | 141 | 29,3 | 47,3 | 76,6 |
| Total | 76 | 108 | 184 | 41,3 | 58,7 | 100,0 |

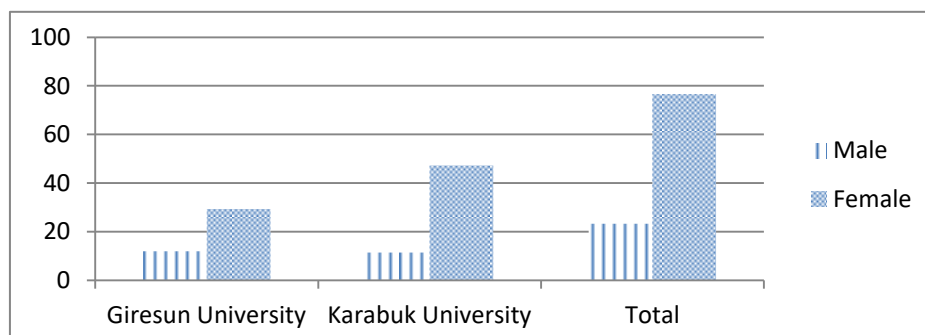
*Figure 30. Distribution of participants with respect to their gender and university (percent)*

Table 4

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their Class Hour

| | Number | | | Percent | | |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total |
| Day students | 39 | 59 | 98 | 21,2 | 32,1 | 53,3 |
| Night students | 37 | 49 | 86 | 20,1 | 26,6 | 46,7 |
| Total | 76 | 108 | 184 | 41,3 | 58,7 | 100,0 |

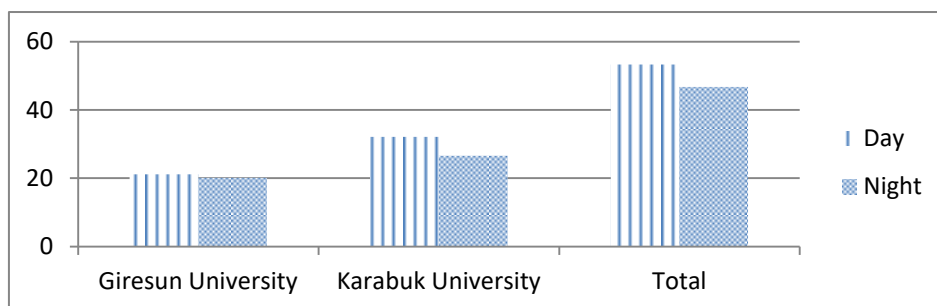


Figure 31. Distribution of participants with respect to their class hour (percent)

Table 5

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their Age Group

| | Number | | | Percent | | |
|-------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total |
| 17-20 | 52 | 74 | 126 | 28,3 | 40,2 | 68,4 |
| 21-25 | 20 | 32 | 52 | 10,9 | 17,4 | 28,3 |
| 26+ | 4 | 2 | 6 | 2,1 | 1,1 | 3,2 |
| Total | 76 | 108 | 184 | 41,3 | 58,7 | 100,0 |

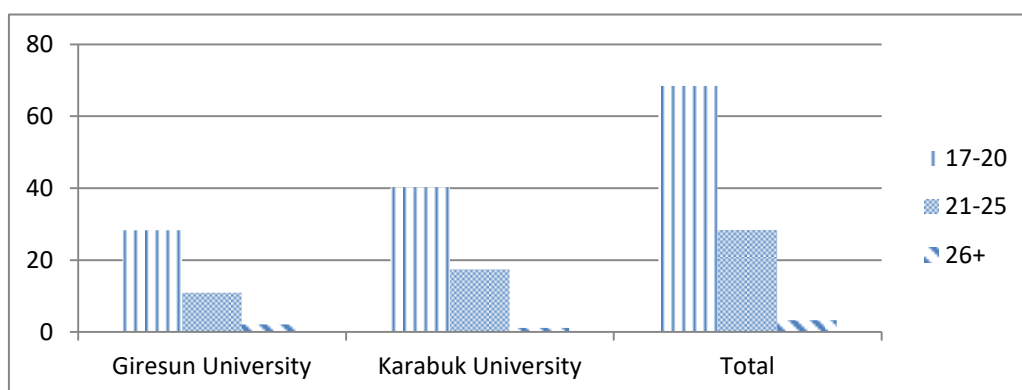


Figure 32. Distribution of participants with respect to their age group (percent)

Table 6

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their Experience in English

| | Number | | | Percent | | |
|------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total |
| 1-5 years | 4 | 5 | 9 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 4.9 |
| 6-10 years | 65 | 91 | 156 | 35.3 | 49.5 | 84.8 |
| 11+ years | 7 | 12 | 19 | 3.8 | 6.5 | 10.3 |
| Total | 76 | 108 | 184 | 41.3 | 58.7 | 100.0 |

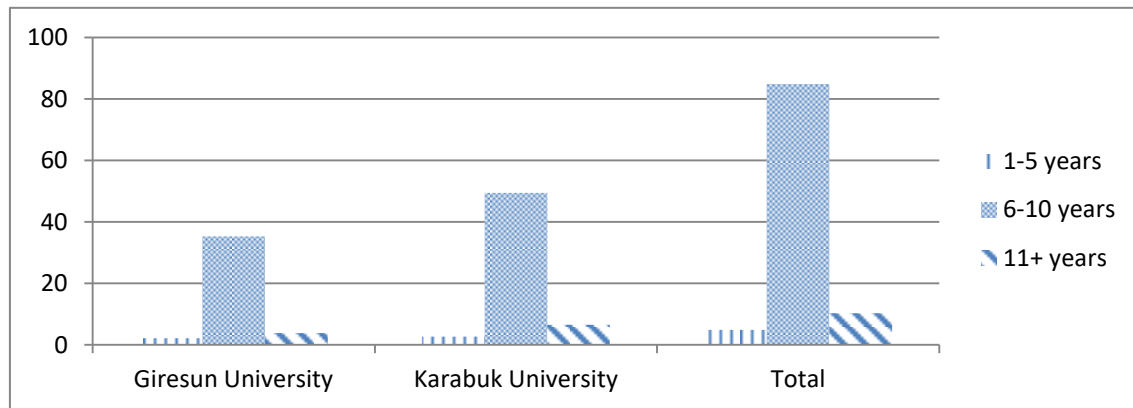


Figure 33. Distribution of participants with respect to their experience in English (percent)

Table 7

Distribution of Participants with Respect to Their School of Graduation

| | Number | | | Percent | | |
|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|--------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total | Giresun University | Karabuk University | Total |
| General H. S. | 11 | 9 | 20 | 6,0 | 4,9 | 10,8 |
| Anatolian H. S. | 43 | 58 | 101 | 23,4 | 31,5 | 54,9 |
| Private H. S. | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| Vocational H. S. | 21 | 39 | 60 | 11,4 | 21,2 | 32,6 |
| Other | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0,5 | 0 | 0,5 |
| Total | 76 | 108 | 184 | 41,3 | 58,7 | 100,0 |

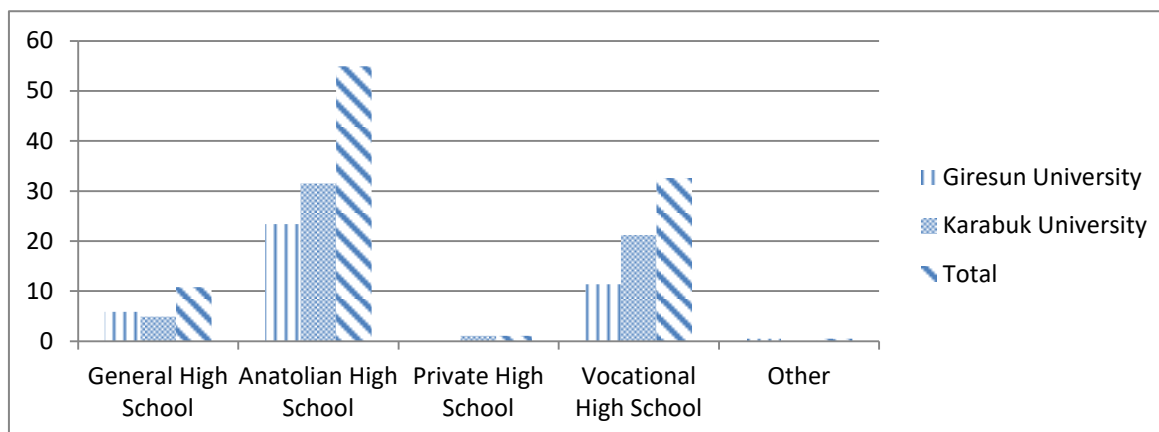


Figure 34. Distribution of participants according to their school of graduation (percent)

Context of the Study

The current study was conducted in two different settings, which are Giresun University School of Foreign Languages and Karabuk University School of Foreign Languages. The aim of both schools is to teach English for general purposes and to help students develop four main skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in a one-year intensive English class education. The participants of this study were the students of the Department of Applied English and Translation/Interpretation who were getting compulsory intensive English class in the schools mentioned above.

Both of the schools provide day and night classes for their students. Day classes are between 09:00 a.m. and 05:00 p.m., and night classes are from 05:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m.. The language curriculum followed is based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which aims to prepare learners for the real world where they will need to use the language to communicate and produce academic works. Therefore, all skills have great importance in that one-year program. The learners studying in both universities have 24 hours of English classes per week. Throughout the semester, they have separate quizzes, midterms, finals and portfolios, and at the end of the year they take a proficiency exam which is the main criteria to determine whether the learners finish the intensive English class or they will retake it.

Instrumentation

The main elements of this current study are reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. To measure the effect of the independent variable, which refers to the reading strategy instruction, on the dependent one, autonomy in EFL reading, two different surveys, with 61 items in total, were utilized (See appendices 1 and 2).

The survey of Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) (SORS) was taken as the basis to measure the reading strategy usage of the learners. To adapt it to the reading strategy classification of Neufeld (2005), 12 items have been added from the survey of Dreyer and Nel, (2003).

To measure autonomy in EFL reading, the survey designed by Alyas (2011), which was stated to be modified and adjusted from the studies of Barnett (1989), Dafei (2007), Oxford and Burry-stock (1995), Qiufang (2001), Taraban (2006), and Xu (2009) was applied.

The questionnaires also consist introduction parts which include personal information about the participants such as gender, age, school of graduation and the duration of learning English. The participants' names and contact details were not asked in order to assure confidentiality.

The second and third parts of the questionnaires include a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'never' to 'always'. To provide our participants with the opportunity to better understand the items of the questionnaires and to enhance practicability of the present thesis, the questionnaires were translated into Turkish.

In order to find out whether or not the participants easily comprehend what the questionnaire required them to do, whether or not each item was of their level of understanding, and how long the answering process lasts, a pilot study was implemented with 20 students from Giresun University. It illustrated that the questionnaire was comprehensive enough for the participants to reflect their performance and appeal to their level of understanding.

The administration of the pilot study also allowed the researcher to decide on the time to be given to participants to complete the whole survey, it also made it possible to find the reliability coefficient for the questionnaire by making the Cronbach Alpha Analysis. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha Analysis) for the two parts of the questionnaire were as follows:

Reading strategies part ($\alpha = 0.96$)

Autonomy in EFL reading part ($\alpha = 0.92$)

As seen above, the parts of the questionnaire, "reading strategies" and "autonomy in EFL reading" had quite a high level of reliability.

Procedure for Data Collection

Prior to the data collection process, the researcher applied for the permission of Gazi University Ethics Commission and the commission approved that this study conformed to the ethical principles of Gazi University (See appendix 3). The participants of this study were chosen through convenience sampling. Being a lecturer at Giresun University School of Foreign Languages, the researcher expected to implement the study with her own students. The students had been informed about this study by the researcher assuring that their answers would only be used for the purposes of that research study, neither they would be shared by any other people or institutions nor would they have any negative effect on their grades.

Following that, the researcher contacted the respondents from Karabuk University School of Foreign Language through a colleague who was teaching in this department. After getting the permission from the school administration, the students were made the same explanations about the study and the privacy of their answers.

The participants in both settings were also informed that taking part in the study was a matter of voluntariness and that they could drop out at any time they like. After being

informed, all participants were given official consent forms (see Appendix 4). During the conduct, the researcher and her colleague were available in classes in case of a need for clarification.

A small number of students did not accept to take part in the study and some few participants did not take the final test although they took part in the whole process; hence, they were excluded from the study.

The Instruction Program

Following the implementation of the questionnaires as the pre-test, the participants were given a 13-week strategy instruction including 15 reading strategies, all of which were introduced with the same activities in both universities (see Table 8). The strategy instruction was included in the reading classes of both schools. Following the strategy instruction process, the same questionnaires were implemented as the final test of the study.

Table 8

Weekly Schedule for Strategy instruction

| Weeks | Strategies covered | Techniques | Activities |
|-------|--------------------------------|---|---|
| 1 | Pre-test | -- | -- |
| 2 | Setting purpose goals | a and Choosing a purpose for yourself | Fake goals |
| 3 | Activating prior knowledge | Finding out what we have learnt or heard about the topic before | KWL chart What do I already know about it? |
| 4 | Previewing, Skimming, Scanning | Checking the picture, headings, captions and the title Reading the first and last sentences Finding the topic sentence Finding the main idea Distinguishing main ideas from the details | |

| | | | |
|----|--|---|---------------------------------------|
| 5 | Making predictions | Finding the supporting ideas | |
| | | Finding a heading/ title | |
| | | Finding information | |
| | | Underlining names, dates, numbers | |
| | | Guessing from the pictures | Stop and guess |
| | | Guessing from the title | Guess the rest |
| 6 | Questioning | Guessing the end of the story | |
| | | Finding the key words to guess the topic | |
| | | | |
| 7 | Monitoring and repairing comprehension | Creating thick and thin questions | Thin and thick questions |
| | | Answering thick and thin questions | |
| | | Stopping and questioning the text | |
| 8 | Making connections (text to self, text to text, text to world) | Slowing down and re-reading, | There is a part I don't understand... |
| | | Reading aloud | |
| | | Using context clues | Stop, ask, fix |
| 9 | Attending to text structure | Checking the previous guesses about the text | |
| | | Classroom discussion | |
| | | Checking the subject's and characters' familiarity | Connection maker form |
| 10 | Visualizing | Checking the style's familiarity | |
| | | Checking the text's resemblance to the other texts | |
| | | Finding out what the text reminds you | |
| 11 | Using graphic organizers | Finding out each text structure | Use graphs to explain |
| | | Finding out key words for each text structure | |
| | | | |
| 12 | Annotating | Drawing a picture | My mental image |
| | | Drawing charts, tables or graphics | |
| | | Showing connection between ideas | Read and draw |
| 13 | Summarizing | Making a list of main points | |
| | | Prioritizing important parts | |
| | | Underlining or highlight the words | |
| | | Using mark margins (?!_) | |
| | | Underlining and circling important parts | |
| | | Using diagrams and arrows | |
| 13 | Summarizing | Sequencing the events | |
| | | Summarizing the text with limited number of words | |
| | | Deciding the key words in a text | |
| | | Reduce the text to a single word, phrase or quotation | |
| | | Listing key words and phrases from the text under some headings | |
| 13 | Summarizing | Paraphrasing | |
| | | | |

| | | | |
|----|---------------------|---|--|
| 14 | Self- Assessment | Asking questions to yourself Giving self-feedback about own reading performance Filling in observation form Finding out what is understood and what is not | Self-assessment check list My self monitoring form |
| 15 | Post-test | -- | |

Conclusion

This chapter focused on the methodological framework of this study. The profile of the participants and the contexts where the study was conducted were then explained. A detailed instruction program followed the procedure for the data collection, and the information about the instruments used for data collection was also presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This section includes the research questions followed by the statistics regarding them and their analysis. Thenceforth, the findings for each research question will be discussed respectively. The chapter will conclude with some further remarks on the findings of the study.

Data Analysis

The data collected in this study were analysed quantitatively in order to reveal any relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS. 20) was implemented to analyse the collected data. Initially, descriptive statistics were utilized to find out the strategies which were mainly employed by the participants before and after the strategy instruction. A Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) was then used to see if there was any statistically significant relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. In addition, T-test was used to determine any significant difference in utilizing reading strategies and learners' being autonomous before and after the strategy instruction. Additionally, any significant difference between male and female learners in their using reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading was also analysed using T-test.

Rationale for the Use of Parametric Tests

To determine whether parametric or non-parametric tests would be more appropriate to analyze the available data, a test of normality was performed, administering Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test. An overview of the results indicates that the data in this study indicated a non-normal distribution. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, all the independent variables in the study except for the one related to the autonomy had values which were statistically significant ($p < .05$), specifying that these tests produced non-normal distribution. Furthermore, Saphiro-Wilk test also revealed that tests were not normally distributed ($p < .05$) as they had statistically significant scores. The results can be viewed in Table 9.

Table 9

Tests of Normality

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----|------|--------------|-----|------|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| pre_setting_purpose | ,180 | 184 | ,000 | ,901 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_previous_knowledge | ,164 | 184 | ,000 | ,936 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_previewing_skim_scan | ,239 | 184 | ,000 | ,892 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_predicting | ,197 | 184 | ,000 | ,915 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_monitoring_repairing_comp | ,215 | 184 | ,000 | ,903 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_making_connection | ,213 | 184 | ,000 | ,894 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_attending_textstructure | ,209 | 184 | ,000 | ,903 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_visualizing | ,317 | 184 | ,000 | ,770 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_using_graphic_organizers | ,286 | 184 | ,000 | ,841 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_annotating_notetaking | ,294 | 184 | ,000 | ,779 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_summarizing | ,400 | 184 | ,000 | ,671 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_questioning | ,211 | 184 | ,000 | ,919 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_self_evaluation | ,240 | 184 | ,000 | ,915 | 184 | ,000 |
| pre_autonomy | ,060 | 184 | ,100 | ,987 | 184 | ,095 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The analysis revealed a quite normally distributed data with only slight non-normally distributed figures. For this non-normality, Pallant (2010) asserts that this is not an unusual situation for large participant groups, and histograms or normal probability plots (Q-Q plots) should be taken into consideration. The figures below are the probability plots of each variable included in the study.

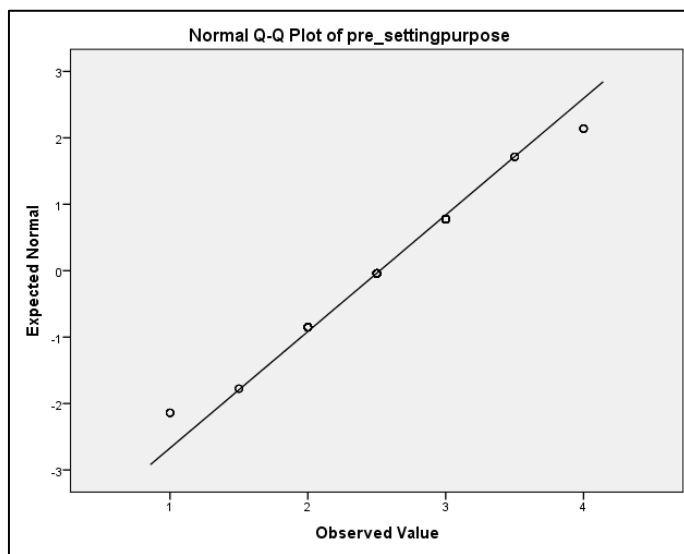


Figure 35. Normal probability plots of the test of setting purpose as a reading strategy

The data of setting purpose as a reading strategy shown above indicates a reasonably straight line of scores suggesting that the data seems to be normally distributed. Therefore, parametric tests can be used for it.

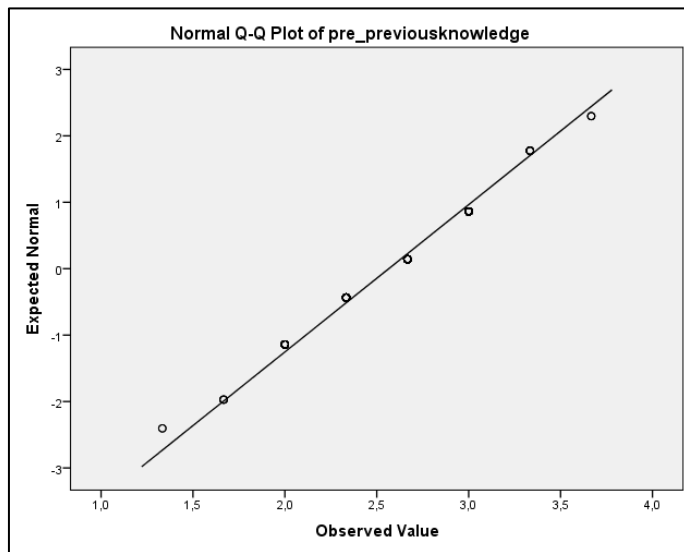


Figure 36. Normal probability plots of the test of activating previous knowledge as a reading strategy

Figure 36 shows a nearly perfect straight line of scores which can be interpreted as the data of predicting as a reading strategy seems to be normally distributed as well.

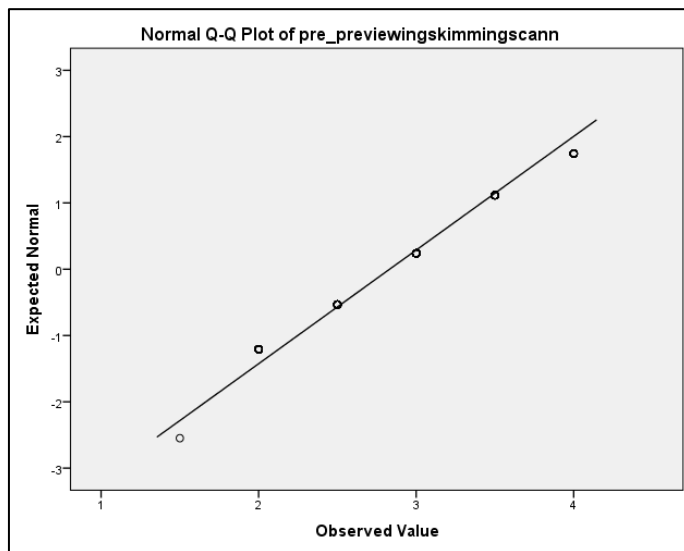


Figure 37. Normal probability plots of the test of previewing, skimming and scanning as reading strategies

Likewise, the data which refer to previewing, skimming and scanning as reading strategies shown in Figure 34 has a normal distribution when the Q-Q plots observed.

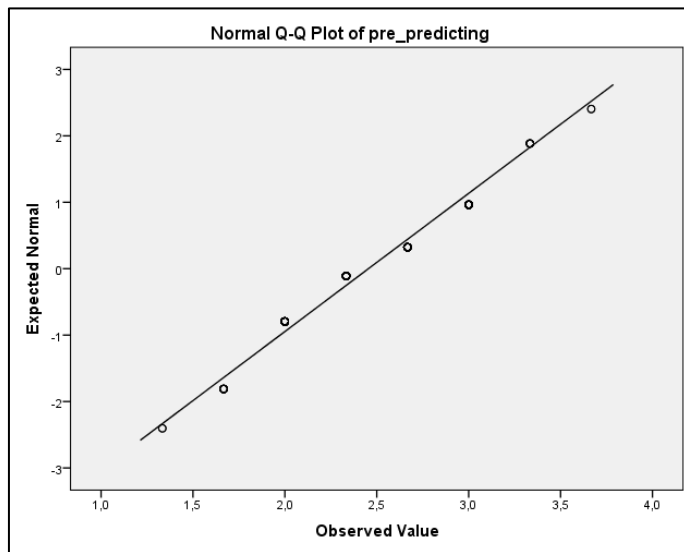


Figure 38. Normal probability plots of the test of predicting as a reading strategy

The plots referring to the scores of predicting as a reading strategy shown in Figure 38 also take place on a straight line, indicating a normal distribution for this test as well.

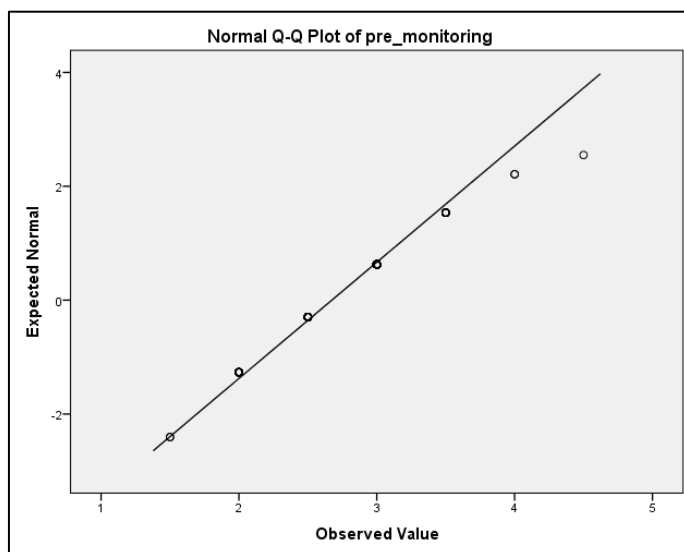


Figure 39. Normal probability plots of the test of monitoring and repairing comprehension as a reading strategy

In Figure 39, a reasonably straight line with a small deviation can be observed, and therefore monitoring and repairing comprehension as a reading strategy data can also be said to display a normal distribution.

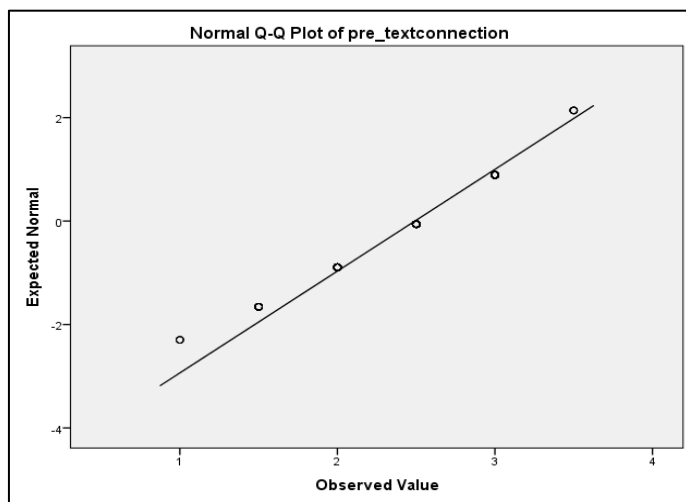


Figure 40. Normal probability plots of the test of making connections as a reading strategy

The Q-Q plots of making connections as a reading strategy in Figure 40 also present similar results to the previous ones. The test scores being on a straight line refer to a normally distributed data of making connections as a reading strategy.

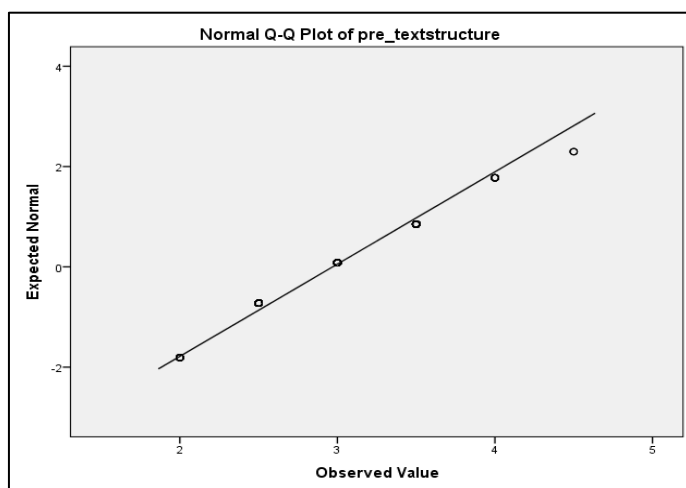


Figure 41. Normal probability plots of the test of attending to text structure as a reading strategy

Figure 41above belongs to the Q-Q plots of attending to text structure as a reading strategy. With the test scores on a straight line, it reflects a normally distributed data of attending to text structure as a reading strategy.

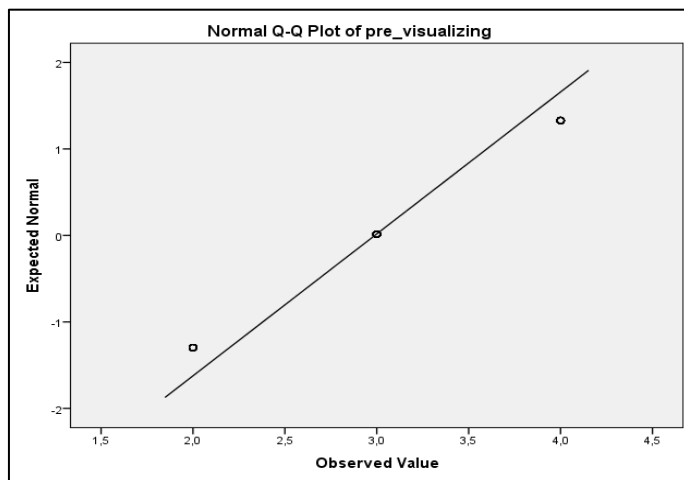


Figure 42. Normal probability plots of the test of visualizing as a reading strategy

The data regarding the test of visualizing as a reading strategy also displays a reasonably normal distribution with overlapping scores and only small deviations from the line. This can be viewed in Figure 42 above.

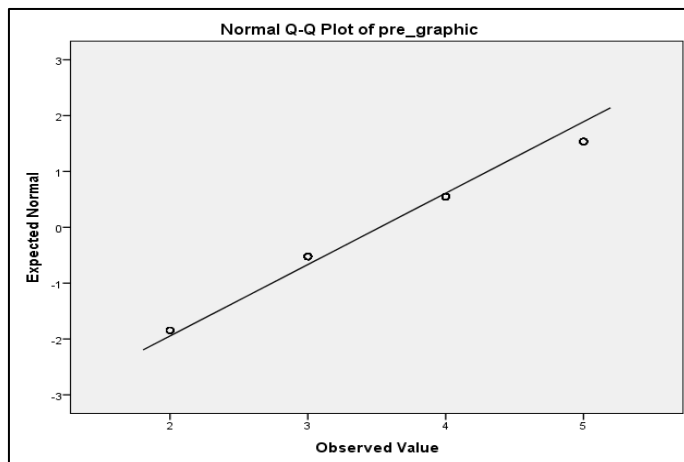


Figure 43. Normal probability plots of the test of using graphic organizers as a reading strategy

In Figure 43, the plots of using graphic organizers display a quite normal distribution being almost on the straight line.

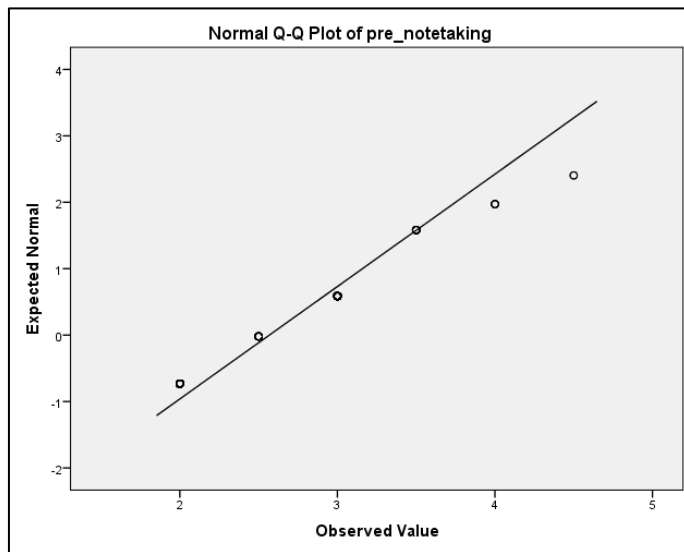


Figure 44. Normal probability plots of the test of annotating/note taking as a reading strategy

Similar to the scores of using graphic organizers, test of annotating/note taking as a reading strategy in Figure 44 shows some minor deviations from the line; however, as the scores are still on the straight line to a good extent, Figure 44 can be said to display a normally distributed data as well.

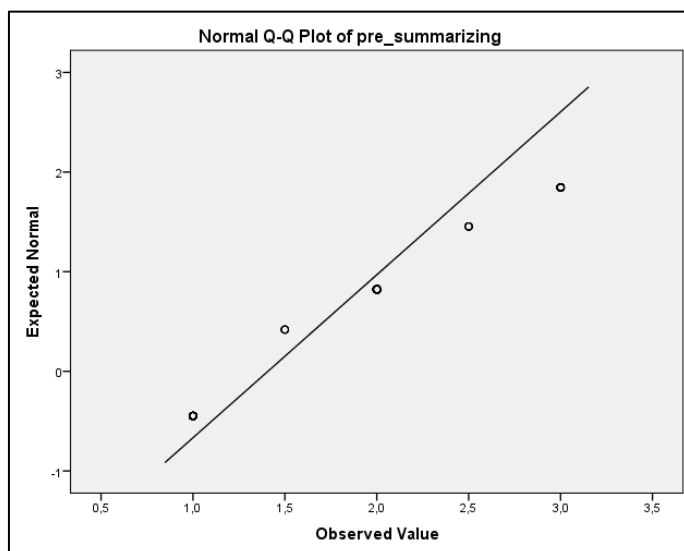


Figure 45. Normal probability plots of the test of summarizing as a reading strategy

Figure 45 above belongs to the Q-Q plots of summarizing as a reading strategy. Although there are some deviations from the straight line, the results still seem to be on a reasonably straight line which can be interpreted as a normal distribution at an acceptable level.

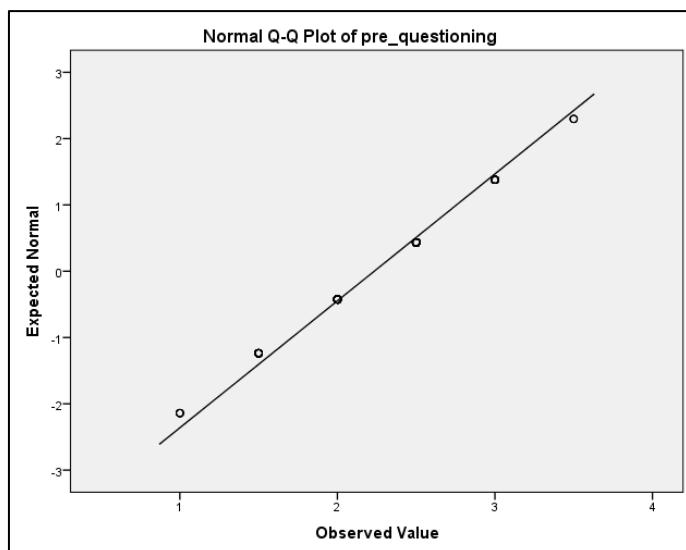


Figure 46. Normal probability plots of the test of questioning as a reading strategy

Figure 46 shows a nearly perfect straight line of scores suggesting that the data of questioning as a reading strategy seems to be normally distributed.

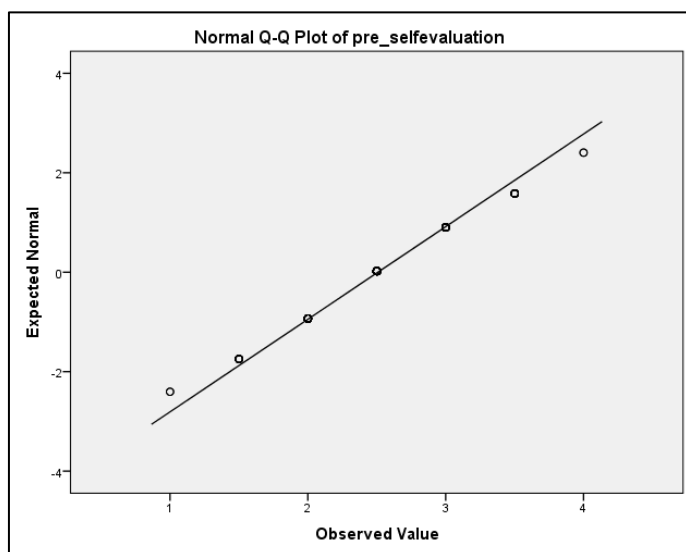


Figure 47. Normal probability plots of the test of self-evaluation as a reading strategy

In Figure 47, a considerably normal distribution can be viewed. It is clear that the scores of self-evaluation are almost on the straight line with only small deviations. This can be regarded as a good sample of normal distribution.

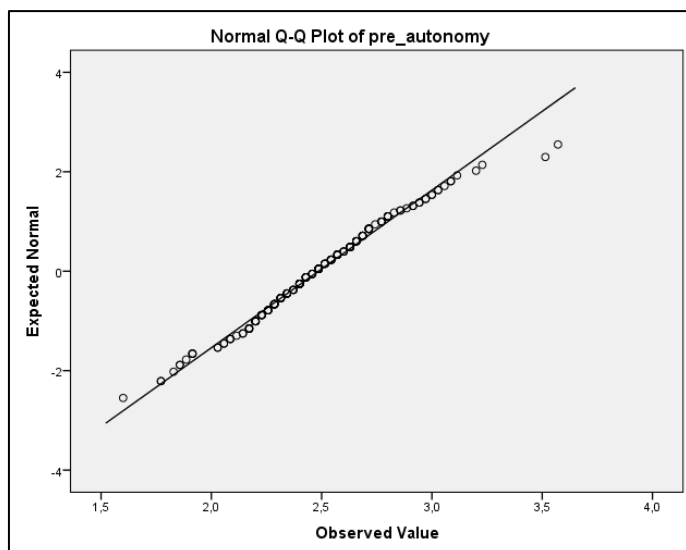


Figure 48. Normal probability plots of the test of autonomy in EFL reading

Finally, the Q-Q plots regarding the data of autonomy in EFL reading was handled. The results show that the scores of autonomy in EFL reading can also be interpreted as a normal distribution with only some small deviations. This can be seen in Figure 48.

The visuals of normality tests (Q-Q plots) presented above are employed to indicate the distribution for tests, nearly all of which display a normal distribution. As non-parametric tests “tend to be less sensitive than their more powerful parametric cousins and may therefore fail to detect differences between groups that actually exist” (Pallant, 2010, p. 213), parametric tests based on the normal probability plots were preferred in this study.

Findings and Conclusion

Evaluation of the Items of the Reading Strategy Questionnaire

The reading strategies questionnaire, which was employed to measure the use of reading strategies, focused on 15 strategies. Each strategy was represented with at least 1 item and the questionnaire consisted of 26 items. Participants were asked to choose the best option ranging from ‘never’ to ‘always’ to reflect the frequency they prefer to use those mentioned strategies.

Item 1

“I have a purpose in mind when I read.”

Setting a purpose was the first strategy to be measured in the questionnaire. As shown in Table 10, before the strategy instruction, the item ‘I have a purpose in mind when I read.’ was responded with ‘never’ by the 4.3 % of the participants. 46.2 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ have a purpose in their minds when they read. 44.6% of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’ in the questionnaire. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘usually’ was 4.9 and none of the participants preferred ‘always’.

Table 10

The Responses of the Participants to Item 1 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 4,3 |
| | rarely | 85 | 46,2 | 46,2 | 50,5 |
| | sometimes | 82 | 44,6 | 44,6 | 95,1 |
| | usually | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses of the participants shown in Table 11, after the strategy instruction, none of the participants declared that they ‘never’ have a purpose in their

minds when they read. As can be seen, the percentage of the participants who answered ‘rarely’ to the first item became 10.3. 53.3 % of the participants stated that they ‘sometimes’ have a purpose in their minds when they read. 31.0 participants chose ‘usually’ and the percentage of the participants who preferred ‘always’ was 5.4.

Table 11

The Responses of the Participants to Item 1 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 19 | 10,3 | 10,3 | 10,3 |
| | sometimes | 98 | 53,3 | 53,3 | 63,6 |
| | usually | 57 | 31,0 | 31,0 | 94,6 |
| | always | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 2

“I set goals for reading (e.g. studying for a multiple-choice test, reading for a research paper).”

Table 12 shows the responses of the participants to Item 2 before the strategy instruction. 3.3% of the participants stated that they ‘never’ set goals for reading. 42.4 % of them chose ‘rarely’ and 51.1% preferred ‘sometimes’. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘usually’ was 3.3 and none of the participants preferred ‘always’ before the strategy instruction.

Table 12

The Responses of the Participants to Item 2 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|--|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|

| | | | | | |
|-------|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| | never | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | rarely | 78 | 42,4 | 42,4 | 45,7 |
| Valid | sometimes | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 96,7 |
| | usually | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

As seen in Table 13, after the strategy instruction, the rates in the participants' responses changed considerably. The percentage of the participants who declared that they 'never' set goals for reading became 0.5. 32.1% of the participants chose 'rarely' for the second item after the instruction, and 60.9 % of them preferred 'sometimes'. 6.5% of the participants stated that they 'usually' set goals for reading none of the participants preferred 'always'.

Table 13

The Responses of the Participants to Item 2 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 59 | 32,1 | 32,1 | 32,6 |
| Valid | sometimes | 112 | 60,9 | 60,9 | 93,5 |
| | usually | 12 | 6,5 | 6,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The two items mentioned above aimed to measure the frequency of participants' using setting a goal as a reading strategy. The table below shows the mean values of the participants' responses to Item 1 and Item 2 before and after the strategy instruction. The increase in the mean value after the strategy instruction can be related with the effect of the instruction on participants' use of the strategy mentioned.

Table 14

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 1 and Item 2 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_settingp urpose | 184 | 3,00 | 1,00 | 4,00 | 2,5217 | ,04201 | ,56979 | ,325 |
| post_setting urpose | 184 | 2,50 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 3,0245 | ,04047 | ,54892 | ,301 |
| Valid (listwise) | N 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 3

“I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.”

The responses of the participants to Item 3 before the strategy instruction can be seen in the table below. 1.6% of the participants declared that they ‘never’ thought about what they knew to help them understand what they read. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘rarely’ was 38.6%. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 57.1% of the participants and 2.7% marked ‘usually’ for Item 3. None of the participants preferred ‘always’ before strategy instruction.

Table 15

The Responses of the Participants to Item 2 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 71 | 38,6 | 38,6 | 40,2 |
| Valid | sometimes | 105 | 57,1 | 57,1 | 97,3 |
| | usually | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 16 displays the participants' answers to Item 3 after the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, no one marked 'never' and the percentage of the participants who chose 'rarely' decreased to 4.3. 48.9% of the participants preferred 'sometimes' which is quite close to the percentage obtained in the pre-test. 38.6% of the participants selected 'usually' for Item 3 after the instruction, and 'always', which was not chosen by anyone in the pre-test, was marked by 8.2% of the participants.

Table 16

The Responses of the Participants to Item 3 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 4,3 |
| | sometimes | 90 | 48,9 | 48,9 | 53,3 |
| | usually | 71 | 38,6 | 38,6 | 91,8 |
| | always | 15 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 4

“While reading, I distinguish between information I already know and new information.”

Item 4 was included into the questionnaire to determine whether the participants recognize new information and the old information. Table 17 below shows the responses of the participants before the strategy instruction. As it is indicated, 1.6 % of the participants stated that they 'never' distinguished between information they already knew and new information. More than half of the participants, with a percentage of 52.7, preferred 'rarely'. 42.4 % chose 'sometimes', and 'usually' was selected by 3.3 % of the participants.

Table 17

The Responses of the Participants to Item 4 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 97 | 52,7 | 52,7 | 54,3 |
| | sometimes | 78 | 42,4 | 42,4 | 96,7 |
| | usually | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses obtained after the strategy instruction indicated a shift from ‘never’ to ‘always’. None of the participants selected ‘never’ after the instruction. 2.7% of the participants preferred ‘rarely’. Nearly half of the participants, with a percentage of 49.5, chose ‘sometimes’. Usually was marked by 43.5 % of the participants, which showed a significant increase. Finally, 4.3 % of the participants selected ‘always’ for Item 4.

Table 18

The Responses of the Participants to Item 4 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 2,7 |
| | sometimes | 91 | 49,5 | 49,5 | 52,2 |
| | usually | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 95,7 |
| | always | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 5

“While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the subject based on the text’s content.”

Table 19 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 5 before the strategy instruction. 2.2 % of the participants declared that they ‘never’ reconsidered and revised their background knowledge about the subject based on the text’s content while they were reading. 35.3% of the participants preferred ‘rarely’, and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by

61.4% of the participants, which refers to the majority of the participants. 1.1 % of the participants selected ‘usually’, and ‘always’ was not marked by anyone in the pre-test.

Table 19

The Responses of the Participants to Item 5 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| | rarely | 65 | 35,3 | 35,3 | 37,5 |
| | sometimes | 113 | 61,4 | 61,4 | 98,9 |
| | usually | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 20, it was found out that ‘never’ was not preferred by any participants. 2.2 % of the participants marked ‘rarely’. Half of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 5, and 45.7 % of the participants selected ‘usually’. ‘Always’ was marked by 2.2% of the participants, which can be shown as a difference after the strategy instruction.

Table 20

The Responses of the Participants to Item 5 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| | sometimes | 92 | 50,0 | 50,0 | 52,2 |
| | usually | 84 | 45,7 | 45,7 | 97,8 |
| | always | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 21 below shows the mean values of the participants’ responses before and after the strategy instruction to Item 3, 4 and Item 5, which refer to activating prior knowledge as a reading strategy. While the mean value of the items before the instruction was 2.56, it became 3.49 after the participants had a 13-week strategy instruction. The difference seen

between the mean scores before and after the instruction can be interpreted as the effect of the reading strategy instruction.

Table 21

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 3, Item 4 and Item 5 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_previous knowledge | 184 | 2,33 | 1,33 | 3,67 | 2,5652 | ,03325 | ,45097 | ,203 |
| post_previous knowledge | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,4928 | ,04142 | ,56185 | ,316 |
| Valid (listwise) | N 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 6

“I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.”

Item 6 and 7 were included in the questionnaire to measure the frequency rate the participants apply skimming, scanning and previewing strategies while reading in English. For the 6th item, as shown in Table 22, before the strategy instruction, none of the participants preferred ‘never’. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘rarely’ was 22.8. 58.7% of the participants stated that they ‘sometimes’ took an overall view of the text to see what it was about before reading it. ‘Usually’ was chosen by 18.5 % of the participants and no one preferred ‘always’ for the Item 6.

Table 22

The Responses of the Participants to Item 6 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 42 | 22,8 | 22,8 | 22,8 |
| | sometimes | 108 | 58,7 | 58,7 | 81,5 |
| | usually | 34 | 18,5 | 18,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 23 below shows the percentage of the answers given for Item 6 after the participants took a 13-week strategy instruction. The rate of ‘rarely’ showed a significant decrease with a new percentage of 1.1. Usually and sometimes were chosen by the same percentage of the participants, 45.1 % for each. Lastly, after the instruction, 8.7% of the participants marked ‘always’.

Table 23

The Responses of the Participants to Item 6 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | sometimes | 83 | 45,1 | 45,1 | 46,2 |
| | usually | 83 | 45,1 | 45,1 | 91,3 |
| | always | 16 | 8,7 | 8,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 7

“I skim/scan to get the main idea.”

According to the answers of the participants seen in Table 24 below, 1.1% of them chose ‘never’ for Item 7 before the instruction. 35.3 % of them stated that they ‘rarely’ skimmed or scanned to get the main idea. More than half of the participants, with a percentage of 55.4 %, preferred ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 8.2 % of the participants. None of the participants marked ‘always’ for Item 7 before the strategy instruction.

Table 24

The Responses of the Participants to Item 7 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 65 | 35,3 | 35,3 | 36,4 |
| | sometimes | 102 | 55,4 | 55,4 | 91,8 |
| | usually | 15 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The rates shown in Table 25 below, indicates an increase in the answers of the participants for Item 7 in a positive way after the strategy instruction. None of the participants chose 'never' and 4.7 % of the participants stated that they 'rarely' skimmed or scanned to get the main idea. 52.2 % of them marked 'sometimes' and the percentage of the participants who chose 'usually' for Item 7 became 41.8. Although it is quite low, with a percentage of 1.1, 'always' was preferred by some few participants after the instruction.

Table 25

The Responses of the Participants to Item 7 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 4,9 |
| | sometimes | 96 | 52,2 | 52,2 | 57,1 |
| | usually | 77 | 41,8 | 41,8 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the mean values of the responses given for Item 6 and 7, which refer to previewing, skimming and scanning, before and after the strategy instruction are handled, a significant increase can be seen, as shown in Table 17 below. While the mean value of the items before the instruction was 2.83, it became 3.50 after the participants had a 13-week strategy instruction. The reading strategy instruction got by the participants can be claimed

to be the main reason of this difference seen between the mean scores before and after the instruction.

Table 26

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 6 and 7 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_previews kimscan | 184 | 2,50 | 1,50 | 4,00 | 2,8315 | ,04301 | ,58336 | ,340 |
| post_preview skimscan | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5027 | ,04141 | ,56175 | ,316 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 8

“I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.”

Item 8, 9 and 10 were employed in the questionnaire to get the participants' answers on their use of predicting as a reading strategy. Table 27 below displays the answers of the participants for Item 8 before the strategy instruction. According to their answers, 0.5% of the participants stated that they ‘never’ tried to guess what the content of the test is about, when they read. More than half of the participants with a percentage of 56.0 preferred ‘rarely’, and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 41.8 % of the participants. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘usually’ for Item 8 before the strategy instruction was 1.6, while none of the participants preferred always.

Table 27

The Responses of the Participants to Item 8 Before the Strategy instruction

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|

| | | | | | |
|-------|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 103 | 56,0 | 56,0 | 56,5 |
| Valid | sometimes | 77 | 41,8 | 41,8 | 98,4 |
| | usually | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The results changed when the answers of the participants after the strategy instruction was taken into consideration. Although the rate for ‘never’ stayed same, ‘rarely’ was chosen by 25.0% of the participants. 58.7 % of them preferred ‘sometimes’ and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘usually’ became 15.8. Still, none of the participants preferred ‘always’ after the strategy instruction, as seen in the Table 28 below.

Table 28

The Responses of the Participants to Item 8 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 46 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 25,5 |
| Valid | sometimes | 108 | 58,7 | 58,7 | 84,2 |
| | usually | 29 | 15,8 | 15,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 9

“When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.”

The answers of the participants given for Item 9 before the strategy instruction can be seen in the Table 29 below. 0.5 % of the participants preferred ‘never’ when they are asked the frequency they guessed the meaning of unknown words or phrases when they read. The percentage of ‘rarely’ was 45.1 and slightly more than half of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of 50.5. Usually was preferred by 3.8 % of the participants and no one marked ‘always’ for Item 9 before the strategy instruction.

Table 29

The Responses of the Participants to Item 9 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 83 | 45,1 | 45,1 | 45,7 |
| | sometimes | 93 | 50,5 | 50,5 | 96,2 |
| | usually | 7 | 3,8 | 3,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 30 shows the rates of the participants to Item 9 after the strategy instruction. According to the results, none of the participants preferred ‘never’ and 20.7 % of them chose ‘rarely’ when they are asked to choose the frequency of their guessing the meaning of unknown words and phrases. Majority of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of 59.2. Usually was chosen by 19.0 % of them and 1.1 % of the participants declared that they ‘always’ guessed the meaning of the unknown words or phrases when they read.

Table 30

The Responses of the Participants to Item 9 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 38 | 20,7 | 20,7 | 20,7 |
| | sometimes | 109 | 59,2 | 59,2 | 79,9 |
| | usually | 35 | 19,0 | 19,0 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 10

“I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.”

When the participants were asked whether or not they check if their guesses were right or wrong, 5.4 % of them chose ‘never’. 54.9 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ did that checking and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was 39.7.

‘Usually’ and ‘always’ was not preferred by any participants which gives an important clue about how rare this strategy was employed before the instruction.

Table 31

The Responses of the Participants to Item 10 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 5,4 |
| | rarely | 101 | 54,9 | 54,9 | 60,3 |
| | sometimes | 73 | 39,7 | 39,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 10 after the strategy instruction, the percentage of the participants who chose ‘never’ decreased to 0.5 %. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 31.5 % of the participants and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 58.7 % of them. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘usually’ became 9.2; however, still no one marked ‘always’ after the instruction.

Table 32

The Responses of the Participants to Item 10 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 58 | 31,5 | 31,5 | 32,1 |
| | sometimes | 108 | 58,7 | 58,7 | 90,8 |
| | usually | 17 | 9,2 | 9,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 33 shows the mean values of the participants’ responses before and after the strategy instruction, to Item 8, 9 and 10, which were utilized to measure predicting as a reading strategy. Despite being slightly low, still there was an increase in the mean scores of the participants’ responses after the strategy instruction. While the mean value was 2.45 before, after the instruction it became 2.88.

Table 33

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 8, Item 9 and 10 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------|-----|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------|-----------|
| | | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic |
| pre_predicting | 184 | 2,33 | 1,33 | 3,67 | 2,4547 | ,03544 | ,48072 | ,231 |
| post_predicting | 184 | 2,67 | 1,67 | 4,33 | 2,8895 | ,04185 | ,56769 | ,322 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 11

“When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.”

Item 11 was included in the questionnaire to obtain participants' views on monitoring and repairing understanding. Before the reading strategy instruction, ‘never’ was not chosen by any of the participants. 21.7 % of them preferred ‘rarely’ and 66.8 % of them stated that they ‘sometimes’ paid closer attention to what they were reading when the text became difficult. ‘Usually’ was marked by 10.3 % of the participants and ‘always’ was preferred by only 1.1 % of them.

Table 34

The Responses of the Participants to Item 11 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 40 | 21,7 | 21,7 | 21,7 |
| | sometimes | 123 | 66,8 | 66,8 | 88,6 |
| | usually | 19 | 10,3 | 10,3 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

After the strategy instruction a cumulation was observed in the positive answers, as shown in Table 35. None of the participants preferred ‘never’ or ‘rarely’. The majority of them chose ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of 39.7 and ‘usually’ with 44.6 %. After the

instruction, 15.8 % of the participants stated that they ‘always’ paid closer attention to what they were reading, when the text became difficult.

Table 35

The Responses of the Participants to Item 11 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | sometimes | 73 | 39,7 | 39,7 | 39,7 |
| | usually | 82 | 44,6 | 44,6 | 84,2 |
| | always | 29 | 15,8 | 15,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 12

“As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/understanding of the subject.”

Similar to Item 11, Item 12 also aimed to measure the frequency of the use of the monitoring and repairing understanding strategy. Table 36 below shows the answers of the participants before the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, ‘never’ was chosen by 3.3 % of the participants. Slightly more than half of the participants, with a percentage of 50.5, declared that they ‘rarely’ evaluated the text to determine whether it contributed to their knowledge/understanding of the subject or not. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 45.1 % of the participants and usually was preferred by 1.1 % of them. None of the participants marked ‘always’ for Item 12 before the strategy instruction.

Table 36

The Responses of the Participants to Item 12 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | rarely | 93 | 50,5 | 50,5 | 53,8 |
| | sometimes | 83 | 45,1 | 45,1 | 98,9 |
| | usually | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Interestingly, as seen in Table 37, after the strategy instruction, none of the participants marked ‘never’ or ‘always’ for Item 12. 38.0 % of them chose ‘rarely, 54.9 % of them preferred ‘sometimes’ and 7.1 % of them selected ‘usually’.

Table 37

The Responses of the Participants to Item 12 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 70 | 38,0 | 38,0 | 38,0 |
| | sometimes | 101 | 54,9 | 54,9 | 92,9 |
| | usually | 13 | 7,1 | 7,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 38 below shows the mean values of the participants’ responses to Item 11 and 12 before and after the strategy instruction. As shown in the table, the mean score of the items, which was 2.67 before the strategy instruction, became 3.22 which can be attributed to the effect of the instruction given.

Table 38

The Mean Values of the Participants’ Responses to Item 11 and 12 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_monitoring | 184 | 3,00 | 1,50 | 4,50 | 2,6739 | ,03612 | ,48998 | ,240 |
| post_monitoring | 184 | 2,00 | 2,50 | 4,50 | 3,2255 | ,04252 | ,57683 | ,333 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 13

“I try to relate the important points in the text to one another in an attempt to understand the entire text.”

‘Text connection’ as a reading strategy was measured by Item 13 and 14 in the questionnaire. Table 39 below shows the responses of the participants before the strategy

instruction. ‘Never’ was selected by 3.8 % of the participants. 42.9 % of them preferred ‘rarely’. 50.5 % of them stated that they ‘sometimes’ tried to relate the important points in the text to one another. Only 2.7 % of the participants preferred ‘usually’, and ‘always’ was not chosen by any of the participants.

Table 39

The Responses of the Participants to Item 13 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 7 | 3,8 | 3,8 | 3,8 |
| | rarely | 79 | 42,9 | 42,9 | 46,7 |
| | sometimes | 93 | 50,5 | 50,5 | 97,3 |
| | usually | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

After the strategy instruction the responses of the participants was ranged among ‘rarely’, ‘sometimes’ and ‘usually’ as seen in Table 40. ‘Never’ or ‘always’ was not selected by any of the participants. 32.1 % of the participants preferred ‘rarely’, 54.4 % of them selected ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 13.6% of them.

Table 40

The Responses of the Participants to Item 13 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 59 | 32,1 | 32,1 | 32,1 |
| | sometimes | 100 | 54,3 | 54,3 | 86,4 |
| | usually | 25 | 13,6 | 13,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 14

“I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.”

Item 14 focused on revealing the participants’ ability to realize the relationship among ideas while reading a text in English. According to the responses, 6.0 % of the participants

stated that they ‘never’ went back and forth in a text to find the relationship among ideas. 42.4 % of them preferred ‘rarely’ and 51.1 % of them chose ‘sometimes’. Usually was chosen by only 0.5 % of them, and none of the participants marked ‘always’ before the strategy instruction.

Table 41

The Responses of the Participants to Item 14 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 11 | 6,0 | 6,0 | 6,0 |
| | rarely | 78 | 42,4 | 42,4 | 48,4 |
| | sometimes | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 99,5 |
| | usually | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses after the strategy instruction, as shown in Table 42 below, showed a slight difference when compared to pre-test results. The percentage of ‘never’ became 1.6. There was not a big difference in the percentage of participants who preferred ‘rarely’, 40.2 % of them selected ‘rarely’ after the instruction. ‘Sometimes’ was marked by 51.1 % of the participants and the percentage of the participants who selected ‘usually’ was 7.1. None of the participant participants chose ‘always’ after the strategy instruction.

Table 42

The Responses of the Participants to Item 14 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 74 | 40,2 | 40,2 | 41,8 |
| | sometimes | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 92,9 |
| | usually | 13 | 7,1 | 7,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When Item 13 and 14 were handled together under the title of ‘text connection’ as a reading strategy, the mean scores did not show a big difference. Before the instruction, the

score was 2.49, and, with a slight increase, it became 2.72 after the participants attended a 13-week strategy instruction.

Table 43

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 13 and 14 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Varianc e |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|--------------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_textcon nection | 184 | 2,50 | 1,00 | 3,50 | 2,4918 | ,03746 | ,50806 | ,258 |
| post_textco nnection | 184 | 2,50 | 1,50 | 4,00 | 2,7255 | ,04523 | ,61355 | ,376 |
| Valid (listwise) | N 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 15

“I often look for how the text is organised and pay attention to headings and sub-headings.”

Attending to text structure was the next strategy in the questionnaire which was measured with Item 15 and 16. As shown in Table 44, before the strategy instruction, none of the participants preferred ‘never’ and the item ‘I often look for how the text is organised and pay attention to headings and sub-headings.’ was responded with ‘rarely’ by 7.1 % of the participants. 57.6 % of the participants stated that they ‘sometimes’ looked for how the text was organised and paid attention to headings and sub-headings. 32.1 % of the participants preferred ‘usually’ in the questionnaire. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘always’ was 3.3.

Table 44

The Responses of the Participants to Item 15 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 13 | 7,1 | 7,1 | 7,1 |
| | sometimes | 106 | 57,6 | 57,6 | 64,7 |
| | usually | 59 | 32,1 | 32,1 | 96,7 |
| | always | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 45 displays the participants' answers to Item 15 after the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, no one marked 'never' and the percentage of the participants who chose 'rarely' decreased to 1.6. 43.5 % of the participants preferred 'sometimes' which is a little lower than the percentage obtained in the pre-test. 44.0 % of the participants selected 'usually' for Item 15 after the instruction, and 'always', which was chosen by 3.3 % of the participants in the pre-test, was marked by 10.9 % of the participants.

Table 45

The Responses of the Participants to Item 5 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | sometimes | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 45,1 |
| | usually | 81 | 44,0 | 44,0 | 89,1 |
| | always | 20 | 10,9 | 10,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 16

"I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization."

Item 16 was included in the questionnaire to determine whether the participants review the text by noting its characteristics like length and organization or not. Table 46 below shows the responses of the participants before the strategy instruction. As it is indicated, 1.1 % of the participants stated that they 'never' reviewed the text and its characteristics. 'Rarely'

was chosen by 39.1 % of them, and more than half of the participants, with a percentage of 56.0, preferred ‘sometimes’ before the strategy instruction. ‘Usually’ was selected by 3.8 % of the participants, and none of the participants preferred ‘always’.

Table 46

The Responses of the Participants to Item 16 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 72 | 39,1 | 39,1 | 40,2 |
| | sometimes | 103 | 56,0 | 56,0 | 96,2 |
| | usually | 7 | 3,8 | 3,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses obtained after the strategy instruction indicated a shift from negative to positive. None of the participants selected ‘never’ after the instruction. The percentage of ‘rarely’ decreased from 39.1 % to 1.1 %. Sometimes was chosen by 37.5 % of the participants. More than half of the participants, with a percentage of 51.6, marked ‘usually’. Finally, 9.8 % of the participants selected ‘always’ for Item 16.

Table 47

The Responses of the Participants to Item 16 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | sometimes | 69 | 37,5 | 37,5 | 38,6 |
| | usually | 95 | 51,6 | 51,6 | 90,2 |
| | always | 18 | 9,8 | 9,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The two items mentioned above aimed to measure the frequency of participants’ use of attending to text structure as a reading strategy. The table below shows the mean values of the participants’ responses to Item 15 and Item 16 before and after the strategy instruction. The increase in the mean value, which increased to 3.67 from 2.97 after the strategy

instruction, can be related with the effect of the instruction on participants' use of the strategy mentioned.

Table 48

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 15 and 16 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_textstru cture | 184 | 2,50 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 2,9701 | ,04008 | ,54364 | ,296 |
| post_textstr ucture | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6712 | ,04555 | ,61785 | ,382 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 17

"I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read."

Visualizing was represented with one item in the questionnaire. Table 49 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 17 before the strategy instruction. 19.0 % of the participants declared that they 'rarely' tried to picture or visualize information to help remember what they read. 63.0 % of the participants preferred 'sometimes' which refers to the majority of the participants, and 'usually' was chosen by 17.9 % of the participants. 'Never' and 'always' was not marked by anyone in the pre-test.

Table 49

The Responses of the Participants to Item 17 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 35 | 19,0 | 19,0 | 19,0 |
| | sometimes | 116 | 63,0 | 63,0 | 82,1 |
| | usually | 33 | 17,9 | 17,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as shown in Table 50, it was found out that ‘never’ was again not preferred by any participants. The percentage of the participants who selected ‘rarely’ showed a dramatic decrease and became 1.6. More than half of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 17, with a percentage of 50.5, and with a close percentage, 43.5 % of the participants selected ‘usually’. ‘Always’ was marked by 4.3 % of the participants, which can be shown as a difference after the strategy instruction.

Table 50

The Responses of the Participants to Item 17 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | sometimes | 93 | 50,5 | 50,5 | 52,2 |
| | usually | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 95,7 |
| | always | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 51 below shows the mean values of the participants’ responses to Item 17, which refers to visualizing as a reading strategy, before and after the strategy instruction. While the mean value of the item before the instruction was 2.98, it became 3.50 after the participants had a 13-week strategy instruction. The difference seen between the mean scores before and after the instruction can be interpreted as the effect of the reading strategy instruction.

Table 51

The Mean Values of the Participants’ Responses to Item 17 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_visualizing | 184 | 2,00 | 2,00 | 4,00 | 2,9891 | ,04493 | ,60948 | ,371 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-------|------|------|------|--------|--------|--------|------|
| post_visuali zing | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5054 | ,04494 | ,60955 | ,372 |
| Valid | N 184 | | | | | | | |
| (listwise) | | | | | | | | |

Item 18

“I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.”

Using graphic organizers as a reading strategy was measured with the Item 18 given above. According to the answers of the participants seen in Table 52, none of the participants chose ‘never’ for Item 18 before the instruction. 6.0 % of them stated that they ‘rarely’ used tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase their understanding. Nearly half of the participants, with a percentage of 47.8 %, preferred ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 34.2 % of the participants. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘always’ for Item 18 before the strategy instruction was 12.0.

Table 52

The Responses of the Participants to Item 18 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 11 | 6,0 | 6,0 | 6,0 |
| | sometimes | 88 | 47,8 | 47,8 | 53,8 |
| | usually | 63 | 34,2 | 34,2 | 88,0 |
| | always | 22 | 12,0 | 12,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses after the strategy instruction, as shown in Table 53 below, showed a slight difference when compared to pre-test results. As it was before the strategy instruction, ‘never’ was again not chosen by any participants. There was not a big difference in the percentage of participants who preferred ‘rarely’, 1.1 % of them selected ‘rarely’ after the instruction. ‘Sometimes’ was marked by 34.8 % of the participants and the percentage of the participants who selected ‘usually’ was 43.5. An important increase was also seen in ‘always’ which became 20.7 % after the strategy instruction.

Table 53

The Responses of the Participants to Item 18 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | sometimes | 64 | 34,8 | 34,8 | 35,9 |
| | usually | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 79,3 |
| | always | 38 | 20,7 | 20,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the mean values of the responses given for Item 18 before and after the strategy instruction are handled, a slight increase can be seen, as shown in Table 54 below. While the mean value of the item before the instruction was 3.52, it became 3.83 after the participants had a 13-week strategy instruction. The reading strategy instruction got by the participants can be claimed to be the main reason of this difference seen between the mean scores before and after the instruction.

Table 54

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 18 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_graphic | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5217 | ,05765 | ,78201 | ,612 |
| post_graphic | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,8370 | ,05587 | ,75787 | ,574 |
| Valid (listwise) | N 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 19

“I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.”

Table 55 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 19 before the strategy instruction. ‘Never’ was not preferred by any participants as an option when they were

asked whether they took notes while reading to help them understand what they read or not. 46.7 % of the participants declared that they ‘rarely’ took notes while they were reading. 46.2% of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 6.0 % of the participants. 1.1 % of the participants selected ‘always’ which was a quite low percentage.

Table 55

The Responses of the Participants to Item 19 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 86 | 44,8 | 46,7 | 46,7 |
| | sometimes | 85 | 44,3 | 46,2 | 92,9 |
| | usually | 11 | 5,7 | 6,0 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,0 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 56, it was revealed that ‘never’ was not preferred by any participants. The number of participants who preferred ‘rarely’ showed a significant difference and its percentage decreased to 2.2. Nearly half of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item19, and with a close percentage, ‘usually’ was selected by 47.8 % of the participants. ‘Always’ was marked by 1.1% of the participants, which is similar to the results taken before the strategy instruction.

Table 56

The Responses of the Participants to Item 19 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| | sometimes | 90 | 48,9 | 48,9 | 51,1 |
| | usually | 88 | 47,8 | 47,8 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 20

“I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.”

Being in the same category with Item 19, Item 20 also aimed to measure the frequency of the use of the note taking. Table 57 below shows the answers of the participants before the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, ‘never’ was not chosen by any participants. Slightly more than half of the participants, with a percentage of 51.6, declared that they ‘rarely’ underlined or circled information in the text to help them remember it. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 44.6 % of the participants and usually was preferred by 3.8 % of them. None of the participants marked ‘always’ for Item 20 before the strategy instruction.

Table 57

The Responses of the Participants to Item 20 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 95 | 49,5 | 51,6 | 51,6 |
| | sometimes | 82 | 42,7 | 44,6 | 96,2 |
| | usually | 7 | 3,6 | 3,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

Similarly, as seen in Table 58, after the strategy instruction, none of the participants marked ‘never’ for Item 20 and the percentage of participants who preferred ‘rarely’ showed a dramatic decrease to 0.5. 39.7 % of them chose ‘sometimes’, 54.3 % of them preferred ‘usually’ and 5.4 % of them selected ‘always’.

Table 58

The Responses of the Participants to Item 20 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | sometimes | 73 | 39,7 | 39,7 | 40,2 |
| | usually | 100 | 54,3 | 54,3 | 94,6 |

| | | | | |
|--------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| always | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 59 below shows the mean values of the participants' responses before and after the strategy instruction, to Item 19 and Item 20, which refer to note taking as a reading strategy. While the mean value of the items before the instruction was 2.56, it became 3.56 after the participants had a 13-week strategy instruction. The difference seen between the mean scores before and after the instruction can be interpreted as the effect of the reading strategy instruction.

Table 59

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 19 and 20 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-------------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_notetaking | 184 | 2,50 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 2,5679 | ,04356 | ,59092 | ,349 |
| post_notetaking | 184 | 3,00 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5625 | ,03874 | ,52548 | ,276 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 21

“After I have read a text, I summarise it.”

The answers of the participants given for Item 21 before the strategy instruction can be seen in the Table 60 below. The majority of the participants with a percentage of 66.3 preferred ‘never’ when they were asked whether they summarized the text after they read it. The percentage of ‘rarely’ was 25.5 and 8.2 % of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’. ‘Usually’ and ‘always’ were not marked by any participants before the strategy instruction.

Table 60

The Responses of the Participants to Item 21 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 122 | 63,5 | 66,3 | 66,3 |
| | rarely | 47 | 24,5 | 25,5 | 91,8 |
| | sometimes | 15 | 7,8 | 8,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

Table 61 shows the rates of the participants to Item 21 after the strategy instruction. According to the results, a significant decrease was seen in the number of participants who preferred ‘never’. The percentage became 2.2. 46.2 % of them chose ‘rarely’ when they were asked to choose the frequency of their summarizing the text after they read it. Almost half of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of 48.9. Usually was chosen by 2.7 % of them and none of the participants preferred ‘always’ for Item 21 after the strategy instruction.

Table 61

The Responses of the Participants to Item 21 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| | rarely | 85 | 46,2 | 46,2 | 48,4 |
| | sometimes | 90 | 48,9 | 48,9 | 97,3 |
| | usually | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 22

“I summarize/paraphrase the material that I am reading in order to remember the text.”

When the participants were asked whether they summarized/paraphrased the material that they were reading in order to remember the text or not, 66.3 % of them chose ‘never’. 27.7 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ did that summarizing/paraphrasing and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was 6.0. The main tendency of

answers for Item 22 was negative, and ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was not preferred by any participants, which gives an important clue about how rare this strategy was employed before the instruction.

Table 62

The Responses of the Participants to Item 22 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 122 | 63,5 | 66,3 | 66,3 |
| | rarely | 51 | 26,6 | 27,7 | 94,0 |
| | sometimes | 11 | 5,7 | 6,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 22 after the strategy instruction, the percentage of the participants who chose ‘never’ decreased to 3.3 %. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 52.7 % of the participants and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 44.0 % of them. Like it was before the instruction, ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was again not preferred by any participants. Although the responses were still negative, there became a shift from ‘never’ to ‘rarely’ and ‘sometimes’ after the strategy instruction.

Table 63

The Responses of the Participants to Item 22 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | rarely | 97 | 52,7 | 52,7 | 56,0 |
| | sometimes | 81 | 44,0 | 44,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 64 below shows the mean values of the participants’ responses before and after the strategy instruction, to Item 21 and 22, which were utilized to measure summarizing as a

reading strategy. When the mean scores were compared an increase in the mean scores of the participants' responses after the strategy instruction can be seen. While the mean value was 1.40 before, after the instruction it became 2.46.

Table 64

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 21 and 22 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_summarizing | 184 | 2,00 | 1,00 | 3,00 | 1,4076 | ,04508 | ,61150 | ,374 |
| post_summarizing | 184 | 2,50 | 1,00 | 3,50 | 2,4647 | ,04061 | ,55081 | ,303 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 23

"I generate questions about the text."

Item 23 was employed to measure the frequency of the participants' use making questions while reading a text. According to the responses, 2.7 % of the participants stated that they 'never' formed questions about the text. 27.7 % of them preferred 'rarely' and 65.8 % of them chose 'sometimes'. 'Usually' was chosen by 3.8 % of them, and no one marked 'always' before the strategy instruction.

Table 65

The Responses of the Participants to Item 23 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 5 | 2,6 | 2,7 | 2,7 |
| | rarely | 51 | 26,6 | 27,7 | 30,4 |

| | | | | |
|-----------|-----|------|-------|-------|
| sometimes | 121 | 63,0 | 65,8 | 96,2 |
| usually | 7 | 3,6 | 3,8 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

The responses after the strategy instruction, as shown in Table 66 below, showed a slight difference when compared to pre-test results. The percentage of ‘never’ became 0.5. 20.7 % of them selected ‘rarely’ after the instruction. There was not a big difference in the percentage of participants who preferred ‘sometimes’, it was marked by 66.3 % of the participants and the percentage of the participants who selected ‘usually’ was 12.5. None of the participant participants chose ‘always’ after the strategy instruction.

Table 66

The Responses of the Participants to Item 5 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 38 | 20,7 | 20,7 | 21,2 |
| | sometimes | 122 | 66,3 | 66,3 | 87,5 |
| | usually | 23 | 12,5 | 12,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 24

“When reading, I ask myself questions about the text content to better remember the text.”

Table 67 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 24 before the strategy instruction. 37.0 % of the participants declared that they ‘never’ asked themselves questions about the text content to better remember the text while they were reading it. Half of the participants preferred ‘rarely’, and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 13.0 % of the participants. ‘Usually’ and ‘always’ was not marked by anyone in the pre-test.

Table 67

The Responses of the Participants to Item 24 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 68 | 35,4 | 37,0 | 37,0 |
| | rarely | 92 | 47,9 | 50,0 | 87,0 |
| | sometimes | 24 | 12,5 | 13,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 68, it was revealed that ‘never’ was preferred by 2.2 % of the participants. 31.0 % of the participants marked ‘rarely’. 61.4 % of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 24 which refers to the majority of the participants. 5.4 % of the participants selected ‘usually’. ‘Always’ was not marked by any participants, which was also the same before the strategy instruction.

Table 68

The Responses of the Participants to Item 24 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| | rarely | 57 | 31,0 | 31,0 | 33,2 |
| | sometimes | 113 | 61,4 | 61,4 | 94,6 |
| | usually | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When Item 23 and 24 were handled together under the title of ‘questioning’ as a reading strategy, the mean scores did not show a big difference. Before the instruction, the score was 2.23, and with a slight increase, it became 2.80 after the participants attended a 13-week strategy instruction.

Table 69

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 23 and 24 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_questioning | 184 | 2,50 | 1,00 | 3,50 | 2,2337 | ,03852 | ,52245 | ,273 |
| post_questioning | 184 | 3,00 | 1,00 | 4,00 | 2,8043 | ,04113 | ,55789 | ,311 |
| Valid (listwise) | N 184 | | | | | | | |

Item 25

“I check my understanding when I come across new information.”

Item 25 and 26 represented the last strategy included in the study. Item 25 was given a place in the study to get the participants answers on their use of self- evaluation as a reading strategy. Table 70 below displays the answers of the participants for Item 25 before the strategy instruction. According to their answers, 1.1 % of the participants stated that they ‘never’ checked their understanding when they came across new information. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 23.4 % of the participants and more than half of the participants with a percentage of 63.6 preferred ‘sometimes’. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘usually’ for Item 25 before the strategy instruction was 10.9, and only 1.1 % of the participants preferred always.

Table 70

The Responses of the Participants to Item 25 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,0 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 43 | 22,4 | 23,4 | 24,5 |
| | sometimes | 117 | 60,9 | 63,6 | 88,0 |
| | usually | 20 | 10,4 | 10,9 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,0 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

The results were observed to have changed when the answers of the participants after the strategy instruction was taken into consideration. The tendency shifted from negative to positive. None of the participants preferred 'never' and 'rarely' was chosen by 4.9 % of the participants. 59.2 % of them preferred 'sometimes' and the percentage of the participants who marked 'usually' became 35.9. Still, no one preferred 'always' after the strategy instruction, as seen in the Table 71 below.

Table 71

The Responses of the Participants to Item 25 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 4,9 |
| | sometimes | 109 | 59,2 | 59,2 | 64,1 |
| | usually | 66 | 35,9 | 35,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 26

"I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goals."

Table 72 shows the responses of the participants to Item 26 before the strategy instruction. 13.6 % of the participants stated that they 'never' evaluated whether what they were reading was relevant to their reading goals. 60.3 % of them chose 'rarely' and 24.5 % of the participants preferred 'sometimes'. The percentage of the participants who preferred 'usually' was 1.6. None of the participants preferred 'always' before the strategy instruction.

Table 72

The Responses of the Participants to Item 26 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 25 | 13,0 | 13,6 | 13,6 |
| | rarely | 111 | 57,8 | 60,3 | 73,9 |

| | | | | |
|-----------|-----|------|-------|-------|
| sometimes | 45 | 23,4 | 24,5 | 98,4 |
| usually | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

As seen in Table 73, after the strategy instruction, the rates in the participants' responses shifted towards more positive responses. 'Never' was not chosen by any participants. The percentage of the participants who declared that they 'rarely' evaluated whether or not what they were reading was relevant to their reading goals became 8.2. 52.2 % of the participants chose 'sometimes' for item 26 after the instruction, and 38.0 % of them preferred 'usually'. 1.6 % of the participants stated that they 'always' evaluated whether what they were reading was relevant to their reading goals.

Table 73

The Responses of the Participants to Item 26 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 15 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 8,2 |
| | sometimes | 96 | 52,2 | 52,2 | 60,3 |
| | usually | 70 | 38,0 | 38,0 | 98,4 |
| | always | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The two items mentioned above aimed to measure the frequency of participants' use of self- evaluation as a reading strategy. The table below shows the mean values of the participants' responses to Item 25 and Item 26 before and after the strategy instruction. The increase in the mean value, which increased from 2.50 to 3.32 after the strategy instruction, can be related with the effect of the instruction on participants' use of the strategy mentioned.

Table 74

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Item 25 and 26 Before and After the Strategy instruction

| N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|---|-------|---------|---------|------|----------------|----------|
|---|-------|---------|---------|------|----------------|----------|

| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| pre_selfevaluation | 184 | 3,00 | 1,00 | 4,00 | 2,5082 | ,03958 | ,53683 | ,288 |
| post_selfevaluation | 184 | 2,50 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 3,3207 | ,04026 | ,54613 | ,298 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Evaluation of the Items of Autonomy in EFL Reading Questionnaire

The Autonomy in EFL Reading questionnaire by Alyas (2011) was utilized in the study to reveal whether the participants are autonomous or not while reading in English as a foreign language. It consisted of 35 items, and like the reading strategies questionnaire, participants were asked to choose the best option ranging from ‘never’ to ‘always’.

Item 1

“I have a clear idea of the purpose of class reading activities set by the teachers in class.”

With the first item, it was aimed to reveal whether the participants had clear ideas about the purpose of the text they read in English before reading it or not. Before the reading strategy instruction, 5.4 % of the participants responded that they ‘never’ had ideas about the purpose. 36.4 % of them preferred ‘rarely’ and 56.0 % of them stated that they ‘sometimes’ had clear ideas about the purpose. ‘Usually’ was preferred by only 2.2 % of the participants and none of the participants marked ‘always’ for Item 1.

Table 75

The Responses of the Participants to Item 1 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 5,4 |
| | rarely | 67 | 36,4 | 36,4 | 41,8 |
| | sometimes | 103 | 56,0 | 56,0 | 97,8 |
| | usually | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 76 below shows the answers given by the participants after the instruction. None of the participants preferred ‘never’ this time. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 4.3 % of the participants and almost half of the participants marked ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of 47.3. ‘Usually’ showed a significant increase and was selected by 45.7 % of the participants. Although the percentage was quite low, ‘always’ took part in the table this time and was preferred by 2.7 % of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 76

The Responses of the Participants to Item 1 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 4,3 |
| | sometimes | 87 | 47,3 | 47,3 | 51,6 |
| | usually | 84 | 45,7 | 45,7 | 97,3 |
| | always | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 2

“I am able to have clear schedule of English autonomous reading after class.”

As shown in Table 77, the responses of the participants before the strategy instruction ranged from ‘never’ to ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was not preferred by any of the participants. ‘Never’ was preferred by 5.4 % of the participants and the percentage of the participants who responded with ‘rarely’ was 40.8. Rest of the participants, with a percentage of 53.8 %, marked ‘sometimes’ for Item 2.

Table 77

The Responses of the Participants to Item 2 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 10 | 5,2 | 5,4 | 5,4 |
| | rarely | 75 | 39,1 | 40,8 | 46,2 |
| | sometimes | 99 | 51,6 | 53,8 | 100,0 |

| | | | |
|-------|-----|------|-------|
| Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 |
|-------|-----|------|-------|

Table 78 displays the participants' answers to Item 2 after the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, no one marked 'never' and the percentage of the participants who chose 'rarely' decreased to 9.8. 53.3 % of the participants preferred 'sometimes' which was nearly the same with the obtained percentage in the pre-test. 36.4 % of the participants selected 'usually' for Item 2 after the instruction, and 'always', which was not chosen by any participants in the pre-test, was marked by 0.5 % of the participants.

Table 78

The Responses of the Participants to Item 2 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 18 | 9,8 | 9,8 | 9,8 |
| | sometimes | 98 | 53,3 | 53,3 | 63,0 |
| | usually | 67 | 36,4 | 36,4 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 3

"I am able to plan the study time well for reading in English."

Item 3 focused on planning the study time and the participants were asked to mark the frequency they plan their study time for reading in English. According to the answers of the participants seen in Table 79, 'never' was chosen by only 1.1 % of the participants before the instruction. Participants answers for Item 3 accumulated mainly in 'rarely' and 'sometimes'. 44.0 % of them stated that they were 'rarely' able to plan the study time well. More than half of the participants, with a percentage of 52.2 %, preferred 'sometimes', and 'usually' was chosen by 2.7 % of the participants. None of the participants marked 'always' for Item 3 before the strategy instruction.

Table 79

The Responses of the Participants to Item 3 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 81 | 44,0 | 44,0 | 45,1 |
| | sometimes | 96 | 52,2 | 52,2 | 97,3 |
| | usually | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses after the strategy instruction, as shown in Table 80 below, showed a significant difference when compared to pre-test results. As a difference from Table 79, 'never' was not chosen by any participants. 7.6 % of the participants selected 'rarely' after the instruction. There was not a big difference in the percentage of participants who preferred 'sometimes', it was marked by 51.1 % of the participants. The percentage of the participants who selected 'usually' was 40.8. Although the percentage was quite low, 'always' was selected by 0.5 % of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 80

The Responses of the Participants to Item 3 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 14 | 7,6 | 7,6 | 7,6 |
| | sometimes | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 58,7 |
| | usually | 75 | 40,8 | 40,8 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 4

"I can implement appropriate reading strategies consciously in reading."

When the participants were asked whether they could implement appropriate reading strategies consciously in reading or not, before the strategy instruction, 29.9 % of them chose 'never'. Majority of the participants, with a percentage of 65.8, stated that they

‘rarely’ could do that implementation and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was 4.3. The main tendency of answers for Item 4 was negative, and ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was not preferred by any participants which gives an important clue about how rarely participants implemented appropriate reading strategies before the instruction.

Table 81

The Responses of the Participants to Item 4 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 55 | 29,9 | 29,9 | 29,9 |
| | rarely | 121 | 65,8 | 65,8 | 95,7 |
| | sometimes | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 4 after the strategy instruction, the percentage of the participants who chose ‘never’ displayed a significant decrease and was not marked by any participants. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 10.3 % of the participants and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 56.0 % of them. 33.7 % of the participants stated that they ‘usually’ could implement appropriate reading strategies, which is a significant increase when compared to the responses before the instruction. However, like it was before the instruction, ‘always’ was again not preferred by any participants.

Table 82

The Responses of the Participants to Item 4 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 19 | 10,3 | 10,3 | 10,3 |
| | sometimes | 103 | 56,0 | 56,0 | 66,3 |
| | usually | 62 | 33,7 | 33,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 5

“I can monitor the use of reading strategies consciously and critically in reading exercise.”

Item 5 is actually related to the previous item and therefore the responses seem to be in the same direction. Like it was in Item 4 before the strategy instruction, in Item 5 as well the responses range from ‘never’ to ‘sometimes’. As shown in Table 83, before the strategy instruction, slightly more than half of the participants preferred ‘never’ with a percentage of 52.7. Rest of the participants marked ‘rarely’ for Item 5, with the exception of 1.1 % of the participants who preferred ‘sometimes’. ‘Usually’ or ‘always’ was not selected by any of the participants before the strategy instruction.

Table 83

The Responses of the Participants to Item 5 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 97 | 52,7 | 52,7 | 52,7 |
| | rarely | 85 | 46,2 | 46,2 | 98,9 |
| | sometimes | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 84 below shows the percentage of the answers given for Item 5 after the participants took a 13-week strategy instruction. ‘Never’ was not preferred by any participants this time. The rate of ‘rarely’ showed a significant decrease with a new percentage of 8.7. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 51.6 % of the participants. In contrast to the scores taken before the instruction, ‘usually’ was selected by 38.0 % of the participants, and lastly, after the instruction, 1.6 % of the participants marked ‘always’.

Table 84

The Responses of the Participants to Item 5 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|-------|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| | rarely | 16 | 8,7 | 8,7 | 8,7 |
| | sometimes | 95 | 51,6 | 51,6 | 60,3 |
| Valid | usually | 70 | 38,0 | 38,0 | 98,4 |
| | always | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 6

“I am able to use other more reading appropriate strategies after I had identified the reading strategies that were not appropriate.”

Item 6, like Item 4 and 5, was also about the participants’ use of reading strategies and focused on the ability to change the strategies when the current one is inappropriate. Before the reading strategy instruction, nearly all of the participants preferred ‘never’ or ‘rarely’. ‘Never’ was chosen by 43.5 % of the participants. 55.4 % of them preferred ‘rarely’ and only 1.1 % of them stated that they ‘sometimes’ were able to use other appropriate reading strategies after they had identified the reading strategies that were not appropriate. ‘Usually’ or ‘always’ was not marked by any participants before they took the instruction.

Table 85

The Responses of the Participants to Item 6 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | never | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 43,5 |
| | rarely | 102 | 55,4 | 55,4 | 98,9 |
| Valid | sometimes | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

After the strategy instruction, a shift from negative to positive answers was observed, as shown in Table 86. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘never’ decreased to 0.5. The number of participants who selected ‘rarely’ also decreased and the percentage became 23.9. Nearly half of the participants marked ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of

49.5 and after the instruction, 26.1 % of the participants stated that they were ‘usually’ able to use other appropriate reading strategies after they had identified the reading strategies that were not appropriate. None of the participants chose ‘always’ even after the strategy instruction.

Table 86

The Responses of the Participants to Item 6 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 44 | 23,9 | 23,9 | 24,5 |
| | sometimes | 91 | 49,5 | 49,5 | 73,9 |
| | usually | 48 | 26,1 | 26,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 7

“I actively look for opportunities to participate in a variety of English reading activities after class.”

Table 87 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 7 before the strategy instruction. ‘Never’ was not preferred by any participants as an option when they were asked whether they actively looked for opportunities to participate in a variety of English reading activities after class or not. 9.2 % of the participants declared that they ‘rarely’ looked for opportunities to participate English reading activities. The majority of the participants with a percentage of 62.0 % preferred ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 26.6 % of the participants. 2.2% of the participants selected ‘always’ which referred to only 2 participants out of 184.

Table 87

The Responses of the Participants to Item 7 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 17 | 9,2 | 9,2 | 9,2 |
| | sometimes | 114 | 62,0 | 62,0 | 71,2 |
| | usually | 49 | 26,6 | 26,6 | 97,8 |
| | always | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 88, it was found out that ‘never’ was not preferred by any participants again and ‘rarely’ was marked by only 1.1 % of them. The number of participants who preferred ‘sometimes’ showed a significant difference and its percentage decreased to 38.0. Slightly more than half of the participants chose ‘usually’ for Item 7, and with a small increase ‘always’ was selected by 9.8 % of the participants.

Table 88

The Responses of the Participants to Item 7 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | sometimes | 70 | 38,0 | 38,0 | 39,1 |
| | usually | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 90,2 |
| | always | 18 | 9,8 | 9,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 8

“I am able to find out the reasons for my reading errors and take measures to correct them.”

When the participants were asked whether they were able to find out the reasons for their reading errors and take measures to correct them or not, 1.6 % of them chose ‘never’. 38.6 % of the participants stated that they were ‘rarely’ able to find out the reasons and the

percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was 55.4. ‘Usually’ was selected by only 4.3 % of the participants and ‘always’ was not preferred by any participants which gives an important clue about the tendency of the participants about finding out and correcting reading errors before the instruction.

Table 89

The Responses of the Participants to Item 8 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 71 | 38,6 | 38,6 | 40,2 |
| | sometimes | 102 | 55,4 | 55,4 | 95,7 |
| | usually | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 8 after the strategy instruction, none of the participants selected ‘never’ this time. The percentage of the participants who chose ‘rarely’ decreased to 6.5. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 54.9 % of the participants and the percentage of the participants who preferred ‘usually’ became 38.6; however, still no one marked ‘always’ after the instruction.

Table 90

The Responses of the Participants to Item 8 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 12 | 6,5 | 6,5 | 6,5 |
| | sometimes | 101 | 54,9 | 54,9 | 61,4 |
| | usually | 71 | 38,6 | 38,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 9

“I think I have the ability to read in English well.”

Table 91 below shows the responses of the participants to Item 9 before the strategy instruction. 32.1 % of the participants stated that they ‘never’ thought that they have the ability to read in English well. 52.2 % of them chose ‘rarely’ and 14.1 % of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘usually’ was 1.6. None of the participants preferred ‘always’ before the strategy instruction.

Table 91

The Responses of the Participants to Item 9 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 59 | 32,1 | 32,1 | 32,1 |
| | rarely | 96 | 52,2 | 52,2 | 84,2 |
| | sometimes | 26 | 14,1 | 14,1 | 98,4 |
| | usually | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

As seen in Table 92, after the strategy instruction, the rates in the participants’ responses shifted towards more positive responses. ‘Never’ was not chosen by any participants this time. The percentage of the participants who declared that they ‘rarely’ thought that they have the ability to read in English well became 9.8. 55.4 % of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for item 9 after the instruction, and 34.8 % of them preferred ‘usually’. None of the participants marked ‘always’ even after the strategy instruction.

Table 92

The Responses of the Participants to Item 9 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 18 | 9,8 | 9,8 | 9,8 |
| | sometimes | 102 | 55,4 | 55,4 | 65,2 |
| | usually | 64 | 34,8 | 34,8 | 100,0 |

| | | | |
|-------|-----|-------|-------|
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 |
|-------|-----|-------|-------|

Item 10

“I make good use of my free time in reading English materials.”

Table 93 below indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 10 before the strategy instruction. 14.7 % of the participants declared that they ‘never’ made good use of their free time in reading English materials. More than half of the participants preferred ‘rarely’ with a percentage of 53.3, and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 29.9 % of the participants. ‘Usually’ was only selected by 2.2 % of the participants and ‘always’ was not marked by anyone in the pre-test.

Table 93

The Responses of the Participants to Item 10 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 27 | 14,1 | 14,7 | 14,7 |
| | rarely | 98 | 51,0 | 53,3 | 67,9 |
| | sometimes | 55 | 28,6 | 29,9 | 97,8 |
| | usually | 4 | 2,1 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 94, it was found out that ‘never’ was preferred by only 1 participant out of 184, which referred to the 0.5 % of all. 31.0 % of the participants marked ‘rarely’ and 57.1 % of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 10 which referred to the majority of the participants. A slight increase was seen in ‘usually’, 11.4 % of the participants selected it after the strategy instruction. ‘Always’ was not marked by any participants, which was also the same before the strategy instruction.

Table 94

The Responses of the Participants to Item 10 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 57 | 31,0 | 31,0 | 31,5 |
| | sometimes | 105 | 57,1 | 57,1 | 88,6 |
| | usually | 21 | 11,4 | 11,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 11

“I preview what I will read before the class.”

Item 11 refers to preparation for reading before class. According to the answers of the participants seen in Table 95, ‘never’ was chosen by only 1 participant out of 184, which equals to 0.5 % of the participants. 23.9 % of them stated that they ‘rarely’ previewed what they would read before the class. The majority of the participants, with a percentage of 66.8 %, preferred ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 7.6 % of the participants. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘always’ for Item 11 before the strategy instruction was 1.1.

Table 95

The Responses of the Participants to Item 11 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 44 | 23,9 | 23,9 | 24,5 |
| | sometimes | 123 | 66,8 | 66,8 | 91,3 |
| | usually | 14 | 7,6 | 7,6 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses after the strategy instruction, as shown in Table 96 below, showed a slight difference when compared to pre-test results. As it is seen in the table, ‘never’ was not chosen by any participants. There was a decrease in the percentage of participants who

preferred ‘rarely’, 14.1 % of them selected ‘rarely’ after the instruction. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was similar to the results taken before the instruction, it was marked by 65.2 % of the participants. The percentage of the participants who selected ‘usually’ was 19.0. Although it was selected by only 3 tree participants, ‘always’ became observable in the table with a percentage of 1.6 after the strategy instruction.

Table 96

The Responses of the Participants to Item 11 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 26 | 14,1 | 14,1 | 14,1 |
| | sometimes | 120 | 65,2 | 65,2 | 79,3 |
| | usually | 35 | 19,0 | 19,0 | 98,4 |
| | always | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 12

“I find I can finish my reading task in time.”

Item 12 focused on the participants’ self-belief about finishing their tasks in time. The responses of the participants to Item 12 before the strategy instruction can be seen in the table below. None of the participants stated that they ‘never’ found they could finish their reading task in time. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘rarely’ was 9.8 %. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by slightly more than half of the participants with a percentage of 51.6, and 33.7 % of the participants marked ‘usually’ for Item 12. Before strategy instruction, 9 participants out of 184 preferred ‘always’, which referred to 4.9 % of all.

Table 97

The Responses of the Participants to Item 12 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 18 | 9,4 | 9,8 | 9,8 |
| | sometimes | 95 | 49,5 | 51,6 | 61,4 |
| | usually | 62 | 32,3 | 33,7 | 95,1 |
| | always | 9 | 4,7 | 4,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

Table 98 displays the participants' answers to Item 12 after the strategy instruction. Similar to the previously taken results, the participants again tended to select more positive answers. However, the percentages increased after the instruction. As seen in the table, no one marked 'never' and the percentage of the participants who chose 'rarely' decreased to 0.5. 45.1 % of the participants preferred 'sometimes' which is quite close to the percentage obtained in the pre-test. 52.7 % of the participants selected 'usually' for Item 12 after the instruction. In contrast with the other positive options showing an increase, interestingly, 'always' showed a decrease and was marked by 1.6 % of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 98

The Responses of the Participants to Item 12 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | sometimes | 83 | 45,1 | 45,1 | 45,7 |
| | usually | 97 | 52,7 | 52,7 | 98,4 |
| | always | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 13

“I make self-exam of what I have read by myself.”

When the participants were asked whether they made self-exam of what they have read by themselves or not, 39.7 % of them chose ‘never’, which is quite a high percentage. 51.1 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ made self-exams and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was 9.2. ‘Usually’ or ‘always’ was not preferred by any participants, which gives an important clue about the tendency of the participants about making self-exams before the strategy instruction.

Table 99

The Responses of the Participants to Item 13 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 73 | 39,7 | 39,7 | 39,7 |
| | rarely | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 90,8 |
| | sometimes | 17 | 9,2 | 9,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 13 after the strategy instruction, the percentage of ‘never’ showed a big decrease and became 1.1 this time. The percentage of the participants who chose ‘rarely’ also decreased to 19.6. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 58.7 % of the participants and ‘usually’ was also preferred by 20.7 % of the participants which was not in the table before. However, still no one marked ‘always’ after the instruction.

Table 100

The Responses of the Participants to Item 13 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 36 | 19,6 | 19,6 | 20,7 |
| | sometimes | 108 | 58,7 | 58,7 | 79,3 |
| | usually | 38 | 20,7 | 20,7 | 100,0 |

| | | | |
|-------|-----|-------|-------|
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 |
|-------|-----|-------|-------|

Item 14

“I reward myself such as going shopping, playing etc. when I make progress in my reading.”

Item 14 in the questionnaire aimed at revealing the frequency level of the participants' rewarding themselves after showing a progress in reading. Table 101 below shows the responses of the participants before the strategy instruction. 'Never' was selected by 13.0 % of the participants. 40.2 % of them preferred 'rarely'. 45.7 % of the participants stated that they 'sometimes' reward themselves after reading progress. Only 1.1 % of the participants preferred 'usually', and 'always' was not chosen by any of the participants.

Table 101

The Responses of the Participants to Item 14 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 24 | 13,0 | 13,0 | 13,0 |
| | rarely | 74 | 40,2 | 40,2 | 53,3 |
| | sometimes | 84 | 45,7 | 45,7 | 98,9 |
| | usually | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

After the strategy instruction the responses of the participants showed a slight increase in a positive way as seen in Table 102. 'Never' was selected by 4.9 % of the participants and 35.9 % of the participants preferred 'rarely'. 57.1 % of them selected 'sometimes', and 'usually' was chosen by 2.2 % of them. Like it was before the strategy instruction, 'always' was not again selected by any of the participants after the instruction.

Table 102

The Responses of the Participants to Item 14 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 4,9 |
| | rarely | 66 | 35,9 | 35,9 | 40,8 |
| | sometimes | 105 | 57,1 | 57,1 | 97,8 |
| | usually | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 15

“During the class, I try to catch chances to take part in reading activities.”

Item 15 was included in the questionnaire to determine whether or not the participants tried to catch chances to take part in reading activities. Table 103 below shows the responses of the participants before the strategy instruction. As it is indicated, 1.1 % of the participants stated that they ‘never’ tried to catch chances to take part in reading activities. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 6.5 % of them, and 42.4 % of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’ before the strategy instruction. ‘Usually’ was selected by 41.3 % of the participants, and 8.7 % of the participants preferred ‘always’.

Table 103

The Responses of the Participants to Item 15 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 12 | 6,5 | 6,5 | 7,6 |
| | sometimes | 78 | 42,4 | 42,4 | 50,0 |
| | usually | 76 | 41,3 | 41,3 | 91,3 |
| | always | 16 | 8,7 | 8,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses obtained after the strategy instruction indicated a shift from negative to positive. None of the participants selected ‘never’ after the instruction. The percentage of ‘rarely’ decreased to 3.3 %. Sometimes was chosen by 46.2 % of the participants. Nearly half of the participants, with a percentage of 46.7, marked ‘usually’. Finally, 3.8 % of the participants selected ‘always’ for Item 15.

Table 104

The Responses of the Participants to Item 15 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | sometimes | 85 | 46,2 | 46,2 | 49,5 |
| | usually | 86 | 46,7 | 46,7 | 96,2 |
| | always | 7 | 3,8 | 3,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 16

“I can read without teacher’s supervision.”

Emphasizing self-efficacy in reading, Item 16 aimed to measure the frequency participants read without teacher’s supervision. Table 105 below shows the answers of the participants before the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, ‘never’ was chosen by 3.3 % of the participants. 46.7 % of them declared that they ‘rarely’ could read without teacher’s supervision. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 48.4 % of the participants and ‘usually’ was preferred by 1.6 % of them. None of the participants marked ‘always’ for Item 16 before the strategy instruction.

Table 105

The Responses of the Participants to Item 16 Before the Strategy instruction

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|

| | | | | | |
|-------|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| | never | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | rarely | 86 | 46,7 | 46,7 | 50,0 |
| Valid | sometimes | 89 | 48,4 | 48,4 | 98,4 |
| | usually | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Similarly, as seen in Table 106, after the strategy instruction, none of the participants marked ‘never’ for Item 16 and the percentage of participants who preferred ‘rarely’ showed a dramatic decrease to 13.0. 57.6 % of them chose ‘sometimes’, 28.8 % of them preferred ‘usually’ and ‘always’ was selected by 0.5 % of the participants.

Table 106

The Responses of the Participants to Item 16 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | rarely | 24 | 13,0 | 13,0 | 13,0 |
| | sometimes | 106 | 57,6 | 57,6 | 70,7 |
| Valid | usually | 53 | 28,8 | 28,8 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 17

“If I didn’t have to read in English I wouldn’t.”

When the participants were asked whether they would read or not if they didn’t have to read in English, the majority of the participants chose the positive answers which can be interpreted as their accepting the idea presented in the item. Only 1.1 % of the participants chose ‘never’ and 4.3 % of them preferred ‘rarely’. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘sometimes’ was 28.3. ‘Usually’ was selected by more than half of the participants with a percentage of 53.3, which can be accepted as a proof to say that the main tendency of answers for Item 17 was positive. Finally ‘always’ was preferred by 13.0 % of the participants before the instruction.

Table 107

The Responses of the Participants to Item 17 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 5,4 |
| | sometimes | 52 | 28,3 | 28,3 | 33,7 |
| | usually | 98 | 53,3 | 53,3 | 87,0 |
| | always | 24 | 13,0 | 13,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 17 after the strategy instruction, the percentage of the participants who chose ‘never’ became 1.6. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 15.2 % of the participants and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 48.4 % of them. The percentage of the participants who chose ‘usually’ decreased to 29.9. A decrease was also seen for ‘always’ and its percentage became 4.9. As it is seen in the table below, the responses of the participants shifted from positive to negative after the strategy instruction, and it can be claimed that with the instruction given, the participants started to think that they would read in English even if they didn’t have to.

Table 108

The Responses of the Participants to Item 18 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 28 | 15,2 | 15,2 | 16,8 |
| | sometimes | 89 | 48,4 | 48,4 | 65,2 |
| | usually | 55 | 29,9 | 29,9 | 95,1 |
| | always | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 18

“When I have a problem in my reading, I turn to teachers or classmates for help.”

Item 18 focuses on whether or not the participants look for the help of their teachers or friends when they have a problem in reading. According to the answers seen in Table 109 below, none of the participants chose ‘never’ for Item 18 before the instruction. 2.7 % of them stated that they ‘rarely’ turned to teachers or classmates for help. More than half of the participants, with a percentage of 58.2 %, preferred ‘sometimes’, and ‘usually’ was chosen by 38.6 % of the participants. Only 1 participant out of 184, which refers to 0.5 %, marked ‘always’ for Item 18 before the strategy instruction. The responses given for Item 18 seem to accumulate around positive answers, which can be interpreted as the participants’ tendency to consult their teachers or friends when they have problems in reading.

Table 109

The Responses of the Participants to Item 18 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 2,7 |
| | sometimes | 107 | 58,2 | 58,2 | 60,9 |
| | usually | 71 | 38,6 | 38,6 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The rates shown in Table 110 below indicate a close similarity to the answers given before the strategy instruction. None of the participants chose ‘never’ and 4.9 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ turned to teachers or classmates for help. 62.5 % of them marked ‘sometimes’ and the percentage of the participants who chose ‘usually’ for Item 18 became 32.1. The percentage of participants who preferred ‘always’ stayed the same even after the strategy instruction.

Table 110

The Responses of the Participants to Item 18 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 4,9 |
| | sometimes | 115 | 62,5 | 62,5 | 67,4 |
| | usually | 59 | 32,1 | 32,1 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 19

“I think English class should be teacher centered and participants’ autonomous reading should be auxiliary.”

Item 12 aimed to measure the participants’ ideas about a teacher centered reading class. Table 111 below shows the answers of the participants before the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, ‘never’ was chosen by 3.8 % of the participants. 10.3 % of the participants declared that they ‘rarely’ thought that English class should be teacher centered. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 46.2 % of the participants and ‘usually’ was preferred by 37.5 % of them. Finally 2.2 % of the participants marked ‘always’ for Item 19 before the strategy instruction.

Table 111

The Responses of the Participants to Item 19 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 7 | 3,8 | 3,8 | 3,8 |
| | rarely | 19 | 10,3 | 10,3 | 14,1 |
| | sometimes | 85 | 46,2 | 46,2 | 60,3 |
| | usually | 69 | 37,5 | 37,5 | 97,8 |
| | always | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The results taken after the strategy instruction showed a similarity with the previous ones. As seen in Table 112, 1.6 % of the participants marked ‘never’ and 15.2 % of them chose ‘rarely’. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘sometimes’ showed a slight increase and became 58.7. 23.4 % of the participants selected ‘usually’ and ‘always’ was marked by only 2 participants which referred to 1.1 % of all.

Table 112

The Responses of the Participants to Item 19 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 28 | 15,2 | 15,2 | 16,8 |
| | sometimes | 108 | 58,7 | 58,7 | 75,5 |
| | usually | 43 | 23,4 | 23,4 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 20

“If I had the right materials I’d prefer to spend some time reading alone.”

Item 20 took the voluntariness for reading into the center. The answers of the participants given before the strategy instruction can be seen in the Table 113 below. The majority of the participants, with a percentage of 8.2, preferred ‘never’ when they were asked whether or not they would prefer to spend some time reading alone if they had the right materials. The percentage of ‘rarely’ was 50.5 and 38.6 % of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’. ‘Usually’ was marked by 1.6 % of the participants and 1.1 % of them preferred ‘always’ before the strategy instruction.

Table 113

The Responses of the Participants to Item 20 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 15 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 8,2 |

| | | | | |
|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| rarely | 93 | 50,5 | 50,5 | 58,7 |
| sometimes | 71 | 38,6 | 38,6 | 97,3 |
| usually | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 98,9 |
| always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 114 shows the rates of the participants to Item 20 after the strategy instruction. According to the results, ‘never’ was not marked by any participants after the strategy instruction. A significant decrease was seen in the number of participants who preferred ‘rarely’ and the percentage became 6.0. 51.6 % of them chose ‘rarely’ when they were asked to choose whether or not they would prefer to spend some time reading alone if they had the right materials. ‘Usually’ was chosen by 41.3 % of the participants, and only 1.1 % of the participants preferred ‘always’ for Item 20 after the strategy instruction.

Table 114

The Responses of the Participants to Item 20 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 11 | 6,0 | 6,0 | 6,0 |
| | sometimes | 95 | 51,6 | 51,6 | 57,6 |
| | usually | 76 | 41,3 | 41,3 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 21

“In reading a language, I enjoy tasks where I can read what I am interested in.”

Item 21 focused on the participants’ interests and through it, the researcher tried to find out whether or not the participants enjoy doing tasks the topic of which appealed to their interests. The responses taken before the strategy instruction as seen in Table 115 below reveal the participants’ approval of the idea given in the item. ‘Never’ or ‘rarely’ was not marked by any participants in the study and all the responses accumulated around the positive answers. 5.4 % of the participants preferred ‘sometimes’, and one of the highest

percentages in the study, 76.1, was seen for ‘usually’. 18.5 % of the participants stated that they ‘always’ enjoyed tasks in which they could read about what they were interested in.

Table 115

The Responses of the Participants to Item 21 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | sometimes | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 5,4 |
| | usually | 140 | 76,1 | 76,1 | 81,5 |
| | always | 34 | 18,5 | 18,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses taken after the strategy instruction showed a significant similarity when compared to the results of the pre-test. Again, none of the participants chose ‘never’ or ‘rarely’ for Item 21. There became a slight increase for the percentage of ‘sometimes’, which became 6.0 and ‘usually’, which turned to 80.4. However, a small decrease was seen in the percentage of ‘always’. 13.6 % of the participants declared after the instruction that they ‘always’ enjoyed tasks in which they could read about what they were interested in.

Table 116

The Responses of the Participants to Item 21 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | sometimes | 11 | 6,0 | 6,0 | 6,0 |
| | usually | 148 | 80,4 | 80,4 | 86,4 |
| | always | 25 | 13,6 | 13,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 22

“I prefer to read books, magazines and newspapers, all by myself without the teacher telling me what to read.”

Self-efficacy, which was also included in Item 16, took part in Item 22 by focusing on the participants' preferences about choosing what to read, and the responses are displayed in Table 117 below. 'Never' was selected by 11.4 % of the participants. 64.1 % of them preferred 'rarely', and 24.5 % of them stated that they 'sometimes' preferred to read things all by themselves. 'Usually' or 'always' was not chosen by any of the participants, which gives clues about the participants' being dependent to teacher about choosing what to read.

Table 117

The Responses of the Participants to Item 22 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 21 | 11,4 | 11,4 | 11,4 |
| | rarely | 118 | 64,1 | 64,1 | 75,5 |
| | sometimes | 45 | 24,5 | 24,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

After the strategy instruction the responses of the participants showed a move towards positive answers as seen in Table 118. 'Never' was not selected by any of the participants. 7.6 % of the participants preferred 'rarely' and 58.7 % of them selected 'sometimes'. Different from the results of the pre-test, 'usually' and 'always' was included in the table with the percentages of, respectively, 32.1 and 1.6.

Table 118

The Responses of the Participants to Item 22 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 14 | 7,6 | 7,6 | 7,6 |
| | sometimes | 108 | 58,7 | 58,7 | 66,3 |

| | | | | |
|---------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| usually | 59 | 32,1 | 32,1 | 98,4 |
| always | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 23

“I prefer to choose my own reading materials e.g. course books, magazines and to decide about the amount of material to be covered.”

Item 23 was employed in the questionnaire to get the participants' answers on their preferences to choose their own reading materials as well as deciding the amount of them. Table 119 below displays the answers of the participants for Item 23 before the strategy instruction. According to their answers, 2.2 % of the participants stated that they 'never' preferred that. 17.4 % of the participants marked 'rarely'. More than half of the participants, with a percentage of 58.2, preferred 'sometimes', and 'usually' was chosen by 21.7 % of the participants. The percentage of the participants who marked 'always' for Item 23 before the strategy instruction was 0.5, which referred to only 1 participant out of 184.

Table 119

The Responses of the Participants to Item 23 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| | rarely | 32 | 17,4 | 17,4 | 19,6 |
| | sometimes | 107 | 58,2 | 58,2 | 77,7 |
| | usually | 40 | 21,7 | 21,7 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The results showed a slight change when the answers of the participants after the strategy instruction was taken into consideration. 'Never' was not chosen by any participants this time and 'rarely' was chosen by 3.3 % of the participants. 53.3 % of them preferred

‘sometimes’ and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘usually’ became 42.9. Still, the number of the participants who preferred ‘always’ stayed the same after the strategy instruction, as seen in the Table 120 below.

Table 120

The Responses of the Participants to Item 23 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | sometimes | 98 | 53,3 | 53,3 | 56,5 |
| | usually | 79 | 42,9 | 42,9 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 24

“I like to read autonomously because it can give me the freedom to read what I want to do.”

Item 24 was included in the questionnaire to obtain participants’ views on reading autonomously. Before the reading strategy instruction, ‘never’ was chosen by 1.6 % of the participants. 13.6 % of them preferred ‘rarely’ and 64.1 % of them stated that they ‘sometimes’ liked to read autonomously. ‘Usually’ was marked by 20.1 % of the participants and ‘always’ was preferred by only 0.5 % of them.

Table 121

The Responses of the Participants to Item 24 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 25 | 13,6 | 13,6 | 15,2 |
| | sometimes | 118 | 64,1 | 64,1 | 79,3 |
| | usually | 37 | 20,1 | 20,1 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

After the strategy instruction an accumulation was seen in the positive answers, as shown in Table 122. None of the participants preferred ‘never’ and ‘rarely’ was only marked by 1.1 % of them. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen with a percentage of 44.0, and half of the participants participated in the study stated that they ‘usually’ like reading autonomously. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘always’ showed a slight increase and became 4.9 after the strategy instruction.

Table 122

The Responses of the Participants to Item 24 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | sometimes | 81 | 44,0 | 44,0 | 45,1 |
| | usually | 92 | 50,0 | 50,0 | 95,1 |
| | always | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 25

“I like reading in a language on my own because I know best how to read.”

Item 25 focused on revealing the participants’ preference to read by themselves and their views about whether or not they know how to read. According to the table below, the responses mainly ranged between ‘never’ and ‘rarely’. 47.3 % of the participants preferred ‘never’ and ‘rarely’ was marked by 43.5 % of the participants. Rest of the participants, with a percentage of 9.2, selected sometimes. ‘Usually’ or ‘always’ was not chosen by any participants before the strategy instruction.

Table 123

The Responses of the Participants to Item 25 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 87 | 47,3 | 47,3 | 47,3 |

| | | | | |
|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| rarely | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 90,8 |
| sometimes | 17 | 9,2 | 9,2 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses after the strategy instruction, as shown in Table 124 below, showed a shift from negative to positive. The percentage of ‘never’ decreased dramatically to 3.3. The number of participants who preferred ‘rarely’ increased and the percentage after the instruction became 57.1. 39.1 % of the participants selected ‘sometimes’ after the instruction. Although ‘always’ was still not preferred by anyone, 1 participant marked ‘usually’ and its percentage in the participants’ responses became 0.5.

Table 124

The Responses of the Participants to Item 25 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | rarely | 105 | 57,1 | 57,1 | 60,3 |
| | sometimes | 72 | 39,1 | 39,1 | 99,5 |
| | usually | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 26

“I enjoy reading in a group with other participants.”

Reading in a group rather than reading alone was taken into consideration in Item 26. As shown in Table 125, before the strategy instruction, 2.7 % of the participants preferred ‘never’ and the item ‘I enjoy reading in a group with other participants.’ was responded with ‘rarely’ by 10.3 % of the participants. 48.4 % of the participants stated that they ‘sometimes’ enjoyed reading in a group. 38.0 % of the participants preferred ‘usually’ in the questionnaire. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘always’ was only 0.5.

Table 125

The Responses of the Participants to Item 26 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 2,7 |
| | rarely | 19 | 10,3 | 10,3 | 13,0 |
| | sometimes | 89 | 48,4 | 48,4 | 61,4 |
| | usually | 70 | 38,0 | 38,0 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 126 displays the participants' answers to Item 26 after the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, only 0.5 % of the participants marked 'never' and the percentage of the participants who chose 'rarely' became 9.2. The majority of the participants with a percentage of 57.1 preferred 'sometimes' which is little higher than the percentage obtained in the pre-test. 32.6 % of the participants selected 'usually' for Item 26 after the instruction, and 'always', which was chosen by 0.5 % of the participants in the pre-test stayed the same.

Table 126

The Responses of the Participants to Item 26 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 17 | 9,2 | 9,2 | 9,8 |
| | sometimes | 105 | 57,1 | 57,1 | 66,8 |
| | usually | 60 | 32,6 | 32,6 | 99,5 |
| | always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 27

"I try to enlarge my reading strategies by remembering a few strategies every day."

With the 27th item, it was aimed to reveal whether or not the participants tried to develop their reading strategies by remembering a few strategies every day. Before the reading

strategy instruction, 62.0 % of the participants responded that they ‘never’ tried to develop their reading strategies. 36.4 % of them preferred ‘rarely’ and 1.6% of them stated that they ‘sometimes’ tried to develop their reading strategies by remembering a few strategies every day. 181 out of 184 participants chose ‘never’ or ‘rarely’ for Item 27 and ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was not preferred by and participants before the strategy instruction.

Table 127

The Responses of the Participants to Item 27 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 114 | 62,0 | 62,0 | 62,0 |
| | rarely | 67 | 36,4 | 36,4 | 98,4 |
| | sometimes | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 128 below shows the answers given by the participants for Item 27 after the instruction. An enormous decrease was seen in the percentage of ‘never’ and the percentage became 1.1. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 40.2 % of the participants, and slightly more than half of the participants, with a percentage of 53.8, marked ‘sometimes’. ‘Usually’ was selected by 4.9 % of the participants. ‘Always’ was not preferred by any of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 128

The Responses of the Participants to Item 27 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 1,1 |
| | rarely | 74 | 40,2 | 40,2 | 41,3 |
| | sometimes | 99 | 53,8 | 53,8 | 95,1 |
| | usually | 9 | 4,9 | 4,9 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 28

“I keep up reading something every day such as English emails and diaries.”

Reading in English everyday was the next point included in Item 28 in the study. As shown in Table 129, before the strategy instruction, the item ‘I keep up reading something every day such as English emails and diaries.’ was responded with ‘never’ by 6.5 % of the participants. 51.6 % of the participants preferred ‘rarely’. 36.4 % of the participants marked ‘sometimes’ for Item 28 in the questionnaire. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘usually’ was 5.4 and none of the participants chose ‘always’.

Table 129

The Responses of the Participants to Item 28 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 12 | 6,5 | 6,5 | 6,5 |
| | rarely | 95 | 51,6 | 51,6 | 58,2 |
| | sometimes | 67 | 36,4 | 36,4 | 94,6 |
| | usually | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses of the participants shown in Table 130, after the strategy instruction, none of the participants declared that they ‘never’ kept up reading something every day. The percentage of the participants who answered ‘rarely’ to the 28th item became 3.8 after the strategy instruction. 51.1 % of the participants marked ‘sometimes’ and 44.6 % of the participants chose ‘usually’. The percentage of the participants who preferred ‘always’ was 0.5.

Table 130

The Responses of the Participants to Item 28 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 7 | 3,8 | 3,8 | 3,8 |
| | sometimes | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 54,9 |

| | | | | |
|---------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| usually | 82 | 44,6 | 44,6 | 99,5 |
| always | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 29

“I review regularly in reading English materials and check what I have read.”

Table 131 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 29 before the strategy instruction. 3.3 % of the participants declared that they ‘never’ checked and reviewed English materials they read. 51.1 % of the participants preferred ‘rarely’, and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 41.3 %. 4.3 % of the participants selected ‘usually’. ‘Always’ was not marked by anyone in the pre-test.

Table 131

The Responses of the Participants to Item 29 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | rarely | 94 | 51,1 | 51,1 | 54,3 |
| | sometimes | 76 | 41,3 | 41,3 | 95,7 |
| | usually | 8 | 4,3 | 4,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 132, it was revealed that ‘never’ was preferred by 1.6 % of the participants. 26.1 % of the participants marked ‘rarely’. Nearly half of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 29 with a percentage of 46.7 and 25.5 % of the participants selected ‘usually’. ‘Always’ was again not marked by any of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 132

The Responses of the Participants to Item 29 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |

| | | | | |
|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| rarely | 48 | 26,1 | 26,1 | 27,7 |
| sometimes | 86 | 46,7 | 46,7 | 74,5 |
| usually | 47 | 25,5 | 25,5 | 100,0 |
| Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 30

“I often discuss reading problems with classmates both inside and outside class.”

Table 59 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 30 before the strategy instruction. 1.6 % of the participants declared that they ‘never’ discussed reading problems with classmates both in and outside class. 38.6 % of the participants preferred ‘rarely’. More than half of the participants with a percentage of 53.3 marked ‘sometimes’ and ‘usually’ was chosen by 6.0 % of the participants. ‘Always’ was not marked by anyone in the pre-test.

Table 133

The Responses of the Participants to Item 30 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 3 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 1,6 |
| | rarely | 71 | 37,0 | 38,6 | 40,2 |
| | sometimes | 99 | 51,6 | 53,8 | 94,0 |
| | usually | 11 | 5,7 | 6,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as it is shown in Table 134, it was revealed that ‘never’ was not preferred by any participants. 8.7 % of the participants marked ‘rarely’ and half of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 30. An important increase was seen in ‘usually’, 40.2 % of the participants selected it after the strategy instruction. ‘Always’ was marked by only 1.1 % of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 134

The Responses of the Participants to Item 30 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 16 | 8,7 | 8,7 | 8,7 |
| | sometimes | 92 | 50,0 | 50,0 | 58,7 |
| | usually | 74 | 40,2 | 40,2 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 31

“I sometimes do assignments which are not compulsory for example reading compositions, doing test paper questions.”

Item 31 aimed to measure the frequency of the participants' doing some voluntary assignments. Table 135 below shows the answers of the participants before the strategy instruction. As seen in the table, the responses of the participants accumulated around the negative answers, which means most of the participants did not do voluntary assignments about reading in English. 'Never' was chosen by 38.6 % of the participants and 45.1 % of the participants preferred rarely. The rest, with a percentage of 16.3, declared that they 'sometimes' did assignments which were not compulsory. None of the participants marked 'usually' or 'always' for Item 31 before the strategy instruction.

Table 135

The Responses of the Participants to Item 31 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 71 | 37,0 | 38,6 | 38,6 |
| | rarely | 83 | 43,2 | 45,1 | 83,7 |
| | sometimes | 30 | 15,6 | 16,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

Similarly, as seen in Table 136, after the strategy instruction, the responses again ranged from ‘never’ to ‘sometimes’. However the responses shifted from negative to positive. The percentage of ‘never’ decreased to 6.5. ‘Rarely’ was marked by 45.1 % of the participants. An important increase was observed in ‘sometimes’ and it was chosen by 48.4 % of the participants after the strategy instruction.

Table 136

The Responses of the Participants to Item 31 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 12 | 6,5 | 6,5 | 6,5 |
| | rarely | 83 | 45,1 | 45,1 | 51,6 |
| | sometimes | 89 | 48,4 | 48,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 32

“When I have a problem in reading a text I first try to solve it myself and only if I don’t manage to do it, I turn to teachers or classmates for help.”

Item 32 was included in the questionnaire to determine whether or not the participants try to solve their problems by themselves first. Table 137 below shows the responses of the participants before the strategy instruction. As it is indicated, none of the participants chose ‘never’. 12.5 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ try to solve it by themselves first. ‘Sometimes’ was chosen by 64.1 % of the participants, which refers to the majority of them. ‘Usually’ was selected by 20.7 % of the participants, and 2.7 % of the participants preferred ‘always’ before the strategy instruction.

Table 137

The Responses of the Participants to Item 32 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|--|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|

| | | | | | |
|-------|-----------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| | rarely | 23 | 12,5 | 12,5 | 12,5 |
| | sometimes | 118 | 64,1 | 64,1 | 76,6 |
| Valid | usually | 38 | 20,7 | 20,7 | 97,3 |
| | always | 5 | 2,7 | 2,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

The responses obtained after the strategy instruction indicated a shift from negative to positive. None of the participants again selected ‘never’ after the instruction. The percentage of ‘rarely’ decreased from 12.5 % to 3.3 %. Nearly half of the participants, with a percentage of 47.8, marked ‘sometimes’. ‘Usually’ was chosen by 43.5 % of the participants. Finally, 5.4 % of the participants selected ‘always’ for Item 32.

Table 138

The Responses of the Participants to Item 32 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | rarely | 6 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 3,3 |
| | sometimes | 88 | 47,8 | 47,8 | 51,1 |
| Valid | usually | 80 | 43,5 | 43,5 | 94,6 |
| | always | 10 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 33

“I make a plan for reading and am stick to it in order to achieve my aim.”

Making a plan for reading was represented with Item 33 in the questionnaire. Table 139 indicates the preferences of the participants for Item 33 before the strategy instruction. 21.7 % of the participants declared that they ‘never’ made a plan for reading and stuck to it in order to achieve their aim. The majority of the participants with a percentage of 59.8 preferred ‘rarely’. ‘Sometimes’ was marked by 17.9 % of the participants. Only 1 participant, which refers to 0.5 % of the participants, selected ‘usually’.

Table 139

The Responses of the Participants to Item 33 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 40 | 21,7 | 21,7 | 21,7 |
| | rarely | 110 | 59,8 | 59,8 | 81,5 |
| | sometimes | 33 | 17,9 | 17,9 | 99,5 |
| | usually | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

When the post test results are considered, as shown in Table 140, it was found out that ‘never’ was not preferred by any participants. The percentage of the participants who selected ‘rarely’ showed a dramatic decrease and became 16.8. Almost half of the participants chose ‘sometimes’ for Item 33, with a percentage of 47.8, and 34.2 % of the participants selected ‘usually’. ‘Always’ was marked by only 1.1 % of the participants, which can also be shown as a difference after the strategy instruction.

Table 140

The Responses of the Participants to Item 33 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | rarely | 31 | 16,8 | 16,8 | 16,8 |
| | sometimes | 88 | 47,8 | 47,8 | 64,7 |
| | usually | 63 | 34,2 | 34,2 | 98,9 |
| | always | 2 | 1,1 | 1,1 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 34

“I reasonably organize my spare time and spend at least two hours reading English every day.”

When the participants were asked whether or not they organized their spare time and spent at least two hours reading English every day, 25.0 % of them chose ‘never’. 41.3 % of the participants stated that they ‘rarely’ did that, and the percentage of the participants who

marked ‘sometimes’ was 33.7. The main tendency of answers for Item 34 was negative since ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was not preferred by any participants which gives an important clue about how rare this activity was done before the instruction.

Table 141

The Responses of the Participants to Item 34 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 46 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 25,0 |
| | rarely | 76 | 41,3 | 41,3 | 66,3 |
| | sometimes | 62 | 33,7 | 33,7 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

According to the responses given for Item 34 after the strategy instruction, the percentage of the participants who chose ‘never’ decreased to 14.7 %. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 52.2 % of the participants and ‘sometimes’ was chosen by 33.2 % of them. Like it was before the instruction, ‘usually’ or ‘always’ was again not preferred by any participants. Although the responses were still negative, there became a shift from ‘never’ to ‘rarely’ and ‘sometimes’ after the strategy instruction.

Table 142

The Responses of the Participants to Item 34 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 27 | 14,7 | 14,7 | 14,7 |
| | rarely | 96 | 52,2 | 52,2 | 66,8 |
| | sometimes | 61 | 33,2 | 33,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Item 35

“I take opportunities to read in English inside and outside class.”

Item 35 represented the participants’ voluntariness and their efforts to read inside and outside class. Table 143 below displays the answers of the participants for Item 35 before

the strategy instruction. According to their answers, 0.5 % of the participants stated that they ‘never’ took opportunities to read in English. ‘Rarely’ was chosen by 4.3 % of the participants, and more than half of the participants, with a percentage of 56.0, preferred ‘sometimes’. The percentage of the participants who marked ‘usually’ for Item 25 before the strategy instruction was 34.8, and only 4.3 % of the participants preferred always.

Table 143

The Responses of the Participants to Item 35 Before the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 8 | 4,2 | 4,3 | 4,9 |
| | sometimes | 103 | 53,6 | 56,0 | 60,9 |
| | usually | 64 | 33,3 | 34,8 | 95,7 |
| | always | 8 | 4,2 | 4,3 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 95,8 | 100,0 | |

The results showed a small change when the answers of the participants after the strategy instruction was taken into consideration. Only 0.5 % of the participants preferred ‘never’ and ‘rarely’ was chosen by 11.4 % of the participants. 54.3 % of them preferred ‘sometimes’ and the percentage of the participants who marked ‘usually’ became 31.5. 2.2 % of the participants marked ‘always’ after the strategy instruction, as seen in the Table 70 below.

Table 144

The Responses of the Participants to Item 35 After the Strategy instruction

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | never | 1 | ,5 | ,5 | ,5 |
| | rarely | 21 | 11,4 | 11,4 | 12,0 |
| | sometimes | 100 | 54,3 | 54,3 | 66,3 |
| | usually | 58 | 31,5 | 31,5 | 97,8 |
| | always | 4 | 2,2 | 2,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 184 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Unlike reading strategies questionnaire, which was divided into groups considering each strategy included in the study, autonomy questionnaire was handled as a whole. Below, the mean scores of the answers given for autonomy questionnaire before and after the strategy instruction can be seen in the table. The mean score, which was 2.48 before the instruction, became 3.14, which can be interpreted as the possible positive effect of the 13-week reading strategy instruction.

Table 145

The Mean Values of the Participants' Responses to Items in the Autonomy in EFL Reading Questionnaire Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic |
| pre_autonomy | 184 | 1,97 | 1,60 | 3,57 | 2,4856 | ,02326 | ,31552 | ,100 |
| post_autonomy | 184 | 1,77 | 2,17 | 3,94 | 3,1498 | ,02917 | ,39573 | ,157 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | | | | |

Discussions of Findings

This part discusses the strategies mainly employed by the participants before and after the strategy instruction, the relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading, the differences in employing reading strategies before and after the strategy instruction, the differences in participants' being autonomous in EFL reading before and after the strategy instruction, and the differences between male and female participants in using reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading with respect to the research questions.

Research question 1: Which reading strategies are mainly employed by the participants before and after the strategy instruction?

To find out the strategies mainly employed by the participants before and after the strategy instruction, descriptive statistics were employed. The mean scores for each strategy at both pre and post levels were calculated. Although some of the mean values for strategies in the pre- test results were below the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale, which was 2.5, in the post test results, as shown in Table 146 below, they all appeared to be above it except for summarizing, which still showed an increase from % 1.4 to % 2.4.

Table 146

Strategies Mainly Employed by the Participants Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-----------------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| pre_setting_purpose | 184 | 1,00 | 4,00 | 2,5217 | ,56979 |
| pre_previous_knowledge | 184 | 1,33 | 3,67 | 2,5652 | ,45097 |
| pre_previewing_skim_scan | 184 | 1,50 | 4,00 | 2,8315 | ,58336 |
| pre_predicting | 184 | 1,33 | 3,67 | 2,4547 | ,48072 |
| pre_monitoring_repairing | 184 | 1,50 | 4,50 | 2,6739 | ,48998 |
| pre_making_connection | 184 | 1,00 | 3,50 | 2,4918 | ,50806 |
| pre_attending_textstructure | 184 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 2,9701 | ,54364 |
| pre_visualizing | 184 | 2,00 | 4,00 | 2,9891 | ,60948 |
| pre_using_graphicorganizers | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5217 | ,78201 |
| pre_annotating_notetaking | 184 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 2,5679 | ,59092 |
| pre_summarizing | 184 | 1,00 | 3,00 | 1,4076 | ,61150 |
| pre_questioning | 184 | 1,00 | 3,50 | 2,2337 | ,52245 |
| pre_self_evaluation | 184 | 1,00 | 4,00 | 2,5082 | ,53683 |
| post_setting_purpose | 184 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 3,0245 | ,54892 |
| post_previous_knowledge | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,4928 | ,56185 |
| post_previewing_skim_scan | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5027 | ,56175 |
| post_predicting | 184 | 1,67 | 4,33 | 2,8895 | ,56769 |

| | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-----|------|------|--------|--------|
| post_monitoring_repairing | 184 | 2,50 | 4,50 | 3,2255 | ,57683 |
| post_making_connection | 184 | 1,50 | 4,00 | 2,7255 | ,61355 |
| post_attending_textstructure | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6712 | ,61785 |
| post_visualizing | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5054 | ,60955 |
| post_using_graphicorganizers | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,8370 | ,75787 |
| post_annotating_notetaking | 184 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5625 | ,52548 |
| post_summarizing | 184 | 1,00 | 3,50 | 2,4647 | ,55081 |
| post_questioning | 184 | 1,00 | 4,00 | 2,8043 | ,55789 |
| post_self_evaluation | 184 | 2,00 | 4,50 | 3,3207 | ,54613 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 184 | | | | |

Descriptive statistics showed that in the pre-test level, the participants appeared to have the highest mean value in using graphic organizers (Mean = 3.52, SD = .78), indicating that using graphic organizers was the strategy which was mainly employed by the readers before the strategy instruction. It was followed by visualizing (Mean = 2.98, SD = .60) with a quite lower mean value. The strategy of attending to text structure also had a high mean (Mean = 2.97, SD = .54), which can be regarded as another important strategy that was employed frequently by the participants. The strategy with the lowest mean result appeared to be summarizing (Mean = 1.40, SD = .61) which makes it the least employed strategy by the participants before the strategy instruction.

The post-test results also showed similarities with the pre-test results. The strategy with the highest mean value was again found as using graphic organizers with a higher mean value (Mean = 3.83, SD = .75). It was followed by attending to text structure (Mean = 3.67, SD = .61). Visualizing (Mean = 3.50, SD = .60) shared the third rank with skimming, scanning and previewing (Mean = 3.50, SD = .56). Although the same strategies seemed to be employed by the participants both before and after the study, the increase in the mean results shows that after the strategy instruction, the mentioned strategies were employed in

a higher level while the participants were doing L2 reading. The increase can be seen in Table 146 above.

Research question 2: Is there any significant difference in the participants' employing reading strategies before and after the strategy instruction?

Table 147

Difference in Employing Reading Strategies Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|--------|-----------------|--------|-----|----------------|-----------------|
| Pair 1 | pre_strategies | 2,5952 | 184 | ,34639 | ,02554 |
| | post_strategies | 3,2328 | 184 | ,45874 | ,03382 |

Paired Samples Correlations

| | N | Correlation | Sig. |
|---|-----|-------------|------|
| Pair 1 pre_strategies & post_strategies | 184 | ,072 | ,331 |

Paired Samples Test

| | | Paired Differences | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|--------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|--|----------|----------|--------------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | |
| Pair 1 | pre_strategies post_strategies | - ,63761 | ,55455 | ,04088 | - ,71827 | - ,55695 | - 15,597 | 183 ,000 |

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the reading strategy instruction on participants' employing strategies. There was a statistically significant increase in employing strategies from pre-test results ($M = 2.59$, $SD = .34$) to post test results ($M = 3.23$, $SD = .45$), $t(183) = 15.59$, $p < .0000$ (two-tailed) with a mean difference of 11.97.

The Cohen's d statistic indicated a large effect size of $r = 0.625$ (Cohen, 1988) reflecting that the participants employed strategies in a higher level after the strategy instruction.

Research question 3: Is there any relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading?

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between employing reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading. Preliminary analyses were conducted to assure that there were no violations of the assumptions of normality. These can be viewed in the rationale for the use of parametric tests section.

Having explored the correlations between employing reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading, according to the pre test results, there appeared to be a small, positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .27$, $n = 184$, $p < .000$. As for the post test results, there became a large, positive correlation between strategy use and being autonomous in EFL reading, $r = .81$, $n = 184$, $p < .000$. The results show that there is a positive correlation between employing reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading. The increase in the post test results can be interpreted as the more the participants employ reading strategies, the more autonomous they become in EFL reading.

Table 148

Relationship between Reading Strategies and Autonomy in EFL Reading in Pre- test

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|----------------|--------|----------------|-----|
| pre_autonomy | 2,4856 | ,31552 | 184 |
| pre_strategies | 2,5952 | ,34639 | 184 |

| Correlations | | | |
|----------------|---------------------|--------------|----------------|
| | | pre_autonomy | pre_strategies |
| pre_autonomy | Pearson Correlation | 1 | ,278** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | ,000 |
| | N | 184 | 184 |
| pre_strategies | Pearson Correlation | ,278** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | |
| | N | 184 | 184 |

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 149

Relationship between Reading Strategies and Autonomy in EFL Reading in Post- test

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|-----------------|--------|----------------|-----|
| post_autonomy | 3,1498 | ,39573 | 184 |
| post_strategies | 3,2328 | ,45874 | 184 |

| Correlations | | | |
|-----------------|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | | post_autonomy | post_strategies |
| post_autonomy | Pearson Correlation | 1 | ,819** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | ,000 |
| | N | 184 | 184 |
| post_strategies | Pearson Correlation | ,819** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | |
| | N | 184 | 184 |

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Research question 4: Is there any significant difference in participants' being autonomous in EFL reading before and after the strategy instruction?

Table 150

Difference in Participants Being Autonomous in EFL Reading Before and After the Strategy instruction

| | | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|--------|---------------|--------|-----|----------------|-----------------|
| Pair 1 | pre_autonomy | 2,4856 | 184 | ,31552 | ,02326 |
| | post_autonomy | 3,1498 | 184 | ,39573 | ,02917 |

| Paired Samples Correlations | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--|-----|-------------|------|
| | | | N | Correlation | Sig. |
| Pair 1 | pre_autonomy & post_autonomy | | 184 | ,013 | ,861 |

| Paired Samples Test | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|---------|-----------------|
| | | Paired Differences | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | |
| Pair 1 | pre_autonomy - post_autonomy | -,66429 | ,50289 | ,03707 | -,73743 | -,59114 | ,000 |
| | | | | | 17,918 | | |

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the reading strategy instruction on participants' autonomy in EFL reading. There was a statistically significant increase in participants' autonomy in EFL reading from pre test results ($M = 2.48$, $SD = .31$) to post test results ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .39$), $t(183) = 17.91$, $p < .0000$ (two-tailed) with a mean difference of 11.97.

The Cohen's d statistic indicated a large effect size of $r = 0.683$ (Cohen, 1988) reflecting that the participants had a higher level of autonomy in EFL reading after the strategy instruction.

Research question 5: Is there any significant difference between male and female participants in using reading strategies?

Table 151

Difference between Male and Female Participants in Using Reading Strategies

| | gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|-----------------|--------|-----|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| pre_strategies | F | 140 | 2,5901 | ,36592 | ,03093 |
| | M | 44 | 2,6113 | ,27828 | ,04195 |
| post_strategies | F | 140 | 3,2435 | ,44643 | ,03773 |
| | M | 44 | 3,1987 | ,49977 | ,07534 |

| | | Independent Samples Test | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|--|
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper |
| pre_strategies | Equal variances assumed | 6,446 | ,012 | -,353 | 182 | ,724 | -,02120 | ,06001 | -,13960 ,09721 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -,407 | 93,858 | ,685 | -,02120 | ,05212 | -,12468 ,08229 |
| post_strategies | Equal variances assumed | 1,877 | ,172 | ,564 | 182 | ,574 | ,04478 | ,07943 | -,11194 ,20151 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,531 | 65,988 | ,597 | ,04478 | ,08426 | -,12346 ,21302 |

In terms of employing reading strategies, results of the pre test indicated that female participants scored slightly lower (Mean = 2.59, SD = .36) than male participants (Mean = 2.61, SD = .27) at a statistically not significant level with a mean difference of 0.02, $t(182) = .353$, $p = .72$. The Cohen's d analysis revealed a small effect size, $r = 0.03$.

Although the post test results revealed that female participants scored higher (Mean = 3.24, SD = .44) than male participants (Mean = 3.19, SD = .49), still there was no statistically

significance with a mean difference of 0.04, $t(182) = .531$, $p = .59$. The Cohen's d analysis again indicated a small effect size, $r = 0.05$.

Research question 6: Do male and female participants display any significant difference in relation to reading autonomy in foreign language learning?

Table 152

Difference between Male and Female Participants in Being Autonomous in EFL Reading

| | cinsiyet | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------|----------|-----|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| pre_autonomy | 1,00 | 140 | 2,4931 | ,32633 | ,02758 |
| | 2,00 | 44 | 2,4617 | ,28048 | ,04228 |
| post_autonomy | 1,00 | 140 | 3,1478 | ,40028 | ,03383 |
| | 2,00 | 44 | 3,1565 | ,38533 | ,05809 |

| | | Independent Samples Test | | | | | | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | |
| | | F | Sig. | T | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower Upper |
| pre_autonomy | Equal variances assumed | 2,779 | ,097 | ,574 | 182 | ,566 | ,03137 | ,05463 | -,07642 ,13916 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,621 | 82,738 | ,536 | ,03137 | ,05048 | -,06904 ,13179 |
| post_autonomy | Equal variances assumed | ,272 | ,603 | -,127 | 182 | ,899 | -,00874 | ,06858 | -,14405 ,12657 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -,130 | 74,463 | ,897 | -,00874 | ,06722 | -,14267 ,12519 |

In terms of being autonomous in EFL reading, results of the pre test indicated that female (Mean = 2.49, SD = .32) and male participants (Mean = 2.46, SD = .28) scored similar to

each other at a statistically not significant level with a mean difference of 0.03, $t(182) = .574$, $p = .56$. The Cohen's d analysis revealed a small effect size, $r = 0.04$.

Likewise, the post test results revealed that the scores of the female (Mean = 3.14, SD = .40) and male participants (Mean = 3.15, SD = .38) are close to each other, which shows no statistically significance with a mean difference of 0.00, $t(182) = .127$, $p = .89$. The Cohen's d analysis again indicated a small effect size, $r = 0.01$.

Some Further Remarks on the Findings

Regarding all the information presented thus far, it can be stated that using graphic organizers was declared to be the most employed strategy by the participants before and after the strategy instruction. This can be interpreted as a need for a basic strategy, necessitating rather limited use of foreign language, which, hence, can be a facilitator for the participants who find it hard to survive in reading a text in a foreign language. Using graphic organizers is claimed to improve reading comprehension as it helps participants notice how the ideas are organized within the text, realize the priority of the ideas provided and locate the specific information quickly (Chmielewski & Dansereau, 1998; Robinson et al., 2006; Robinson & Skinner, 1996), which is considerably significant for relatively poor participants (Balajthy & Weisberg, 1990; O'Donnell et al., 2002). Employing graphic organizers is also claimed to foster visualizing both the main points of a text and the relationship among the ideas in it (Simmons et al., 1988).

As an attribution to the claim above, participants in the study placed visualizing after graphic organizers before the strategy instruction, and it was followed by attending text-structure.

Being on the second rank in the pre stage, visualizing may also be chosen as an answer to a need for a support, while reading in English, since it is effective in more complex structures (Ware, 2004), both with concrete things and abstract relationships (Scaife &

Rogers, 1996). Although visualizing was placed in the third rank after the strategy instruction, it still had an important place with a high level of preference.

Preferring using graphic organizers and visualizing, both of which have visual references inside, can be related to the learner style profiles of the participants. According to Dybvig and Church (2014), visual learning styles get stronger with age, and the participant profile of this study was formed by young adults, who may have been visual learners preferring to utilize the visual elements of a text or to create mental images while reading.

The mostly utilized strategies of the participants, which have visual references inside, may also be resulting from the instruction methods of the schools that the participants graduated from, which can be the topic of another study.

The reason why these two mentioned strategies, which are on the top ranks of the list both before and after the strategy instruction, are preferred by the participants can be because they mostly do not necessitate higher levels of language. They give some easy clues to the participants, helping them get the gist of the text even when they have limited knowledge of language. The participants of this study, who are A2 level participants, getting intensive English class education, may, therefore, opt for these two strategies, as they may be in the need of some clues and tips while reading in English as their knowledge of English may not be sufficient.

Following the strategy instruction, although there is not a changeover in the rank of the strategies at the top of the list and using graphic organizers kept its first rank, visualizing left its place to attending to text structure, which was on the third rank before the strategy instruction. The reason why attending to text structure, which is claimed to be facilitating comprehension (Berkowitz, 1986; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Meyer, 1975; Meyer & Freedle, 1984), had a higher level of preference after the strategy instruction, could be because during the strategy instruction it was highlighted that there were some basic words and clues to help a reader understand the type of text easily. Participants' preferring text

structure more can be due to noticing how those basic keywords can facilitate guessing or understanding the text. This can again be interpreted as the participants' trial to find easy ways to understand the gist of the text without being obliged to dominate the foreign language well.

As for the least employed strategy, summarizing was chosen repeatedly, both before and after the strategy instruction. As an attribution to the reasons of the participants' preference in the top ranks of the list, the reason they opted for summarizing as the least employed strategy in pre and post stages may also be because of domination level of language. Summarizing is accepted as a strategy which necessitates some higher-order problem-solving strategies (Cumming, Rebuffot & Ledwell, 1989) and higher domination of language to deal with several practices such as taking notes, analysing the text and eliminating unnecessary details (Belet, 2005; Garner, 1987; King, 1992).

All in all, even though the most and least utilized strategies used by the participants were same on a large scale, both before and after the study, the findings ascertained that the levels they utilized those strategies increased after the strategy instruction. Considering that the participants of this particular study attended to a 13- week strategy instruction, it is quite reasonable that they displayed more utilization of the strategies included in the instruction, which, in this regard, makes the findings consistent with the previous researches (McNamara et al., 2006; Nambiar, 2009; Salataci & Akyel, 2002; Zhang, 2008; Zhao, 2009).

Gender was also taken into consideration as a variable when the data about reading strategy use was analysed. According to the findings, pre and post-test results have a slight discrepancy in terms of strategy use of male and female participants. In the pre-test results, female participants scored slightly lower than male participants. On the other hand, the post-test results revealed the opposite, showing a slightly higher score for female participants than the males. However the difference between the male and female participants was not significant. The slight difference may result from their interests or

tendency to implement the newly learned information, which can be handled in another study.

When the relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading was taken into consideration, a positive correlation between employing reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading was observed, which is parallel to the literature on the topic. Various scholars have asserted the positive relationship between learning strategies and learning autonomy (Cotterall, 1995; Little, 2000; Littlewood, 1996; Wenden, 1991). Similarly, despite being limited, the studies on the relationship between reading strategies and reading autonomy also upheld the same point of view (Castillo&Bonilla, 2014; Lake&Holster, 2014; Matsubara&Lehtinen, 2007; Mason, 2006). The aim of the present study was to contribute to this literature, and the findings of the study supported the previous studies conducted on this topic. The results obtained during the data analysis process revealed that there is a positive correlation between employing reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading. The participants who took part in the strategy instruction declared to be more aware of their strengths and weaknesses in reading in English, be more willing to take part in the decision making processes, to set goals for themselves and to plan their learning processes, which are among the features of autonomous readers (Matsubara & Lehtinen, 2007). The post-test results revealed that the more the participants utilized the reading strategies, the more autonomous features they displayed, which is in line with the previous researches in the literature.

While the increase in the autonomy level of the participants was quite clear when the post-test results were checked, the pre-test results also supported the same idea. Before the strategy instruction, the participants who preferred to use reading strategies, more or less, were confirmed to show more autonomous features. This situation was reinforced with the strategy instruction process and their level of autonomy increased at a significant level.

When gender was handled as a variable, similar to the results of the strategy use during reading in English, in terms of showing autonomous features, gender again did not take

part as a dioristic variable. Both in the pre and the post-test results, the scores of male and female participants showed similarity. Despite not in a significant level, there was a slight difference between the female and male participants in terms of employing strategies after the strategy instruction; however, the scores in autonomy were found out to be quite close to each other. This minor difference may be related to higher self-confidence level of the male participants or their level of self- dependency which may have various reasons behind including cultural backgrounds. It may be another topic to be studied on.

In brief, the results obtained in this study supported the previous studies observed in the literature (Castillo & Bonilla, 2014; Lake & Holster, 2014; Louis, 2006; Mason, 2006; Matsubara & Lehtinen, 2007). The reading strategy instruction affected the participants' autonomy level in a positive way as well as increasing their use of reading strategies, which facilitates the reading comprehension. The results also revealed that using graphic organizers was the most employed reading strategy, whereas summarizing was preferred the least.

All in all, it may be suggested as a conclusion that in reading classes, having autonomous participants, which is defined as a desirable goal in language learning and teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) can be actualized and fostered with strategy instruction; thus, it will be logical and beneficial to include strategy instruction in reading classes.

In the section presented above, the main findings of this present study were discussed thoroughly with regard to the related literature.

Conclusion

In this section, the research questions and the statistical analysis of their answers were presented and discussed. With the first research question, the strategies which were mainly employed by the participants before and after the strategy instruction were tried to be found out. The second research question aimed to show a way to determine if there was

any relationship between reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. With the third research question, the researcher tried to check any significant difference in utilizing reading strategies before and after the strategy instruction. Similarly, any significant difference in participants being autonomous in EFL reading before and after the strategy instruction was handled in the fourth research question. The next research question was a trial to determine if there was any significant difference between male and female participants in using reading strategies. Finally, the last research question was a focus on gender, trying to check if they display any significant difference in relation to reading autonomy in foreign language learning. To this end, the possible reasons of the findings were discussed thoroughly.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter starts with the summary of the study. It has argued for the pedagogical and methodological implications, and it concludes with some recommendations for further research.

Summary of the study

The present study was conducted to examine the relationship between the participants' utilizing reading strategies and their being autonomous in EFL reading. In addition, it also aimed to measure the reading strategies preferred by the sample group before and after a 13-week strategy instruction. While studying the relationship of strategy use and autonomy in L2 reading in general, in specific it focused on finding out the reading strategies mainly utilized by the participants, any difference in the strategy use or autonomy of the participants before and after the strategy instruction and lastly, any gender difference in strategy use and being autonomous.

The study attempted to shed light on the importance of utilizing reading strategies in terms of being a more autonomous reader in English as a foreign language. The results of the study are believed to be useful in helping the language teachers support their participants to show more autonomous features in reading classes, such as setting goals for themselves,

planning their own reading process, utilizing the reading strategies or altering them when necessary, taking part in decision making process, etc.

A pre-experimental design was preferred in the study and scales were employed for data collection process. 184 participants who were attending classes in the Applied English and Translation /Interpretation departments of Giresun and Karabük Universities were included in the study. To gather data on the use of reading strategies the survey of Sheorey and Mokhtari (SORS) (2001), by adding some items from the survey of Dreyer and Nel (2003), was taken as the basis. To measure autonomy in EFL reading, a scale by Alyas (2011) was applied. For both instruments, 5 point Likert scale was used and the data was analysed using SPSS Statistics 20.0.

The findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

- 1- The strategy mostly employed by the participants was found out to be using graphic organizers both before and after the strategy instruction. Visualizing took the second rank after graphic organizers before the strategy instruction, and it was followed by attending text-structure. Following the strategy instruction, there was not a change in the first rank; however, attending to text structure took the second place and visualizing became the third most employed strategy. The least preferred strategy became summarizing both before and after the strategy instruction.
- 2- Although the most and least used strategies determined by the participants were the same both before and after the study, the rate participants utilized those reading strategies increased at a significant level after the strategy instruction.
- 3- The analysis of the data displayed that there is a positive correlation between employing reading strategies and being autonomous in EFL reading. The participants getting strategy instruction both increased the level of their strategy use and they declared to show more autonomous behaviours in EFL reading.

- 4- In terms of showing autonomous features, gender did not take part as a dioristic variable. Both in the pre and the post-test results, the scores of male and female participants showed similarity. As for the strategy use, before the strategy instruction, female participants scored slightly lower than male participants, while they showed a higher score according to the post test results.

The results of the study revealed that there is a significant relationship between the use of reading strategies and autonomy in EFL reading. The participants preferred using the same strategies after the strategy instruction; however, the level they employed those strategies changed in an upward direction which can be referred to the efficacy of strategy instruction. Likewise, the autonomy of the participants shown in EFL reading scaled up and this can be interpreted as the direct effect of the increase in strategy use.

Pedagogical and methodological implications

The findings obtained in this current study displayed some pedagogical and methodological implications which may be beneficial for future studies.

When Holec (1979) published his report of autonomy and foreign language learning, he paved the way for a new understanding in language classes, which has changed the attitude of ‘teachers teach and learners learn’ (Balçıkanlı, 2006). In learning and teaching a language, learner autonomy has become a desirable goal (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). As for the reading classes, autonomy helps participants be less dependent in some points such as “setting their own reading pace or deciding what comprehension tasks to complete” (Benson, 2001, p. 50; cited in Matsubara& Lehtinen, 2007). In this respect, this study aimed to provide an alternative way to actualize autonomy in EFL reading classes by presenting a reading strategy instruction programme. To have an idea on the content of this instruction, the schedule on Table 8 and the activities in Appendix 5 can be examined.

The findings also gave some clues about participants' tendencies in utilizing reading strategies. Although the participants of the study do not represent all Turkish participants learning English as a foreign language, at least, the findings can be said to reflect the tendencies of the participants in Applied English and Translation department, as their number refers to nearly 20 % of the total student number in the mentioned department in state universities.

Findings about the gender, which showed that there was no difference between the genders' use of reading strategies and being autonomous, can be a mainstay to show that the education programs on strategy use or autonomy developed for sexually homogenous groups can also be used for single-sex classes or schools.

From another perspective, considering its findings, this study can also create motivation to do further research for autonomy in other skills of foreign language learning, particularly in productive skills: speaking and writing. Although the study focused specifically on reading in EFL, the findings may also be interpreted to other skills or to foreign language learning as a whole. To support their participants' efforts to be autonomous, teachers could lead their participants to learn more strategies in both specific skills of language or learning strategies in general.

Besides autonomy, although it was not the topic of the current study, providing participants with more alternatives of strategies in any skill of language learning and guiding them how to employ those strategies in language classes can also be beneficial in terms of student achievement. As Grenfell and Harris (1999) suggest, less successful language learners can be supported to become better language learners by teaching them new strategies.

In terms of the study's research design, data were collected through surveys and analyzed quantitatively. However, in the language learning process, personal differences have a significant effect; numbers alone may not be enough to reveal the participants' preferences and tendencies. Therefore, including qualitative data in a study would make it stronger.

Recommendations

Considering the limitations of this study, some suggestions that may be helpful for further research in the field could be made:

- This study included only the participants of Applied English and Translations/ Interpretation department. Neither private university participants nor participants from other departments were represented in the study. Likewise, the participants were university participants within a limited age group. Younger or older participants would have changed the results. Therefore, broadening the participant group may give clearer ideas about both the tendencies of language learners in Turkey in strategy use and their autonomy.
- The data in the study was collected quantitatively and scales were used to find out participants' perspectives. Using qualitative data together with quantitative would be helpful to create a much stronger study.
- The effect of strategy use or autonomy on the participants' achievement is not handled in this study, and it would be a good contribution to the field if it is investigated in further research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Reading Strategies Questionnaire

Reading strategies questionnaire includes 26 statements. For each strategy statement, choose the statement that best indicates how much you use that strategy. Feel free to give your real opinions on the matter. Please, read each statement carefully.

The scale below indicates how much you use reading strategies while reading in English. Please put a cross(x) in the space provided corresponding to your answer.

(1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always)

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I have a purpose in mind when I read. | | | | | |
| 2. I set goals for reading (e.g. studying for a multiple-choice test, reading for a research paper). | | | | | |
| 3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | | | | | |
| 4. While reading, I distinguish between information I already know and new information. | | | | | |
| 5. While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the subject based on the text's content. | | | | | |
| 6. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. | | | | | |
| 7. I skim/scan to get the main idea. | | | | | |
| 8. I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read. | | | | | |
| 9. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | | | | | |
| 10. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong. | | | | | |
| 11. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading. | | | | | |
| 12. As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/understanding of the subject. | | | | | |
| 13. I try to relate the important points in the text to one another in an attempt to understand the entire text. | | | | | |
| 14. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | | | | | |
| 15. I often look for how the text is organised and pay attention to | | | | | |

headings and sub-headings.

16. I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.
 17. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.
 18. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.
 19. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.
 20. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.
 21. After I have read a text, I summarise it.
 22. I summarize/paraphrase the material that I am reading in order to remember the text.
 23. I generate questions about the text.
 24. When reading, I ask myself questions about the text content to better remember the text.
 25. I check my understanding when I come across new information.
 26. I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goals.
-

APPENDIX 2. Autonomy in EFL Reading Questionnaire

Reading strategies questionnaire includes 35 statements. For each strategy statement, choose the statement that best indicates how much you use that strategy. Feel free to give your real opinions on the matter. Please, read each statement carefully.

The scale below indicates how much you use reading strategies while reading in English. Please put a cross(x) in the space provided corresponding to your answer.

(1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always)

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I have a clear idea of the purpose of class reading activities set by the teachers in class. | | | | | |
| 2. I am able to have clear schedule of English autonomous reading after class. | | | | | |
| 3. I am able to plan the study time well for reading in English. | | | | | |
| 4. I can implement appropriate reading strategies consciously in reading. | | | | | |
| 5. I can monitor the use of reading strategies consciously and critically in reading exercise. | | | | | |
| 6. I am able to use other more reading appropriate strategies after I had identified the reading strategies that were not appropriate. | | | | | |
| 7. I actively look for opportunities to participate in a variety of English reading activities after class. | | | | | |
| 8. I am able to find out the reasons for my reading errors and take measures to correct them. | | | | | |
| 9. I think I have the ability to read in English well. | | | | | |
| 10. I make good use of my free time in reading English materials. | | | | | |
| 11. I preview what I will read before the class. | | | | | |
| 12. I find I can finish my reading task in time. | | | | | |
| 13. I make self-exam of what I have read by myself. | | | | | |
| 14. I reward myself such as going shopping, playing etc. when I make progress in my reading. | | | | | |
| 15. During the class, I try to catch chances to take part in reading | | | | | |

activities.

16. I can read without teacher's supervision.
 17. If I didn't have to read in English I wouldn't.
 18. When I have a problem in my reading, I turn to teachers or classmates for help.
 19. I think English class should be teacher centered and participants' autonomous reading should be auxiliary.
 20. If I had the right materials I'd prefer to spend some time reading alone.
 21. In reading a language, I enjoy tasks where I can read what I am interested in.
 22. I prefer to read books, magazines and newspapers, all by myself without the teacher telling me what to read.
 23. I prefer to choose my own reading materials e.g. course books, magazines and to decide about the amount of material to be covered.
 24. I like to read autonomously because it can give me the freedom to read what I want to do.
 25. I like reading in a language on my own because I know best how to read.
 26. I enjoy reading in a group with other participants.
 27. I try to enlarge my reading strategies by remembering a few strategies every day.
 28. I keep up reading something every day such as English emails and diaries.
 29. I review regularly in reading English materials and check what I have read.
 30. I often discuss reading problems with classmates both inside and outside class.
 31. I sometimes do assignments which are not compulsory for example reading compositions, doing test paper questions.
 32. When I have a problem in reading a text I first try to solve it myself and only if I don't manage to do it, I turn to teachers or classmates for
-

help.

33. I make a plan for reading and stick to it in order to achieve my aim.

34. I reasonably organize my spare time and spend at least two hours
reading English every day.

35. I take opportunities to read in English inside and outside class.

APPENDIX 3. Ethic Commission Approval

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 19/04/2017-E.58104



T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Etik Komisyonu



Sayı : 77082166-302.08.01-
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 24/02/2017 tarihli ve 80287700-302.08.01- 29400 sayılı yazı.

İlgi yazınız ile göndermiş olduğunuz, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi Zeynep YILDIZ ÇELEBİ'nin, Yrd.Doç.Dr. Sevinç ERGENEKON EMİR'in danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "*Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizcenin Öğreniminde Okuma Stratejileri Eğitiminin Okuma Özerkliğine Etkisi*" adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun 11.04.2017 tarih ve 04 sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

İlgilinin çalışmasının, yapılması planlanan Giresun Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu ve Karabük Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'ndan izin alınması koşuluyla yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oy birliği ile karar verilmiş ve karara ilişkin imza listesi ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Alper CEYLAN
Komisyon Başkanı

Araştırma Kod No : 2017-159

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APPENDIX 4. Consent Form

KATILIMCILAR İÇİN BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ OLUR FORMU

Sizi Zeynep YILDIZ ÇELEBİ tarafından yürütülen “Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce’nin öğreniminde okuma stratejileri eğitiminin okuma özerkliğine etkisi” başlıklı araştırmaya davet ediyoruz. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmadan çıkma hakkına sahipsiniz. Bu çalışmaya katılmanız için sizden herhangi bir ücret istenmeyecektir. Çalışmaya katıldığınız için size ek bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır. Çalışmadan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak olup, kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır.

- **Araştırmanın Amacı**

Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğrencilerin yabancı dilde okuma özerkliği kazanabilmeleri için verilecek okuma stratejileri eğitiminin etkili olup olamayacağını tespit edebilmektir. Hem okuma özerkliği ve strateji kullanımının ilişkisine bakılması planlanmakta hem de öğrencilerin okuma stratejilerini edinmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

- **Araştırmanın İçeriği**

Öğrencilerin İngilizce okuma konusundaki özerkliklerini ve okuma stratejilerini kullanımlarını tespit edebilmek amacıyla bir okuma özerkliği ve okuma stratejileri anketi uygulanacaktır. Anket uygulamasının ardından, strateji anketinin verilerine göre, öğrencilerin halihazırda almakta oldukları İngilizce okuma derslerine dahil edilecek bir okuma stratejileri eğitimi verilecektir. Verilen bu strateji eğitiminin ardından, eğitim öncesinde uygulanan okuma özerkliği ve okuma stratejileri anketleri tekrar uygulanacaktır. Yapılan çalışmayla hem okuma stratejileri eğitiminin öğrencilerin stratejileri tanıma ve kullanmalarında etkili olup olmadığı ölçülecek hem de İngilizce okuma yaparken strateji

kullanmanın öğrencilerin okuma konusundaki özerkliklerine herhangi bir etkide bulunup bulunmadığı ele alınacaktır.

- **Araştırmanın Nedeni** ☐ Bilimsel Araştırma ☐ Tez Çalışması

- **Araştırmanın Öngörülen Süresi**

3 ay

- **Araştırmaya Katılması Beklenen Katılımcı/Gönüllü Sayısı:**

210

- **Araştırmanın Yapılacağı Yerler**

Giresun Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu

Karabük Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu

KATILIMCI BEYANI

“Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce’nin öğreniminde okuma stratejileri eğitiminin okuma özerkliğine etkisi” başlıklı araştırmanın yapılacağı belirtilerek bu araştırma ile ilgili yukarıdaki bilgiler aktarıldı. Bu bilgilerden sonra böyle bir araştırmaya katılımcı olarak davet edildim. Bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğim takdirde gerek araştırma yürütülürken gerekse yayımlandığında kimliğimin gizli tutulacağı konusunda güvence aldım. Bana ait verilerin kullanımına izin veriyorum. Araştırma sonuçlarının eğitim ve bilimsel amaçlarla kullanımı sırasında kişisel bilgilerimin dikkatle korunacağı konusunda bana yeterli güven verildi. Araştırmanın yürütülmesi sırasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden çekilebilirim. Araştırma için yapılacak harcamalarla ilgili herhangi bir parasal sorumluluk altına girmiyorum. Bana herhangi bir ödeme yapılamayacaktır. Araştırma ile ilgili bana yapılan tüm açıklamaları ayrıntılarıyla anlamış bulunmaktayım. Bu çalışmaya hiçbir baskı altında kalmadan kendi bireysel onayım ile katılıyorum. İmzalı bu form kağıdının bir kopyası bana verilecektir.

| | |
|--|---------------|
| Arařtırma Yürütücüsünün Adı ve Soyadı Zeynep YILDIZ ÇELEBİ | Tarih ve İmza |
| Adres ve Telefon Giresun Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu | |

| | |
|-------------------------|---------------|
| Katılımcı Adı ve Soyadı | Tarih ve İmza |
| Adres ve Telefon | |

Velayet veya Vesayet Altında Bulunanlar İçin :

| | |
|----------------------------|---------------|
| Veli/Vasinin Adı ve Soyadı | Tarih ve İmza |
| Adres ve Telefon | |

APPENDIX 5. Sample Activities

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>SCHOOL SEARCHER</p> <p>My goal: 1</p> <p>I will <u>find a university</u></p> <p>What I did:</p> <p><u>carefully, slowly</u></p> <p><u>I searched the universities</u></p> <p>What I found:</p> <p><u>Australia is the best.</u></p> | <p>My goal: 2</p> <p>I will <u>find mistakes</u></p> <p>What I did:</p> <p><u>I read the text carefully</u></p> <p>What I found:</p> <p><u>The system in Austria is</u> <u>is so stupid. I didn't</u> <u>believe it.</u></p> |
| <p>Language learner</p> <p>My goal: 3</p> <p>I will <u>learn new things</u> <u>in English.</u></p> <p>What I did:</p> <p><u>I read the text carefully</u> <u>and slowly. I scanned the text.</u></p> <p>What I found:</p> <p><u>like - unlike - job - extra</u> <u>extracurricular - ders program - dsr</u></p> | <p>Nerd → make friend</p> <p>My goal: 4</p> <p>I will <u>make the teacher</u> <u>like me!</u></p> <p>What I did:</p> <p><u>I skimmed the text</u></p> <p>What I found:</p> <p><u>I should join the clubs.</u> <u>I must answer the questions</u></p> |

Election

School searcher

My goal: 1

I will find a university

What I did:

skimming

What I found:

Austria is cheaper than
other countries

Criticiser

My goal: 2

I will find his mistakes

What I did:

I read his all texts

What I found:

The writer said: if the students
don't pass the exam, they
can't go to university
it isn't true

Language learner

My goal: 3

I will learn new things in English

What I did:

I scanned the text

What I found:

there are so many unknown
words = provide, extracurricular, research
achievement, depend on

Nerd

My goal: 4

I will make the teacher like
me

What I did:

skimmed the text

What I found:

I can't pass the exam
" " answer the questions
I can buy a calculator

Name

Tegan

Making Predictions

Use story clues to make predictions.

Read each passage carefully. Answer the questions.

- Jenny and Rachel were excited about going to the beach. They set up their chairs and towels. Then a wind picked up. Rachel looked up and saw big, gray clouds.

What will happen next?

It will rain.

- Mr. Howell was driving to work. As he backed out the driveway, a nail went into one of his tires. Air slowly began to leak out.

What will happen next?

his car will stop.

THE CHARM

Write your predictions about the story the charm. After reading the story check if they are true(T) or false(F).

TRUE FALSE

I think,

- The older man will say to soldiers; this charm _____
- protects you from all of type evils, _____
- So keep it at your neck when you are _____
- at war _____
- _____
- I think the soldiers will go to into war _____
- for their freedom. _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Name _____

Making Predictions

Use story clues to make predictions.

Read each passage carefully. Answer the questions.

1. Jenny and Rachel were excited about going to the beach. They set up their chairs and towels. Then a wind picked up. Rachel looked up and saw big, gray clouds.
What will happen next?

It will probably rain.

2. Mr. Howell was driving to work. As he backed out the driveway, a nail went into one of his tires. Air slowly began to leak out.
What will happen next?

His car will stop.

THE CHARM

Write your predictions about the story the charm. After reading the story check if they are true(T) or false(F).

| | TRUE | FALSE |
|---|-------|-------|
| 1. I think he is won't die. | ✓ | _____ |
| 2. I guess God will save the man. | _____ | ✓ |
| 3. I think this is a warm | ✓ | _____ |
| 4. I think he will try ask for help | ✓ | _____ |
| 5. Someone help | _____ | _____ |
| 6. I guess soldier will use charm. | ✓ | _____ |
| 7. I think they will fight. | ✓ | _____ |
| 8. I guess the who uses ^{the} charm | ✓ | _____ |
| 9. he is stronger. | _____ | _____ |
| 10. _____ | _____ | _____ |

Thin Questions

- Where do you live?
- When was she born?
- When did she started TV show?
- When did she write ^{her} cookbook?
- Where did the food come from?
- Did she start her first TV cooking program?

Thick Questions



- Why does she love Chinese foods?
- Why is it difficult to cook meals?
- What difficulties ^{did she have} when cooking?
- ~~What difficulties did she have when cooking?~~
- What does she do in her free time?



THIN question



- When was Atatürk born?
- Where does she study?
- When did he start writing?
- Is he happy now?
- Is she going to abroad?

THICK QUESTION

- Why did you choose this job?
- What do you think about your city?
- What's your opinion about TV programmes?
- Why did you go to holiday last summer?
- What do you think about football players?

| MONITORING MYSELF | | STOP, ASK AND FIX MY CHECKLIST | |
|---|----------------------|--|---|
| <p>Monitor and assess yourself. Read through the following list. The first part is for monitoring your reading process. Put a check mark next to the sentence you did while reading the text. The second part is for evaluating yourself shortly.</p> | | | |
| Date: | | Name: <u>SEYMA</u> | |
| PART I | | | |
|  | In the reading task, | 1. I <u>periodically stopped</u> and <u>asked</u> "Did I understand it?" | ✓ |
| | | 2. I reread some parts of the text when I had difficulty. | ✓ |
| | | 3. I read some difficult parts slowly and carefully when I had difficulty. | ✓ |
| | | 4. I tried to find out the place where I lost my <u>concentration</u> → <u>concentration</u> | ✓ |
| | | 5. I asked myself questions about the text to see if I understood it or not. | ✓ |
| | | 6. I used dictionary to help me understand it better. | ✓ |
| | | 7. I stopped in the middle of the text and tried to express what I understood with my own words. | ✓ |
| | | 8. I draw some pictures on my mind to see if I understood the text clearly. | ✓ |
| PART II | | | |
|  | Today in the class.. | 9. I was active. | ✗ |
| | | 10. I volunteered to answer questions. | ✗ |
| | | 11. I obeyed the classroom rules. | ✓ |
| | | 12. I understood the main frame of the topic. | ✓ |

| MONITORING MYSELF | | STOP, ASK AND FIX MY CHECKLIST | |
|---|----------------------|--|---|
| <p>Monitor and assess yourself. Read through the following list. The first part is for monitoring your reading process. Put a check mark next to the sentence you did while reading the text. The second part is for evaluating yourself shortly.</p> | | | |
| Date: | | Name: <i>Miguel</i> | |
| PART I | | | |
|  | In the reading task, | 1. I periodically stopped and asked "Did I understand it?" | ✓ |
| | | 2. I reread some parts of the text when I had difficulty. | ✓ |
| | | 3. I read some difficult parts slowly and carefully when I had difficulty. | ✓ |
| | | 4. I tried to find out the place where I lost my concentration. | ✓ |
| | | 5. I asked myself questions about the text to see if I understood it or not. | — |
| | | 6. I used dictionary to help me understand it better. | ✓ |
| | | 7. I stopped in the middle of the text and tried to express what I understood with my own words. | — |
| | | 8. I draw some pictures on my mind to see if I understood the text clearly. | — |
| PART II | | | |
|  | Today in the class.. | 9. I was active. | |
| | | 10. I volunteered to answer questions. | |
| | | 11. I obeyed the classroom rules. | |
| | | 12. I understood the main frame of the topic. | |

| MONITORING MYSELF | | STOP, ASK AND FIX MY CHECKLIST | | |
|---|----------------------|--|---|----------------------|
| <p>Monitor and assess yourself. Read through the following list. The first part is for monitoring your reading process. Put a check mark next to the sentence you did while reading the text. The second part is for evaluating yourself shortly.</p> | | | | |
| Date: | | Name: <u>Esra</u> | | |
| PART I | | | | |
|  | In the reading task, | 1. I periodically stopped and asked "Did I understand it?" | ✓ | <i>you should do</i> |
| | | 2. I reread some parts of the text when I had difficulty. | ✓ | <i>you should do</i> |
| | | 3. I read some difficult parts slowly and carefully when I had difficulty. | ✓ | |
| | | 4. I tried to find out the place where I lost my concentration. | ✓ | |
| | | 5. I asked myself questions about the text to see if I understood it or not. | X | <i>you should do</i> |
| | | 6. I used dictionary to help me understand it better. | ✓ | |
| | | 7. I stopped in the middle of the text and tried to express what I understood with my own words. | X | <i>you should do</i> |
| | | 8. I draw some pictures on my mind to see if I understood the text clearly. | ✓ | |
| PART II | | | | |
|  | Today in the class.. | 9. I was active. | X | |
| | | 10. I volunteered to answer questions. | X | |
| | | 11. I obeyed the classroom rules. | ✓ | |
| | | 12. I understood the main frame of the topic. | ✓ | <i>doğru cevap</i> |

Read the text and draw a map according to the given directions

Tourist: Excuse me, can you help me? I'm lost!

Person: Certainly, where would you like to go?

Tourist: I'd like to go to the museum, but I can't find it. Is it far?

Person: No, not really. It's about a 5 minute walk.

Tourist: Maybe I should call a taxi ...

Person: No, no. It's very easy. Really. (pointing) I can give you directions.

Tourist: Thank you. That's very kind of you.

Person: Not at all. ... Now, go along this street to the traffic lights. Do you see them?

Tourist: Yes, I can see them.

Person: Right, at the traffic lights, turn left into Queen Mary Avenue.

Tourist: Queen Mary Avenue.

Person: Right. Go straight on. Take the second left and enter Museum Drive.

Tourist: OK. Queen Mary Avenue, straight on and then the third left, Museum Drive.

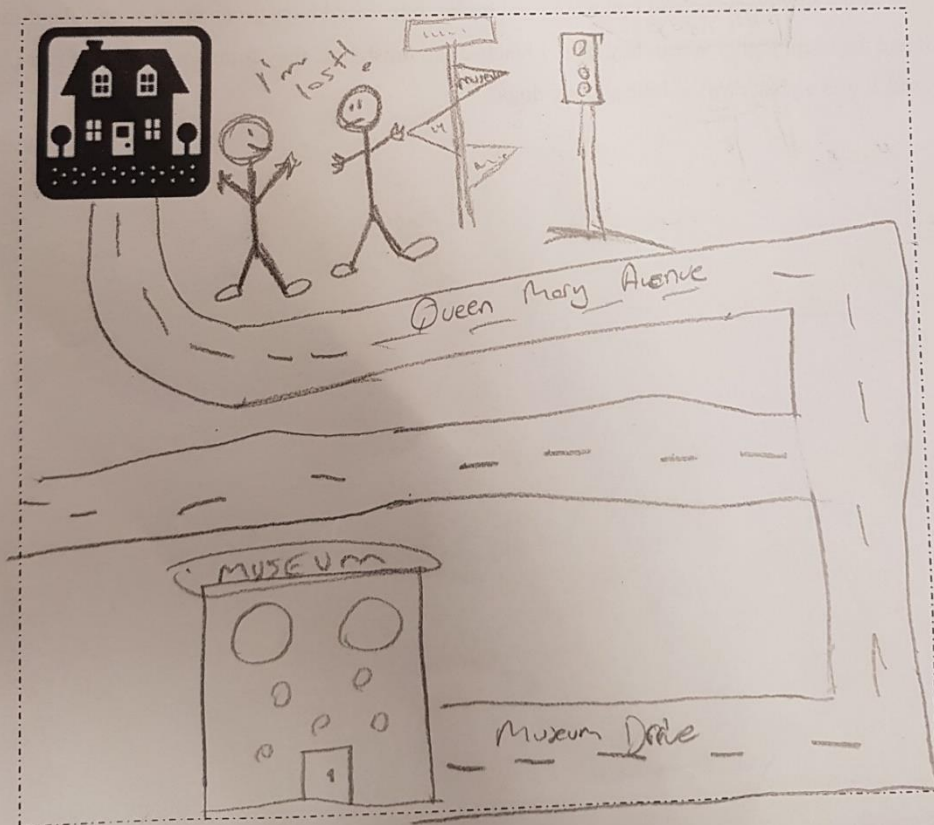
Person: No, it's the SECOND left.

Tourist: Ah, right. The second street on my left.

Person: Right. Just follow Museum Drive and the museum is at the end of the road.

Tourist: Great. Thanks again for your help.

Person: Not at all.



Read the text and draw a map according to the given directions

Tourist: Excuse me, can you help me? I'm lost!

Person: Certainly, where would you like to go?

Tourist: I'd like to go to the museum, but I can't find it. Is it far?

Person: No, not really. It's about a 5 minute walk.

Tourist: Maybe I should call a taxi ...

Person: No, no. It's very easy. Really. (pointing) I can give you directions.

Tourist: Thank you. That's very kind of you.

Person: Not at all. ... Now, go along this street to the traffic lights. Do you see them?

Tourist: Yes, I can see them.

Person: Right, at the traffic lights, turn left into Queen Mary Avenue.

Tourist: Queen Mary Avenue.

Person: Right. Go straight on. Take the second left and enter Museum Drive.

Tourist: OK. Queen Mary Avenue, straight on and then the third left, Museum Drive.

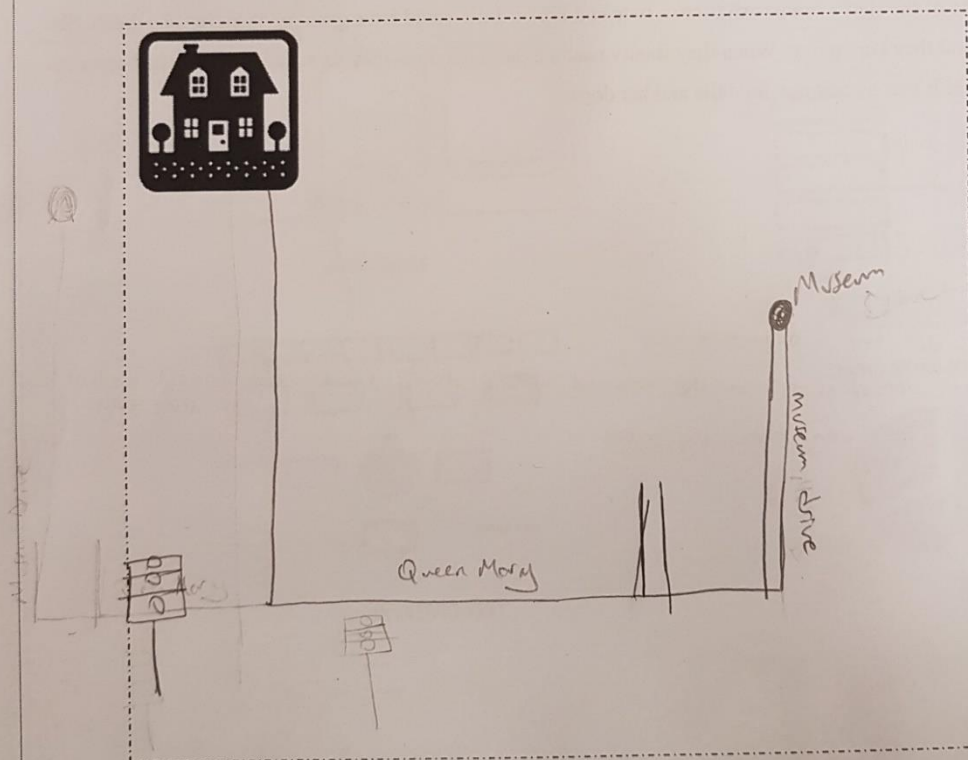
Person: No, it's the SECOND left.

Tourist: Ah, right. The second street on my left.

Person: Right. Just follow Museum Drive and the museum is at the end of the road.

Tourist: Great. Thanks again for your help.

Person: Not at all.



Read the text and draw a graphic organizer to explain any information in the text.

The dogsled race was about to begin. Julie's team of dogs was lined up at the starting gate. Julie stood behind them. The air was so cold that she could see her breath. Other teams were lined up, too, and the dogs were excited. Julie kept her eyes on the clock. At exactly ten o'clock, she and the other racers yelled, "Mush!" The dogs knew that meant "Go!" They leapt forward and the race began!

Julie had trained months for this race, and she hoped she and her dogs would win. Hour after hour, day after day, Julie's dogs pulled the sled in order to get in shape for the race. Now, they ran over snowy hills and down into frozen valleys. They stopped only to rest and eat. They wanted to stay ahead of the other teams. The racers had to go a thousand miles across Alaska. Alaska is one of the coldest places on Earth. The dogs' thick fur coats helped keep them warm in the cold wind and weather. In many places along the route, the snow was deep. Pieces of ice were as sharp as a knife. The ice could cut the dogs' feet. To keep that from happening, Julie had put special booties on their feet.

At first, the dogs seemed to pull the sled very slowly. They were still getting used to the race. But on the third day out, they began to pull more quickly. They worked as a team and passed many of the other racers. Once, one of the sled's runners slid into a hole and broke. Julie could have given up then, but she didn't. She fixed it and they kept going. When they finally reached the finish line, they found out that they had come in first place! It was a great day for Julie and her dogs.

Story Map

Characters:

- Julie
- Dog

Setting:

- Alaska
- Ten o'clock
- Hour after hour
- Day after day
- winter

Problem:

- Julie wants to win the dog race

Plan:

- They worked as a team
- She trained her dogs
- She had put some special booties on their feet

Resolution:

- They won the race

Read the text and draw a graphic organizer to explain any information in the text.

Top 5 food markets

1 St Lawrence, Toronto, Canada

St Lawrence food market, in the center of Toronto, is two hundred years old. There are a lot of shops here (over 100) with every kind of meat and seafood. Shoppers visit from all over the world. You can find fruit, vegetables, all kinds of meat, and delicious street food. St Lawrence food market is great for grocery shopping. There's also a wide selection of ingredients. The market is open on Monday, Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday, year-round.

2 Castries Market, St Lucia

Naturally, this island in the Caribbean has a market famous for fish and fruit. Buy some bananas for lunch and some fish for dinner. And try the local sauce – it's very hot! Pick up some lovely flowers, fresh fruit and vegetables, bread and cookies, home-made chocolates, and oils. Shop here for delicious ingredients, tasty ready-made food. The Castries Market is between the Jeremie and Peynier Streets, the market is open every day, but is best on Saturdays. You can find juicy fruit and vegetables, natural honey, local yoghurts, fresh breads, and rich coffee aromas.

3 Kreta Ayer Wet Market, Singapore

There's a lot of different food here. Go at around 6 a.m. and have some tasty noodles for breakfast. Don't miss the beef sandwiches. There's also a great restaurant upstairs. The Kreta Ayer Wet Market is open from Mondays 9am-4pm to Saturdays 11am-4pm. Visit early in the morning when fishermen brings fresh fish. Parking is also available inside and outside the market area.

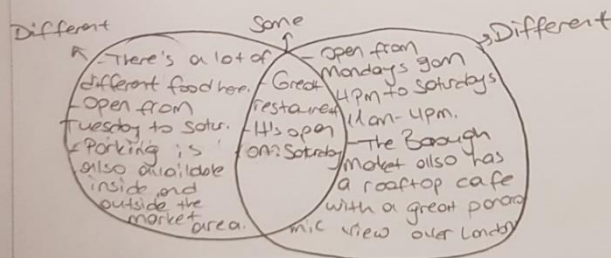
4 La Vucciria, Palermo, Italy

There aren't many markets in the world with live music. But in Palermo, musicians play and sing as shoppers buy their sausages and kebabs. It has a lovely café. Sit in the sun with the gozleme or gourmet wrap you buy. It's a great atmosphere! There are also some fantastic exotic spices. It is open from Tuesday to Sunday and Sunday is the best day to visit the market.

5 Borough Market, London, England

This market is two hundred and fifty years old and famous with food lovers. It's open from Tuesday to Saturday and it's good to go very early. There isn't much food for sale after 10 a.m.! The Borough Market also has a rooftop cafe with a great panoramic view over London. Beside you can also find a hairdresser's and a restaurant.

Compare and Contrast



+ Kreta Ayer Wet Market, Singapore

+ Borough Market London, England

Top 5 food markets

1 St Lawrence, Toronto, Canada

St Lawrence food market, in the center of Toronto, is two hundred years old. There are a lot of shops here (over 100) with every kind of meat and seafood. Shoppers visit from all over the world. You can find fruit, vegetables, all kinds of meat, and delicious street food. St Lawrence food market is great for grocery shopping. There's also a wide selection of ingredients. The market is open on Monday, Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday, year-round. ^(all the year) ^(all day long)

2 Castries Market, St Lucia

Naturally, this island in the Caribbean has a market famous for fish and fruit. Buy some bananas for lunch and some fish for dinner. And try the local sauce – it's very hot! Pick up some lovely flowers, fresh fruit and vegetables, bread and cookies, home-made chocolates, and oils. Shop here for delicious ingredients, tasty ready-made food. The Castries Market is between the Jeremie and Peynier Streets, the market is open every day, but is best on Saturdays. You can find juicy fruit and vegetables, natural honey, local yoghurts, fresh breads, and rich coffee aromas.

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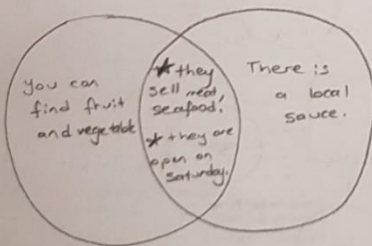
There aren't many markets in the world with live music. But in Palermo, musicians play and sing as shoppers buy their sausages and kebabs. It has a lovely café. Sit in the sun with the gozleme or gourmet wrap you buy. It's a great atmosphere! There are also some fantastic exotic spices. It is open from Tuesday to Sunday and Sunday is the best day to visit the market.

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1 - 2

Compare and contrast



fact or opinion

1 * St Lawrence food market, in the centre of Toronto is two hundred years old.

* St Lawrence food market is great for grocery shopping.

2 * The Castries Market is between the Jeremie and Peynier Streets.

* Try the local sauce it's very hot.

Read the text and draw a graphic organizer to explain any information in the text.

The dogsled race was about to begin. Julie's team of dogs was lined up at the starting gate. Julie stood behind them. The air was so cold that she could see her breath. Other teams were lined up, too, and the dogs were excited. Julie kept her eyes on the clock. At exactly ten o'clock, she and the other racers yelled, "Mush!" The dogs knew that meant "Go!" They leapt forward and the race began!

Julie had trained months for this race, and she hoped she and her dogs would win. Hour after hour, day after day, Julie's dogs pulled the sled in order to get in shape for the race. Now, they ran over snowy hills and down into frozen valleys. They stopped only to rest and eat. They wanted to stay ahead of the other teams. The racers had to go a thousand miles across Alaska. Alaska is one of the coldest places on Earth. The dogs' thick fur coats helped keep them warm in the cold wind and weather. In many places along the route, the snow was deep. Pieces of ice were as sharp as a knife. The ice could cut the dogs' feet. To keep that from happening, Julie had put special booties on their feet.

At first, the dogs seemed to pull the sled very slowly. They were still getting used to the race. But on the third day out, they began to pull more quickly. They worked as a team and passed many of the other racers. Once, one of the sled's runners slid into a hole and broke. Julie could have given up then, but she didn't. She fixed it and they kept going. When they finally reached the finish line, they found out that they had come in first place! It was a great day for Julie and her dogs.

Story Map

Characters:

Julie, Julie's dogs

(Location) Setting:

Alaska,
Winter

Problem:

Julie wants
to win the
dog race.

Plan:

They worked as
a team.
She trained her dogs.
She had put some special
booties on their feet.

One of the
sled's runners
slid into a hole
and broke

She fixed it.

Resolution:

They won
the race.

Read the text and draw a graphic organizer to explain any information in the text.

Top 5 food markets

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Naturally, this island in the Caribbean has a market famous for fish and fruit. Buy some bananas for lunch and some fish for dinner. And try the local sauce – it's very hot! Pick up some lovely flowers, fresh fruit and vegetables, bread and cookies, home-made chocolates, and oils. Shop here for delicious ingredients, tasty ready-made food. The Castries Market is between the Jeremie and Peynier Streets, the market is open every day, but is best on Saturdays. You can find juicy fruit and vegetables, natural honey, local yoghurts, fresh breads, and rich coffee aromas.

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Fact (market)
gozleme or gourmet wrap
open from Tuesday to Sunday.

Opinion (love)
It has a lovely café.
It's a great atmosphere.
fantastic exotic spices.
Sunday is the best day to visit.

Deviled Eggs

Remove the egg yolks to a small bowl and mash with a fork. Add mayonnaise, mustard powder, vinegar, salt and pepper and mix thoroughly. Fill the empty egg white shells with the mixture and sprinkle lightly with paprika. Cover lightly with plastic wrap and refrigerator for up to one day before serving.

Sports in ~~Tim~~ at Ericson

There are two popular sports played at Ericson, basketball and volleyball. Both take place inside of the gym at Ericson. Also, each sport has two teams of people. In basketball, however, the ball can be played off of the floor, and in volleyball, the ball cannot touch the floor or it is out of play. Basketball and volleyball are popular sports at Ericson.

The Lazy Student

When Tim woke up, he didn't want to go to school. His mom took him anyway. So, he went to school, but he didn't do any work. The days passed, and Tim still didn't do any work. Mr. Morton called Tim's house, but Tim still wouldn't do any work. Finally the report cards came out, and Tim failed his classes. Tim was sad.

Failing Classes

Lots of students fail classes. Some students fail because the work is too hard for them. Other times they may fail because they are lazy, and don't do any work. Another reason why students may fail is if they don't go to school. If you're not in class you may miss a lot. Many students fail classes every quarter.

Passing Classes

A lot of students have been failing classes. These students wouldn't be failing classes if they studied more, asked questions, tried harder, and came in for extra help. Even though a lot of students fail classes, they have many options if they want to pass.

The Best Ice-cream Shop

The ice-cream shop around the corner from my house has the best ice-cream in the city. When you first walk inside, there is a long chrome counter with matching stools extending to alongside the far wall. Right where the counter stops, the booth seating begins. There are lots of old-timey knickknacks on the walls and chrome napkin holders on all the tables. My favourite part of the shop is behind the counter glass, where they keep all of the ice-cream flavours. A rainbow of delicious sugary flavours is kept cool and delicious behind the counter glass.

WRITE THE TEXT
STRUCTURE

Sequence ✓

Compare

Chronological

Cause and Effect

Problem and Solution

Spatial Descriptive

Deviled Eggs *Sequence*

Remove the egg yolks to a small bowl and mash with a fork. Add mayonnaise, mustard powder, vinegar, salt and pepper and mix thoroughly. Fill the empty egg white shells with the mixture and sprinkle lightly with paprika. Cover lightly with plastic wrap and refrigerator for up to one day before serving.

Sports ~~in~~ at Ericson

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The Lazy Student *Chronological*

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Failing Classes *Cause and Effect*

Lots of students fail classes. Some students fail because the work is too hard for them. Other times they may fail because they are lazy, and don't do any work. Another reason why students may fail is if they don't go to school. If you're not in class you may miss a lot. Many students fail classes every quarter.

Passing Classes *Problem and Solution*

A lot of students have been failing classes. These students wouldn't be failing classes if they studied more, asked questions, tried harder, and came in for extra help. Even though a lot of students fail classes, they have many options if they want to pass.

The Best Ice-cream Shop *Spatial-Descriptive*

The ice-cream shop around the corner from my house has the best ice-cream in the city. When you first walk inside, there is a long chrome counter with matching stools extending to alongside the far wall. Right where the counter stops, the booth seating begins. There are lots of old-timey knickknacks on the walls and chrome napkin holders on all the tables. My favourite part of the shop is behind the counter glass, where they keep all of the ice-cream flavours. A rainbow of delicious sugary flavours is kept cool and delicious behind the counter glass.

WRITE THE TEXT STRUCTURE

*Sequence/order
of importance*

*Compare
and
contrast*

Chronological

Cause and Effect

*Problem and
solution*

*Spatial-
Descriptive*



GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR...