THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECONDARY AND HIGH SCHOOL
EDUCATION IN READING AND THE READING STRATEGY USE OF
FRESHMAN STUDENTS AT MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
(METU) WHILE READING IN ENGLISH

A THESIS PRESENTED BY
EBRU BAYOL ŞAHİN

TO THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

BILKENT UNIVERSITY
JUNE 1998

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ABSTRACT

Title:	The Relationship between Secondary and High School Education in Reading and the Reading Strategy Use of Freshman Students at Middle East Technical University (METU) While Reading in English
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The importance of use of strategies by the learners in the learning process has been recognized due to the developments in cognitive psychology and the relationship between cognition and language learning. Learning strategies are actions taken by the learners to facilitate learning and make it more effective. Among the strategies used by language learners, reading strategies are of great significance. Especially in second/foreign language learning contexts for academic purposes, reading is very often required as university students have to read exhaustively in their studies. Their comprehension of the texts they read depends on their effective approach to them. Therefore, researchers in the field of second/foreign language reading have identified reading strategies used by good readers.

The acquisition of certain learning strategies start in pre-university years. In particular, in secondary and high school education learners are required to read in many content areas and acquire quite a large amount of knowledge. It can be argued that learners' educational background plays an important role on their university education where they are confronted with complex reading and learning.

This study investigated the relationship betweeen education in reading in secondary and high school and the reading strategy use of freshman students at METU while reading in English. Data were collected from the students through a three-part questionnaire and think-aloud protocols (TAPs). The first part of the questionnaire consisted of questions related to reading practices in secondary and high school. The second part included questions directed towards reading strategies encouraged in pre-university education and reading strategies use by the students at university while reading in English. The last part of the questionnaire was related to reading practices in English at university. TAPs were used in order to support the data obtained from the questionnaires.

The findings of the study revealed that the students in this study were 'usually or always' encouraged to use reading strategies in secondary and high school. With this particular group of students this encouragement proved to have positive impact on their strategy use at university; they said that they use the same strategies 'usually or always' at university while reading in English, although they reported that practices related to reading were not satisfactory in their pre-university education.

BILKENT UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

MA THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

June 26, 1998

The examining committee appointed by the Institute of Economics and Social

Sciences for the thesis examination of the MA TEFL student

Ebru Bayol Şahin

has read the thesis of the student.

The committee has decided that the thesis of the student is satisfactory.

Thesis Title: The Relationship between Secondary and High school
Education in Reading and the Reading Strategy Use of Freshman
Students at Middle East Technical University (METU) While Reading
in English

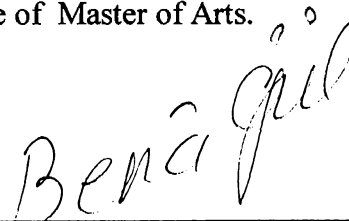Thesis Advisor   : Dr. Bena Gül Peker
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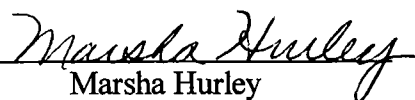   Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully

adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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To my husband

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Learning strategies is a new field which has been recognized as a result of the developments in cognitive psychology and in the relationship between cognition and language learning. Learning a foreign language is said to be a complex process; it is not automatic and the learners are not passive, but are cognitively and affectively involved in the process. Therefore, the use of strategies by the learners is seen essential in order for the learning to take place. In fact, Oxford's (1990) definition of learning strategies as ''specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations'' (p.7) indicates that there is a positive relationship between effective use of learning strategies and language learning. As Oxford (1992/1993) states, learning strategies can ''facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval or use of the new language '' (p.18) (see chapter 2 for a discussion of classification of learning strategies).

Among the strategies used by language learners, reading strategies are of great significance. In second language teaching/learning contexts for academic purposes, especially in English medium universities or in other contexts where academic materials written in English are extensively used, reading is important (Carrell, 1990). Eskey (1990, cited in Carrell, 1990, p.1) has also emphasized the importance of reading especially at advanced proficiency levels in a second language: ''the ability to read the written language at a reasonable rate and with good comprehension has long been recognized to be as important as oral skills.'' University students have to read many different kinds of texts (''text'' is used to mean ''passage'' in this study) in their

studies and students' comprehension of these texts depends on their effective approach to them. They have their content courses in which they read many academic texts on different topics related to their fields.

Many researchers have specifically identified reading strategies used by good readers. For example, Barnett (1988) and Dubin (1982) have suggested lists of common reading strategies. Barnett talks about text-level strategies such as "considering background knowledge, predicting, . . .reading with a purpose"(p. 150) and word-level strategies which involve, for example "using context to guess word meanings, and . . . following reference words"(p.150). Similarly, Dubin has found ten strategies used by people who read well : "adjusting attention according to the material, using the total context as an aid to comprehension, skimming, search reading, predicting/guessing/anticipating, critical reading, receptive reading, scanning, using textual-discourse devices and synthesizing knowledge"(p.126-127) (see Chapter 2 for a discussion of reading strategies). The same kinds of strategies will be investigated in this study as they are commonly used in academic reading and the inability to use them effectively results in failure in reading comprehension. This study aims at exploring the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and the reading strategy use of freshman students while reading in English at university.

<center>Background of the Study</center>

The acquisition of certain learning strategies and the ability to use them appropriately start in pre-university years. In particular, in secondary and high school education learners are required to read in many content areas and acquire quite a large amount of knowledge. Therefore, it can be argued that learners' educational

background plays an important role in their university education where they are confronted with complex reading and learning.

This study was carried out at Middle East Technical University (METU) in Ankara, Turkey, with freshman students. Students involved in the study were from private high schools or Anatolian High Schools, where instruction in mathematics and science courses is in English and students have English courses for about 8 hours a week. They study at various departments at METU, such as international relationships, economics, management, mechanical engineering, environmental engineering, food engineering, civil engineering and chemistry.

Since METU is an English medium university, jointly with the Department of Basic English (DBE), the Department of Modern Languages aims to provide students with the required English language skills which will enable them to pursue their studies in various departments. At the Department, the initial required courses for freshman students are English 101 (Eng.101) and English 102 (Eng.102) which are academic integrated reading and writing courses. After a proficiency exam, while some of the students take these two required English courses, others are exempted from one or both of them.

Especially in English 101, students are required to read academic texts in which they have to use certain reading strategies such as predicting, skimming, scanning, inferencing, making use of contextual and lexical clues, identifying the main idea and supporting ideas, and paying attention to cohesive markers. These strategies are thought to be the most important ones which they will need in their content courses in order to be successful in reading comprehension. In Eng.102, besides reading, students study writing paragraphs and essays.

Statement of the Problem

Anecdotal evidence indicates that freshman students who have not studied at the DBE and who have not taken English 101 have difficulties with reading comprehension due to their inability to use effective reading strategies. Since it is thought that students' pre-university education has an impact on their university education, in this study it is hypothesized that reading comprehension problems are also carried over to the university.

Students in the Turkish education system are not made aware of learning strategies and are not taught how to use strategies given that memorization and rote learning are the dominant modes of learning. For example, Bursalıoğlu (1973, cited in Akyüz,1997), based on the results of his study, argues that the Turkish education system fails to teach certain skills such as critical thinking. In another study, Tekin (1980, cited in Gündüz, 1987) argues that the eleven-year Turkish language education seems to fail to teach the required reading skills. Osam (1992) further discusses tasks designed to develop reading skills in the course books prepared for primary, secondary, and high schools in Turkey. She argues that questions that develop or encourage the use of prediction, inferencing and interpretation skills are insufficient in quantity in these books. These statements in fact remind one of what Grabe (1991) has stated about the relationship between the reader and the written material in the process of reading, which is relevant to the Turkish context: "Students who come from cultures where written material represents 'truth' might tend not to challenge or reinterpret texts in light of other texts but will tend to memorize 'knowledge' " (p.389). To sum up, given the above mentioned research evidence, there seems to be

a lack of focus on crucial reading strategies in teaching reading in the Turkish education system.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and the reading strategy use of freshman students at METU, Department of Modern Languages while reading in English. Therefore, data about the teaching and learning situation regarding reading comprehension in Turkish Language and Literature, and English courses at Turkish secondary and high schools will first be collected from university students. Then, the relationship between this previous education and reading strategies used by the students reading in English at university level will be investigated.

Significance of the Study

The use of learning strategies at university and its relationship to the Turkish schooling system is an issue that has not been investigated in Turkey. It is hoped that the data collected on Turkish learners will help university level Turkish teachers in determining their language teaching methodologies, designing better curricula or syllabi suitable to learners' needs, and helping learners overcome their difficulties and inadequacies in language learning. In this way, understanding the relationship between previous schooling experience and the effective use of learning strategies might have positive implications on the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Turkish universities.

A study on the reading strategies used by freshman students at Middle East Technical University (METU) in Ankara can benefit students in that it can be useful in helping them develop the appropriate strategies for reading comprehension when

they are dealing with academic texts. Furthermore, secondary and high school

students and teachers as well as the Ministry of Education can benefit from the

findings of this study.

Research Questions

The main research question in this study was as follows:

What is the relationship between secondary and high school education in

reading and reading strategy use of freshman students at METU while

reading in English?

There were two sub-questions related to the main research question:

1. How do the freshman students at METU define their previous education in

reading in secondary and high school in both their Turkish and English

courses?

a. What do they report about their course books in general, about reading

texts in them and about motivation for reading?

b. Do they report any training in reading strategies and any assignments to

do outside reading?

2. How frequently were the freshman students at METU encouraged to use

reading strategies in secondary and high school and how frequently do they

use them in reading comprehension in English at university?

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter begins with a review of the literature on definitions of learning strategies. Second, classification systems that relate to these definitions are presented. In the third section, the focus of discussion is on reading as one of the four language skills in which learning strategies can be used to facilitate language learning. Since reading is one of the most important skills, especially in academic settings where success depends mostly on the comprehension of written materials, the following sections review reading comprehension, models of reading and strategies used in reading academic texts. The last section reviews the available research evidence concerning the reading strategy instruction in Turkish pre-university education.

Introduction

The idea that language acquisition is aided by 'special learner techniques or strategies' came to be recognized in the research literature in the 1980s. The proposition that a 'good language learner' has a special or different way of learning a language ''contrasts sharply with the idea that . . . some individuals have an inherent ability for language learning'' (O'Malley and Chamot,1990, p.2). Cognitive psychologists found out that competence in an area depends on some special ways of processing information. This finding implied that '' strategies are not the preserve of highly capable individuals, but could be learned by others who had not discovered them on their own'' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p.2).

The recent emphasis on the process by which learning occurs rather than the product or outcome of language learning (Oxford, 1990) has also increased the interest in language learning strategies. Oxford sees strategies as one of the various important factors or input in this learning process. They are crucial in the learning

process because strategies are the means that help learners reach their end. As Oxford states, strategies are tools used to solve a problem, achieve a task or meet an objective.

<div align="center">Definition of Language Learning Strategies</div>

Various researchers have tried to explain what learning strategies are. For example, Rigney (1978) and Dansereau (1975) have defined learning strategies as ''operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information'' (cited in Oxford, 1990, p.8). O'Malley and Chamot (1990), who derive their definition of learning strategies from a cognitive theoretical model, have defined them in a similar way, as ''special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of the information'' (p.1).

Oxford (1990) sees learning strategies as behaviours, actions or steps taken by students to make learning ''more successful, self-directed and enjoyable'' (cited in Ellis, 1994, p.531) and stresses the important role of the use of appropriate learning strategies in a student's proficiency and self confidence. Her definition includes also an affective purpose.

Some common features of learning strategies, as provided by Oxford (1990) and Ellis (1994), can be summarized as follows:

- Strategies are both general plans and specific actions or techniques used to learn a foreign language.

- They are often conscious on the part of the learner.

- Strategies are flexible, that is, their uses change according to the type of task the learner is engaged in.

- They support learning both directly and indirectly.

- They are not always observable because some of them are mental.

- Strategy training is effective.

- Strategies are problem oriented.

- Finally, they involve metacognitive, emotional and interpersonal aspects of the learner besides a cognitive one.

In brief, strategies are any actions taken by the learners to aid the learning process. They are essential as an input in this process.

Next section will present major classification schemes proposed by various researchers.

Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

As a result of various studies focusing on 'good language learner', strategies reported by students or strategies observed in language learning situations were identified. Based on these strategies some classifications were made.

Classification by Naiman et al.(1978)

Naiman et al. used the interviews they made with thirty-four good language learners and an initial strategy scheme provided earlier by Stern (1975) to develop their own scheme. This scheme includes five broad categories of learning strategies and a number of secondary categories. These broad categories include: ''An active task approach, realization of a language as a system, realization of language as a means of communication and interaction, management of affective demands and monitoring of second language performance'' (cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p.6). Secondary categories are actually referred to as 'techniques' as they focus on

specific aspects of language learning such as sound acquisition, grammar, vocabulary, learning to listen, talk, write and read.

Classification by Rubin (1981)

Another researcher who categorized the learning strategies at about the same time as Naiman et al. is Rubin (cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). She collected data extensively in different settings, through classroom observations, self-reports from students and journals written by students. Rubin collected strategies under two groups, as strategies that directly affect learning and ones that indirectly enhance learning. Direct strategies consist of actions or thoughts such as clarification / verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/ inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning and practice. The other group includes creating practice opportunities and using production tricks such as communication strategies.

Categories developed by Rubin and Naiman et al. have been criticized by some researchers. For instance, according to O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) although Rubin and Naiman et al. have identified a number of very useful deliberate approaches to learning a second language, their classification systems are not based on any theory of second language acquisition or cognition. Therefore, it does not seem easy ''to winnow out from the extensive listing of strategies and techniques which ones are fundamental for learning, which ones might be most useful to other learners, and which should be combined with others to maximize learning effectiveness'' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p.7). Furthermore, Ellis (1994) considers these early researches as lists of strategies in contrast to ''comprehensive, multi-levelled, and theoretically motivated taxonomies'' (p.540) developed later on. He thinks that later frameworks developed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Wenden (1991), and Oxford (1990) are

significant in that they assist us in deciding which strategies or combinations of

strategies are effective in improving learning.

<div align="center">Classification by O'Malley and Chamot (1990)</div>

As mentioned earlier, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) base their definition of

learning strategies on ''a cognitive information processing view of human thought and

action '' (p.1). They mention studies of learning strategies with first language learners

in cognitive psychology whose findings generally indicated that performance of

students trained in strategy use on a variety of reading comprehension and problem-

solving tasks is improved (e.g. Brown et al. 1983; Chipman, Segal, and Glaser 1985;

Dansereau 1985; Segal Chipman, and Glaser 1985). O'Malley and Chamot (1990)

state that ''one of the more important outcomes of these psychological studies was

the formulation of learning strategies in an information-processing theoretical model''

(p.8). This model consists of an executive, or metacognitive, function besides an

operative, or cognitive-processing, function. Metacognitive strategies are used for

planning for, monitoring of or evaluating learning. Cognitive strategies, according to

Brown and Palincsar (1982, cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990), are used in

individual learning tasks where learning materials are manipulated or transformed. A

third type of learning strategy discussed in the literature on cognitive psychology is

social/affective strategies, in which ''the learner calls on another person for assistance

or works cooperatively with others on a common task'' (Chamot, 1992, p.4). These

are the main groups of learning strategies which O'Malley and Chamot have also used

in classifying strategies used by foreign language learners. Selective attention,

planning and monitoring are included in metacognitive strategies whereas inferencing,

summarizing, elaboration, imagery and rehearsal are cognitive strategies. Self-talk, cooperation and questioning for clarification are included in social/affective strategies.

Classification by Oxford (1990)

The most recent classification of learning strategies is Oxford's (1990) taxonomy which is a very comprehensive one in that it has six major categories, three of which directly involve the target language and necessitate mental processing of the language, whereas the other three support learning indirectly. Oxford's classification scheme is similar to Rubin's (1981) in that Oxford also divides strategies into two, as direct and indirect ones. However, Oxford's system is a new one which is ''more comprehensive and detailed '' and ''more systematic in linking individual strategies, as well as, strategy groups, with each of the four language skills''(Oxford,1990, p. 14). Direct strategies include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies which are further divided into sub-categories. Indirect strategies involve metacognitive, affective and social strategies which again have sub-categories. As can be seen, Oxford's taxonomy includes all the previously discussed categories of the strategies and it has been expanded to include broader categories. Oxford has developed The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which ''uses a very wide definition of strategy, including almost any decision taken in the process of language learning'' (McDonough, 1995, p.94).

To summarize, learning strategies are special ways used by learners to aid learning and make it more efficient. The way learners approach a task and perform it and the outcome received are affected by the strategies chosen by them and by how effectively learners employ them. In language learning, strategies are used to facilitate learning in all four skills - listening, reading, writing and speaking. Understanding

language learning strategies requires an understanding of the nature of language learning process. Similarly, understanding reading strategies necessitates an understanding of the nature of reading process. Therefore, models of reading which aim to explain the nature of reading process will be reviewed next.

<div align="center">Models of the Reading Process</div>

Attempts to define the nature of reading process have led to the formulation of three basic models of reading: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive. Reading in a second or foreign language has been influenced by these approaches to reading in the first language (L1).

<div align="center">Bottom-up Reading Model</div>

This early, rather passive, view of second language reading defined the process of reading as decoding the author's intended meaning through recognition of the printed letters and words. The meaning for a text was thought to be built up by the reader ''from the smallest textual units at the 'bottom' (letters and words) to larger and larger units at the 'top' (phrases, clauses, intersentential linkages) '' (Carrell, 1990, p.2).

The bottom-up model of reading was criticized by some researchers. For example, Eskey (1973) considered this early bottom-up decoding model as inadequate because he argued that this model ''underestimated the contribution of the reader; it failed to recognize that students utilize their expectations about the text based on their knowledge of language and how it works'' (Carrell, 1990, p.3). In addition, a series of research studies done by Goodman and Burke (1972, cited in Nunan, 1991) have provided evidence against this model which considers reading as a ''serial processing of ever larger units of language'' (p. 65). The analysis of errors, 'miscues' as termed

by Goodman and Burke (1972), made by the readers while reading aloud have revealed that reading is more than a mechanical decoding process. They found that ''in many instances deviations from what was actually written on the page made sense semantically _for example a child might read the sentence 'My father speaks Spanish' as 'My Dad speaks Spanish' ''(Nunan, 1991, p.65). The child could read the sentence as 'My feather speaks Spanish', which would suggest that he/she is decoding mechanically rather than reading for meaning.

Top-down Reading Model

In the 1970s, the psycholinguistic model of reading proposed by Goodman (1971, cited in Carrell,1988) began to influence second language reading. Goodman described reading as a ''psycholinguistic guessing game'' in which the ''reader reconstructs . . . a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display'' (Goodman, 1971, p.135). According to Goodman's model, all of the textual cues are not necessarily used by the efficient reader. The grapho-phonic, syntactic and semantic systems of the language are merely utilized for the purpose of predicting the meaning of the text. The reader's past experiences and knowledge of the language play an important role in the confirmation of these predictions by the reader (Carrell, 1990). Several reading experts such as Anderson (1978) and Cziko (1978) have accepted Goodman's model as basically a concept-driven top-down pattern (cited in Carrell, 1990).

Thus, with the influence of the top-down model, the second language reader started to be seen as actively involved in reading, processing the information by predicting while sampling only parts of the actual text. Second language reading specialists such as Clarke and Silberstein (1977), Clarke (1979), Mackay and

Mountford (1979), and Widdowson (1978,1983) (cited in Carrell, 1990, p.3), all prescribed to this active role of the reader in the reading process.

The top-down model has also been found to have limitations. Eskey (cited in Carrell, 1990) has stated that 'the top-down' "revolution has resulted in major improvements in both our understanding of what good and many not so good readers do, and in the methods and materials that we now employ" (p.93). However, Eskey also believes that 'top-down' models have some limitations since they "de-emphasize the perceptual and decoding dimensions" (p.93) of the reading process. According to him, these lower level skills such as the rapid and accurate perception of lexical and grammatical forms are considered as essential as higher-level skills. Therefore, what Eskey has supported is an interactive model of reading.

<center>Interactive Reading Model</center>

The interactive model was proposed by Rumelhart (1977). This model, in contrast to the top-down model, assumes a constant interaction between higher-level and lower-level skills in processing information for the reconstruction of the meaning of the text rather than overemphasizing the role of top-down processing skills in reading. In this view, good readers are considered as "both good decoders and good interpreters of the text, their decoding skills becoming more automatic but no less important as their reading skill develops" (Carrell,1990, p.94). Thus, both the top-down and bottom-up skills are utilized by the efficient readers in a fluent and accurate reading. Stanovich (1980) also emphasizes the superiority of the interactive model as it "allows for deficiencies at one level to be compensated for at another" (cited in Nunan, 1990, p. 67).

In conclusion, the reading model which will provide the readers with an utmost understanding of what they read is an interactive type of reading. In the interpretation of a reading text, decoding of the written message is the initial step which should lead to the use of higher-level processes. As Day and Bamford (1998) have stated, an accurate and automatic word recognition ''is the precursor of a number of other interactive, concurrent processes that, together with high-level cognitive reasoning, result in the construction of meaning'' (p.15). Therefore, developing both top-down and bottom-up reading skills is essential in learning to read.

As mentioned earlier, in the development of skills in a language, strategies are used as tools. As a result of various studies with learners, many useful reading strategies have been found. Next section will present these reading strategies and discuss their importance in relation to the reading process..

<p style="text-align:center">Research on Reading Strategies</p>

The role of strategies used in reading is now accepted as a legitimate research goal and the identification of strategies used by good readers for effective comprehension is on-going.

Definitions of reading strategies all focus on their role in the comprehension of what one reads. For example, Duffy (1993, p.232, cited in Janzen, 1993) defines them as ''plans for solving problems encountered in constructing meaning''(p.6). Janzen states that these strategies both include bottom-up ones such as consulting a dictionary for an unfamiliar word and more comprehensive strategies like relating new material being read to one's background knowledge (p.6). In a similar way, Barnett (1988) defines reading strategies as ''the mental operations involved when readers

approach a text efficiently and make sense of what they read'' (Barnett, 1988, p.150).

According to Barnett, these problem solving techniques involve:

- guessing word meaning from context and evaluating those guesses,

- recognizing cognates and word families,

- skimming,

- scanning,

- reading for meaning,

- predicting,

- activating general knowledge,

- making inferences,

- following references,

- separating main ideas from supporting details.

Barnett (1988) states that these effective strategies are further divided into two major

categories, as text-level and word-level. According to her definitions, text-level

strategies are '' those related to the reading passage as a whole or to large parts of the

passage''. Word-level ones are more focused on words. She states that classifications

given in some other studies follow a similar principle in division: e.g. Block's (1986)

'general comprehension' and 'local linguistic', Hosenfeld's (1977) 'main meaning

line' and 'word-solving strategies' and, in L1 reading theory, Olshavsky's (1976-77)

'clause-related' and 'word-related' strategies (p.150).

Hosenfeld (1984) conducted one of the earliest research studies on reading

strategies. She interviewed readers in their native language on strategies that they

used while they were trying to understand what they were reading. Her aim was to

find what good readers do that poor readers do not to comprehend the text. She then

used think-aloud protocols of a kind in a case study format. Good readers were found

to be using the following kinds of strategies according to her protocols (1984,

pp.233-4):

- keep the meaning of the passage in mind,

- read in broad phrases,

- skip inessential words,

- guess from context the meaning of unknown words,

- have good self-concept as a reader,

- identify the grammatical category of words,

- demonstrate sensitivity to a different word order,

- examine illustrations,

- read the title and make inferences from it,

- use orthographic information (e.g. capitalization)

- refer to the side gloss,

- use a glossary as a last resort,

- look up words correctly,

- continue if unsuccessful at decoding a word or phrase,

- recognize cognates,

- use their knowledge of the world,

- follow through with proposed solution to a problem,

- evaluate their guesses.

The think-aloud method is a common method used in reading strategies studies (see Chapter 3 for a discussion of TAPs). It enables the researchers to gather rich data as the readers are encouraged to think aloud everything that goes on in their minds during the reading process itself. Another researcher who used a think-aloud method is Block (1986). She used it with both non-native and native readers of the same educational level (college first-years who had failed a college reading ability text) and organized the strategies she identified into two:

(general)

•anticipate content,

•recognize text structure,

•integrate information,

•question information in the text,

•interpret the text,

•use general knowledge and associations,

•comment on behaviour or process,

•monitor comprehension,

•correct behaviour,

•react to text

(local)

•paraphrase,

•reread,

•question meaning of clause or sentence,

•question meaning of a word,

•solve vocabulary problem. (cited in McDonough, 1995, p.51).

Block refers to Langer (1982) who defines strategies as ''a reader's resources for understanding''(cited in Block, 1986, p.465). According to Langer, ''comprehension strategies indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand'' (p. 465). Block reviews the findings of some studies which suggest that monitoring comprehension, awareness of strategy use and using strategies flexibly are the characteristics of good readers that distinguish them from poor ones. She also refers to Smith (1967), and Strang and Rogers (1965) who state that the type of text being read and the purpose for which it is being read determine the strategies good readers use. In other words, readers change the strategies they employ depending on these factors.

Other researchers who Block cites are Olson et. al (1984) who attract attention to good readers' ability to differentiate between important information and details as well as using clues in the text to predict what will be stated further and/or find relationships between new information and information previously stated. Some of the reading strategies grouped by Block, namely anticipating content, integrating information, using general knowledge and associations, and monitoring comprehension share the characteristics stated by these researchers.

The identification of reading strategies has continued in both L1 and L2 research. Another researcher who was interested in reading strategies was Sarig (1987). In Sarig's research, readers (17-18 year old girls at the end of their school career) who had Hebrew as L1 and English as foreign language were found to use

highly similar strategies and the relation between the strategies used and actual success in comprehension was similar in both languages (cited in McDonough,1995).

Sarig classified the strategies which she calls 'moves' into four categories: technical aid moves, clarification and simplification moves, coherence-detecting moves, and monitoring moves. These categories include the following strategies:

1. Technical aids

- skimming,
- scanning,
- marking the text,
- making a paragraph summary in the margin,
- using glossary,

2. Clarification and Simplification

- syntactic simplification,
- producing synonyms and circumlocutions,
- using paraphrase of rhetorical function,

3. Coherence detection

- identifying the macroframe,
- using background knowledge,
- identifying key information,

4. Monitoring

- consciously changing the plan,
- deserting a hopeless utterance,
- varying the reading rate,

- identifying misunderstanding,

- correcting mistakes,

- skipping in a controlled fashion,

- self-directed dialogue,

- questioning meaning of a clause, sentence, or word (McDonough, pp. 57-58).

Sarig's classification differed from the previous researchers' grouping; however, there are some common strategies identified as well as newly introduced ones. For example, identifying misunderstanding and correcting mistakes, skipping in a controlled fashion, questioning meaning of a clause, sentence, or word, deserting a hopeless utterance, using background knowledge, identifying key information, skimming, and scanning have also been emphasized by Barnett, Hosenfeld, or Block. This would seem to suggest that every new study in the field of reading strategies identifies new strategies used by learners besides confirming the validity and value of the previous ones.

As Cohen (1990) argues, despite the fact that there may not be ''inherently good reading strategies, there are a series of general strategies that do seem to come up time and again as strategies that have merit for readers in various texts under differing circumstances'' (p. 84). Cohen has drawn a list of such strategies from the work of Baker and Brown (1984a, 1984b) in L1 and Hosenfeld (1977, 1979, 1984), Hosenfeld et. al (1981) in foreign language:

- Clarifying their purpose for reading the material at hand: This helps the reader determine what kind of reading to use - skimming, receptive reading (trying to understand everything the writer presents), responsive reading

("using the author's material as a prompt for your own critical reflection") and so forth.

- Looking for how the reading material is organized: The reader can rapidly skim the text, take notes about the features in the text such as tables, figures, pictures, and subtitles or make an outline of the main parts. When used as a pre-reading strategy , it gives the reader a chance to have an idea where the text is going.

- Reading for meaning: This means activating one's background information, which is called *schemata* (Anderson and Pearson 1984, Carrell and Eisterhold 1983). This schemata might be about the readers' knowledge of a specific subject matter, their world knowledge or their knowledge of language. This kind of an approach to the reading text, that is top-down reading as discussed before, might help a reader who has poor bottom-up reading skills to make sense of a reading material.

- Focusing on major content: This means distinguishing important points from trivial ones.

- Parsimonious use of a dictionary: This strategy emphasizes the fact that readers should not overuse the dictionary because it diverts the reader's attention away from the reading text.

- Judicious use of context: Using contextual clues such as the ones in the grammatical context ("the occurrence of certain forms as context due to obligatory or optional grammatical relationships") and conceptual context ("contextual material based exclusively on meaningful - not grammatical-

ties) can help the readers to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases, thus reduce dictionary usage.

- Reading in broad phrases: This strategy encourages reading in chunks rather than reading word-for-word. This kind of reading enables readers to take in more information at a time and thus leads to better comprehension.

- Ongoing summaries: An ongoing summary in the form of thoughts, verbalizations or written notes every few lines helps the reader keep the meaning of already read information while continuing reading.

- Making predictions: According to Cohen (1990), trying to guess what will come next in the text might help the readers in a target language stay alert as well as lead to a continuous questioning. This kind of an approach can also encourage more and continuous interaction with the text.

- Looking for markers of cohesion: This strategy assists the reading process as the reader can make meaning out of the text by the help of a series of words and phrases that connect and relate the ideas in a written text.

Cohen states that if good readers understand that they have not been successful in getting the meaning, they usually take 'corrective action' by applying a combination of certain strategies.

Most of these strategies explained by Cohen appear in the lists of previous researchers. These are commonly used strategies by good language learners both in L1 and L2.

Research on Reading Strategy Instruction in Turkish Pre-university Education

Despite the fact that the plans are not as specific as the ones prepared for the English courses (see Appendix F), the curriculum for Turkish courses in secondary

and high schools (see Osam,1992) as determined by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey aims at developing reading skills and reading comprehension ; however, no current research evidence was found on what is being done in the classroom in terms of strategy instruction. Different institutions such as the Ministry of National Education, Talim Terbiye Dairesi Başkanlığı (a branch of the Ministry responsible from organizing the content of the courses), the State Institute of Planning (DPT), the Education Faculty of METU and METU secondary and high school were visited in search of some studies done with secondary and high school students. However, no research documents were available.

Tekin (1980, cited in Gündüz, 1987) argues that the eleven-year Turkish language education seems to fail to teach the required reading skills. In a study conducted with freshman students at different universities to measure reading comprehension proficiency, he found out that the students lacked the necessary skills to understand what they read in Turkish. The reason behind this might be the loaded program in the Turkish education system, which forces the students to depend on textbooks only, without having time and motivation to read on their own.

Osam (1992) discusses tasks designed to develop reading skills in the course books prepared for primary, secondary, and high schools in Turkey. She has found that these course books as well as the reading texts in them are dull and unattractive. She has also observed differences in authors' approaches to reading in course books written by different authors. While some writers provide pre-reading tasks to activate schemata, some others give only reading comprehension questions to be answered after reading. Moreover,these questions are mostly scanning and skimming type of questions. Osam concludes that questions that develop or encourage the use of

prediction, inferencing and interpretation skills should be included to a great extent from secondary school onwards.

In the light of such limited literature, this study set out to investigate the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and the reading strategy use of freshman students while reading in English at METU.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The aim of this study was to find the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and the reading strategy use of freshman students while reading in English at Middle East Technical University (METU). Data were collected from the students through a three-part questionnaire and think-aloud-protocols (TAPs). The first part of the questionnaire was designed to elicit information about the previous education of freshman students. The second part consisted of questions which investigated reading strategies encouraged in secondary and high school and the reading strategies used by the same students in reading English texts at university. The last part of the questionnaire was related to reading in English at university.

In the following sections of this chapter, subjects, materials, procedures and data analysis will be discussed in detail.

Subjects

This study was conducted at Middle East Technical University, the Department of Modern Languages which provides English courses to all students in various departments. The aim of these English courses is to enable students to follow lectures and read written materials effectively since METU is an English-medium university. As mentioned in Chapter 1, one of these English courses is English 102 (Eng.102), a continuation of English 101 (Eng.101), both of which are academic integrated reading and writing courses. After a proficiency exam, while some of the students take these two required first-year courses, others are exempted from one or both of them. Some students are required to study in preparatory school at the Department of Basic English, where they have a one-year intensive English programme. Students who

receive between 70 -74 out of 100 are exempted from Eng.101 and required to take Eng.102. Those who receive between 75 -79 are exempted from both Eng.101 and Eng.102.

The subjects for this study were chosen from among students who were exempted from both preparatory school and Eng.101 to enable the investigation of the relationship between their previous education and their strategy use at university. Students involved in the study were from private high schools or Anatolian High Schools, where instruction in mathematics and science courses is in English and students have English courses for about 8 hours a week They study at various departments at METU, such as international relationships, economics, management, mechanical engineering, environmental engineering, food engineering, civil engineering and chemistry.

Materials

Questionnaires

In this study, a three-part questionnaire, think-aloud-protocols, and reading texts were used. The questionnaires (see Appendix A) were administered in English as the students' language proficiency level was thought to be adequate. Part A of the questionnaire consisted of 1 open-ended and 14 structured questions. Structured questions included 1 yes/no, 1 multiple choice and 12 rating scale questions. Questions in part A were prepared to elicit information about subjects' secondary and high school education in terms of what they did in their Turkish and English courses. In this part, questions about reading in class, outside reading, course material, reading techniques, courses, motivation for reading and students' evaluation of themselves were asked. Items in part B were directed towards eliciting reading strategies students

were encouraged to use in secondary and high school as well as strategies they use at university while reading in English. The strategies investigated were the same for pre-university and university education categories.

Twenty-six strategies in Part B were divided into three categories: pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies. While-reading strategies were further divided into two: text-level and word-level. Students were required to use a 5-point Likert-type scale in each section. The questions were based on the questionnaires used by the following researchers in different studies on reading strategies:

- Barnett (1988), Questionnaire to Elicit Perceived Strategy Use,

- Oxford (1989, in Oxford, 1990), Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), version 7.0 (ESL/EFL),

- Carrell (1989), Metacognitive Questionnaire,

- Miholic (1994), Metacognitive Reading Awareness Inventory,

- Rusciolelli (1995), Reading Strategies Survey,

Having reviewed the studies on the strategies used by good readers, some of the items in the above questionnaires that were found to correspond with the commonly used strategies were chosen and modified, and some more strategies were added (see Chapter 2 for Cohen's (1990) list). Post-reading strategies were taken from Shih (1992) and Auerbach and Paxton (1997). Shih states that ''note-taking and summarizing are useful strategies for organizing and condensing information to be remembered . . .'' (p.306). Auerbach and Paxton refer to 'making an outline of the organization of the text' as an after-reading strategy. 'Drawing conclusions' and 'separating fact from opinion' were identified as critical reading by Jensen (1986,

cited in Dubin et. al ,1986). These were also included in the questionnaire used in this study as they are ''essential for academic students who must read a variety of writing styles for informational purposes'' (p.119).

In part C of the questionnaire, 6 items from part A were asked again , but this time they were related to reading in English at university.

Think-aloud protocols

Another material used in the study was the think-aloud-protocol which is one type of verbal reporting. In this method, subjects are required to verbalize ''everything they think and everything that occurs to them while performing the task, no matter how trivial it may seem'' (Hayes and Flower, 1980, cited in Seliger and Shohamy, 1989, p.169). Seliger and Shohamy state that rich data are reached through the think-aloud since '' it elicits information which is kept in short-term memory , and is thereby directly accessible for further processing and verbalization'' (1989, p.170). However, they also say that researchers attract attention to some problems encountered in verbal reporting and suggest that secondary data through questionnaires, for example, should be collected. Therefore, in this study both questionnaires and think-aloud-protocols were used to increase reliability.

Two reading texts were used in the TAPs. A two-paragraph text was used for the warm-up (see Appendix B). Given the level of the students, a longer text was used in the actual study (see Appendix C). Some parts of the text were taken out without destroying the coherence and unity in order to make it shorter. Both texts were taken from a text-book designed for advanced students (1995, Baker-Gonzalez and Blau, p. 123 warm-up text and pp.98-101 longer text).

Procedure

Questionnaires

Questionnaires were piloted with 6 students and they were revised according to

the feedback received from the students. Some parts were modified and more

questions were added to part B.

The purpose of the study was explained to colleagues who were teaching Eng.

102 and they were asked whether they would be willing to spare some time during

one of their class hours for the administration of the questionnaire. Most of them

consented. One week was allowed for the procedure. Each colleague gave the

questionnaires during their class hours. The questionnaires were administered to 61

students.

Think-aloud protocols

The aim of the TAPs was to determine what kinds of strategies were used by

the freshman students while reading in English. The candidates for the TAPs were

volunteers from colleagues' classes. These students were defined as extroverts and

good at verbalizing their ideas by their teachers. Eight students volunteered for the

study. TAPs were held with all of them. However, 6 of them were found to yield rich

data as these students were better than the other 2 in verbalizing their thoughts.

Therefore, the first 2 students were not included in the study. Furthermore, the

researcher believed that she felt more confident after the initial TAPs, thus were more

successful in conducting them.

A similar procedure to the one suggested by Seliger and Shohamy (1989, p.171)

was followed in the TAPs:

1.The aim of the study was explained and a preparatory think-aloud was held with a short text to allow practice for each participant. It was not possible to hold a meeting with each participant before the study as the students were not available. The warm-up and the TAP were done on the same day successively.

2. Subjects performed the TAPs individually at the researcher's office at METU after 17.30 to ensure a quiet place.

3. Each participant was given the same text and asked to verbalize their thoughts while reading the text. They were ''encouraged to point out any difficulties they encounter in comprehending the text . . . and to express verbally any confusion or uncertainty they experience when reading'' (p. 171).

4. Each session was held individually in L1. No time limit was given.

5. The protocols were tape recorded. There was as little intervention on the part of the researcher as possible.

Ericsson and Simon (1987, cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p.92) ''refer to the use of interviewer reminders throughout the data collection when the informant becomes silent or strays from talking about strategies''. During the TAPs in this study, students sometimes started to ''describe the content of the passage to which they have attended when thinking aloud instead of describing their thoughts while attending to the passage'', as mentioned by O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p.92). Therefore, comments such as 'Keep talking' and 'What are you thinking about?' were used to encourage them to continue describing their thoughts.

Another problem encountered was that one of the students stated that she read more slowly than she normally does in order to think what she was going to verbalize. This issue was also mentioned by Ericsson and Simon (1987) : ''rate of thinking has

to be slowed down to allow for the additional time required for verbalization of the thought" (p.51) (cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 97).

Data Analysis

Means, standard deviations and percentages were calculated for each item during the first stage of the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires. Percentages were chosen to display data in tables and discuss the results. Then, questions 4-15 in part A of the questionnaire were analyzed under seven categories, namely course material, reading in the classroom, reading outside the classroom, reading techniques, Turkish and English courses, motivation for reading, and students' perception of themselves as a reader (see Appendix G for the percentages of the responses to questions 1 and 2). Items in each category were discussed in relation to one another.

Part B of the questionnaire was analyzed in three categories: pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies. Percentages in each category were displayed in separate tables. Then, in the second stage, comparisons between secondary and high school, Turkish and English courses and pre-university level and university level were made.

In part C percentages for 5 questions were calculated (see Appendix G for the responses).

During the first stage of the analysis of the think-aloud protocols, tape-recorded protocol of each subject was transcribed and translated into English. Next, a coding scheme based on the 26 strategies asked in the part B of the questionnaire was formed. Then, each think-aloud protocol was read carefully several times; strategies identified according to the pre-determined coding scheme were underlined (see

Appendix H for a sample of an analyzed protocol). The data analyzed were organized into tables of 'strategy categories with samples', 'strategy profiles for each subject'(see Appendix D) and 'frequencies of the strategies used by the subjects'. In the final stage of the analysis, a comparison between think-aloud protocols and the results of the part B of the questionnaire was made. In the next chapter, data analysis and the results of the study will be discussed in detail.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Overview of the Study

This study investigated the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and reading strategy use of freshman students at Middle East Technical University (METU) while reading in English. The main research question in this study was as follows:

What is the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and reading strategy use of freshman students at METU while reading in English?

There were two sub-questions related to the main research question:

1. How do the freshman students at METU define their previous education in reading in secondary and high school in both their Turkish and English courses?

a. What do they report about their course books in general, about reading texts in them and about motivation for reading?

b. Do they report any training in reading strategies and any assignments to do outside reading?

2. How frequently were the freshman students at METU encouraged to use reading strategies in secondary and high school and how frequently do they use them in reading comprehension in English at university?

Data were collected through questionnaires and think-aloud protocols. Questionnaires were administered to 61 Turkish freshman students who were exempted from preparatory school at the Department of Basic English (DBE) and English 101, and who were taking English 102 for the first time. The questionnaire

consisted of three parts. Part A, which had 15 questions, was designed to get information about the students' educational background and reading practices in their Turkish and English courses in secondary and high school years. Part B of the questionnaire was composed of questions to obtain information about the reading strategies students were encouraged to use in their Turkish and English courses in secondary and high school years, in addition to the reading strategies they use as they read in English at university. In this part, which used a 5-point Likert type scale, there were 26 items divided into three categories: pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies. The while reading strategies were further divided into 'text-level' and 'word-level'. Part C included 6 questions which were also asked in part A, but this time as applied to reading in English at university.

Think-aloud protocols (TAPs) were held with 6 of the students (10 % of the students who took questionnaires) who filled in the questionnaires in order to elicit more information on what reading strategies freshman students use. Before the protocols, a warm-up session was held with the students individually to familiarize them with the TAP. A two-paragraph text was used in the warm-up and a longer text was used in the TAP.

Data Analysis Procedures

Analysis of Questionnaires

During the first stage of the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires, percentages were calculated for each item. Then, the items which aimed at getting similar kind of information were grouped. Seven categories were formed. Thus, questions 4-15 in part A of the questionnaire were analyzed under seven categories.

These categories are as follows:

- Course material

- Reading in the classroom

- Reading techniques

- Reading outside the classroom

- Motivation for reading

- Turkish and English courses

- Students' perception of themselves as a reader

Part B of the questionnaire was analyzed in three categories, namely pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies, as they were divided in the questionnaire. It was thought that this would make the discussion of the results easier. Then, comparisons between secondary and high school, Turkish and English courses and pre-university level and university level were made.

See Appendix G for the responses to the questions which were not displayed in this chapter.

<u>Analysis of Think-aloud Protocols</u>

During the first stage of the analysis of the think-aloud protocols, the tape-recorded protocol of each subject was transcribed and translated into English. Next, a coding scheme based on the strategies asked in the questionnaire was formed. Then, each think-aloud protocol was read carefully several times to identify the strategies in the pre-determined coding scheme. The codes were underlined and this data were then displayed in tables: 'strategy categories with samples', 'strategy profiles for each subject' (see Appendix D) and 'frequencies of the strategies used by the subjects'. In

the final stage of the analysis, a comparison between think-aloud protocols and the results of the part B of the questionnaire was made.

Results of the Study

Analysis of Questionnaire: Part A

As mentioned previously, part A was analyzed under seven categories. In the following section, tables for each category are displayed and significant findings are discussed in relation to one another.

Course Material

The two items in the first category, course material, aimed at eliciting information about what students think about their course books and whether they believe reading texts in the course books encouraged them to read more about the same topics outside the classroom. Table 1 shows the percentages of the responses given to these questions. Numbers on the left hand indicate the number of the item in the questionnaire.

Table 1

Percentage of Student Responses in Relation to Course Material   N=61

| | | Response Rate by Percentages | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Secondary School | | | | | High School | | | | |
Items Related to Course Material		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10.a quality of the content of the course books	(T)	6.6	37.7	29.5	21.3	4.9	10.0	25.0	41.7	18.3	5.0
	(E)	6.6	13.1	27.6	37.7	14.8	3.3	16.4	32.8	31.1	16.4
b. quality of the illustrations	(T)	16.9	37.3	25.5	10.1	10.2	20.3	45.8	23.7	6.8	3.4
	(E)	8.2	8.2	9.8	36.1	37.7	6.6	11.4	21.3	31.2	29.5
c. quality of the paper	(T)	18.0	24.5	19.3	21.1	14.0	14.0	29.9	19.3	22.8	14.0
	(E)	3.4	1.8	6.9	32.7	55.2	3.4	1.8	8.6	31.0	55.2
11. the role of texts in encouragement for more reading about the same topics	(T)	18.0	34.5	36.0	4.9	6.6	18.0	37.7	23.0	14.7	6.6
	(E)	23.0	19.6	42.6	11.5	3.3	23.0	27.8	27.9	18.0	3.3

Note. 1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, 5= always
T=Turkish course, E=English course, N=number of students

As is seen in Table 1, the quality of the content, illustrations and paper are reported to be better in English course books than in Turkish course books. The majority of the students (e.g. in secondary school, 52.5%) stated that their English course books were 'usually or always' interesting and/or attractive, whereas Turkish course books were claimed to be 'never or rarely' interesting and/or attractive by most of the students (e.g. in secondary school, 44.3%). However, it is interesting to note that students said that the texts in both Turkish and English course books 'never or rarely' (e.g. in high school, T=55.7% and E=50.8%) encouraged them to read more about the same topics outside the classroom. Putting it differently, although the students found the subjects of the texts interesting in their English courses, they did not attempt to read more outside the class. It could be due to the fact that they see reading in English only as a requirement for the course. Another reason may be that although English course books were more interesting in terms of the subjects of the texts compared to Turkish course books, they may not have been interesting enough on their own to encourage students to read more. In fact, when compared to other percentages under the categories, 'usually or always' for the items 'quality of the illustrations' (e.g. in secondary school, E=73.8%) and 'quality of the paper' (e.g. in secondary school, E=87.9%), the percentages under 'usually or always' for the item 'quality of the content of the course books' were lower (e.g. in secondary school, E=52.5 %).

Reading in the Classroom

The second category of analysis involved two items which asked about how

reading texts were studied in class.

Table 2

Percentage of Student Responses in Relation to Reading in the Classroom   N=61

		Response Rate by Percentages									
		Secondary School					High School				
Items Related to Reading in the Classroom		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. assignment of reading texts in course books as H.W.	(T)	6.7	20.0	15.0	30.0	28.3	15.0	20.2	16.7	33.3	15.0
	(E)	8.5	6.8	18.6	35.6	30.5	11.9	15.2	25.4	22.1	25.4
8. in-class reading and discussion of assigned reading texts	(T)	4.9	9.9	22.9	24.6	37.7	6.6	16.4	21.3	24.6	31.1
	(E)	6.7	6.6	21.7	23.3	41.7	6.7	10.0	18.3	28.3	36.7

Note: 1= never , 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, 5= always
T=Turkish course, E=English course
H.W.=Homework, N=number of students

As can be seen in Table 2, both in Turkish and English courses in secondary and

high school, most of the students (e.g. in secondary school, T=58.3% and E=66.1%)

stated that they were 'usually or always' assigned to read the texts in their course

books at home before they read and discussed them in class. Students were assigned

the texts as homework more in secondary school (e.g. E=66.1%) than in high school

(e.g. E=47.5%) in both courses. These texts were then, 'usually or always' read and

discussed with the teacher and the other classmates in class. Hence, the standard

practice seems to be encouraging students to read the texts in advance. The

preparation for reading and the reading process itself might have been subordinated to

checking comprehension. Some possible consequences of having students read texts at home can be less control on how the students read, more time spent on using the text as a means to study the structure and vocabulary of the language and less emphasis on the value of reading in itself.

Reading Techniques

Table 3 displays the results in the reading techniques category which includes items related to the instruction on reading techniques and transfer of reading techniques.

Table 3

Percentage of Students Responses in Relation to Reading Techniques   N=61

Items Related to Reading Techniques		Response Rate by Percentages									
		Secondary School					High School				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4.a. instruction on pre-reading techniques	(T)	17.2	29.4	27.5	20.7	5.2	21.2	20.9	31.6	17.5	8.8
	(E)	13.8	19.0	25.8	29.0	12.4	12.5	19.6	30.4	28.6	8.9
b. instruction on while-reading techniques	(T)	17.5	19.3	40.4	15.8	7.0	20.7	20.7	31.0	13.8	13.8
	(E)	10.5	19.3	28.1	33.3	8.8	10.3	25.9	24.1	32.8	6.9
c. instruction on post-reading techniques	(T)	28.6	28.5	17.9	17.9	7.1	30.9	23.7	18.1	16.4	10.9
	(E)	18.2	23.6	18.2	25.5	14.5	17.9	23.2	25.0	21.4	12.5
13. transfer of reading techniques from Turkish to English		25.0	28.3	30.0	11.7	5.0	26.7	21.6	20.0	26.7	5.0

Note: 1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, 5= always
T=Turkish course, E=English course, N=number of students

The majority of the students reported that they were 'usually or always' instructed on pre-reading (e.g. in secondary school 41.4%) and while-reading techniques (e.g. in secondary school 42.1%) in their English courses, whereas they were 'never or rarely' (e.g. in secondary school 46.6% and 36.8%) taught these

techniques in their Turkish courses. As for the instruction on post-reading techniques, both in Turkish and English courses, most of the students (e.g. in secondary school T=57.1% and E=41.8%) said that they were 'never or rarely' given such an instruction. However, for English courses, the number of students who said that they were 'usually or always' taught post-reading techniques was higher than those who responded in the same way for Turkish courses (e.g. in secondary school, E=40 % and T=25 %). In fact, the responses for pre-university education in the second part of the questionnaire revealed that students were encouraged to use pre-reading and while reading techniques also in their Turkish courses. The reason for this might be that students thought of some other techniques than they are presented with in the second part when they saw 'pre-reading' and 'while-reading' in the first part. The responses for instruction on post-reading techniques given here almost parallel to the results found in part B of the questionnaire in which the students were asked whether they were encouraged to use three post-reading strategies in secondary and high school.

The majority of the students (e.g. in secondary school 53.3%) reported that they were 'never or rarely' able to use the reading techniques they learned in Turkish while reading in English both in secondary and high school. However, the percentage of the students who claimed to use them 'usually or always' (31.7 %) in high school was higher than those who marked 'usually or always' under secondary school category (16.7%). Thus, it can be argued that on reaching a certain level of English proficiency in high school, some students were able to transfer reading techniques from the first language to the foreign language (see Carrell (1991) who cites

Macnamara 1970, Clarke 1979, Cummins 1979, Cziko 1980, and Devine 1987 for

research on transfer of reading strategies from L1 to L2).

Reading Outside the Classroom

Fourth category aimed at eliciting information on reading outside the classroom

through two items: assignment of reading material other than the course book and

practicing reading texts outside the class.

Table 4

Percentage of Students Responses in Relation to Outside Reading   N=61

| | | Response Rate by Percentages | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Secondary School | | | | | High School | | | | |
Items Related to Outside Reading		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. assignment of reading material other than the course book	(T)	1.7	33.3	28.3	21.7	15.0	15.3	37.2	23.8	13.5	10.2
	(E)	6.6	22.9	24.6	31.1	14.8	13.1	32.8	27.9	14.7	11.5
9. practicing reading texts outside the class	(T)	20.0	31.7	21.6	16.7	10.0	21.3	32.8	29.5	11.5	4.9
	(E)	18.6	23.8	28.8	20.3	8.5	20.0	23.3	26.7	23.3	6.7

Note. 1= never , 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, 5= always
T=Turkish course, E=English course, N=number of students

As can be seen in Table 4, the majority of the students (T=36.7% and E=45.9%)

reported that they were 'usually or always' assigned to read texts other than the ones

in their course books in secondary school, in both Turkish and English courses.

However, most of them stated that in high school, in both courses, they were 'never

or rarely' assigned such texts (T=52.5% and E=45.9%). As a matter of fact, in

secondary school in Turkish courses the percentages of the students who marked

'never or rarely' and those who marked 'usually or always' are almost the same (35%

and 36.7% respectively). This may mean that practices may have differed according to

the teachers' own methods or the schools' policies. In other words, a common procedure may not have been followed. In secondary school in English courses, 45.9% of the students stated that they were 'usually or always' assigned to do reading outside the classroom, but as can be seen from the table this did not continue in the high school.

In accordance with the results of item 5, the results in item 9 (see Table 4) reveal that the majority of the students (e.g. in high school T=54.1%) 'never or rarely' practiced reading texts outside the classroom. They were encouraged to do this only when they were assigned to read texts in their course books at home in advance. (The following three categories will not be displayed in tables as they include single items.)

<u>Motivation for Reading</u>

This category can be analyzed in relation to category four. In item 6, the majority of the students (in secondary school 58.3% and in high school 56.7%) reported that they liked reading , therefore read texts in Turkish other than the ones given as homework; however, most of the responses (37.7% in secondary school and 36.1% in high school) for this question were on the negative side as regards reading in English. If this question is analysed in relation to question 5 (see Table 4), it can be seen that students were not encouraged to read outside the classroom by being provided with a variety of reading materials. They liked reading in Turkish, but they were left on their own to choose the material they were going to read. Guidance provided by the teachers to assist them in discovering what kinds of topics they were interested in and what types of material they could read might have been limited.

Turkish and English Courses

As most of the students (e.g. in secondary school 37.7%) did not like reading in English both in secondary and high school, they did not read texts of their own choice and as there was not continuous encouragement to do extensive reading, the majority of the students (in secondary school 44.3% and in high school 50.0%) stated in item 14 that their English courses helped them 'a little' to develop a reading habit. In the same way, most of the students (in secondary school 50.9% and in high school 46.7%) reported that their Turkish courses did not help them much to develop a reading habit. Turkish courses had a little role in this, but students may have developed such a habit because they liked reading in Turkish and were self-motivated.

In item 12, the majority of the students said that both in secondary and high school, Turkish and English courses 'rarely or never' had similar aims in teaching how to read (48.3% in secondary school and 40% in high school).

Students' Perception of Themselves as a Reader

As for the students' perception of themselves as a reader as a result of their education in reading in Turkish and English courses , 47.6% considered themselves as 'moderate' and 42.6% as 'good'. The positive impact of training in and encouragement for the use of reading strategies in pre-university education, especially in high school (which are analysed in part B of the questionnaire) could be an explanation for these results.

Analysis of Questionnaire: Part B

In part B, the students were expected to state how frequently they were encouraged to use 26 reading strategies in secondary and high school in Turkish and English courses in addition to how frequently they use these strategies at university

while reading in English. Therefore, there are five categories in each item they are supposed to respond to. Discussions about significant findings of certain strategies are presented separately. Discussion of the results also include comparisons between categories (secondary school - Turkish courses and English courses, high school - Turkish courses and English courses, and university - English courses) in each item and comparisons between different items. The strategies are coded for the ease of presenting them in tables (see Appendix E for the coding scheme).

Pre-reading strategies

Table 5 displays the results of pre-reading strategies. (The numbers in the parentheses show the items in the questionnaires).

Table 5

Percentage of Student Responses in Relation to Reading Strategy Use   N=61

		Response Rate by Percentages														
		Secondary School					High School					University				
Strategy		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Pre-Reading																
WHY	(T)	25.4	15.3	32.2	15.2	11.9	15.3	18.6	16.9	32.3	16.9					
(1)	(E)	15.3	30.5	27.1	11.7	15.4	10.3	20.7	25.0	28.5	15.5	8.5	6.8	28.8	27.1	28.8
SBJ	(T)	23.6	20.3	35.6	20.3	10.2	8.5	11.8	39.0	28.8	11.9					
(2)	(E)	12.1	20.7	29.3	29.3	8.6	3.4	13.8	27.6	43.1	12.1	0.0	6.8	30.5	37.3	25.4
TTL	(T)	1.7	22.0	18.7	30.5	27.1	5.1	11.8	22.1	27.1	33.9					
(3)	(E)	3.4	20.3	20.4	27.1	28.8	5.1	10.2	25.4	27.1	32.2	3.3	11.7	20.0	26.7	38.3
ILL	(T)	10.2	10.1	20.4	25.4	33.9	8.5	15.2	13.6	32.2	40.7					
(4)	(E)	8.5	6.8	11.8	32.2	40.7	10.2	8.4	13.6	30.5	37.3	11.7	8.3	18.3	23.4	38.3

Note. 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Uually 5= Always, T=Turkish courses, E= English courses
        N=number of students

Thinking about why one is reading a text (WHY)

As is seen in Table 5, most of the students stated that in secondary school in Turkish and English courses they were 'never or rarely' (T= 40.7%, E=45.8 %) encouraged to use this strategy. However, they said that they were 'usually or always' encouraged to think about why they were reading a text in high school, both in Turkish and English courses (T=49.2 %, E=44 %). This reveals that instruction and use of this strategy was not emphasized in secondary school, while it gained importance in high school. The emphasis on the teaching of this strategy in high school had a positive impact on its use at university (55.9 % chose 'usually or always'). Yet, when compared to TTL (guessing the content from the title) and ILL (guessing the content from the illustrations), the two other pre-reading strategies, this strategy was emphasized less in pre-university education and fewer students use it 'usually or always' at university. The percentage of students who marked the categories 'usually or always' for pre-university education is higher in items TTL and ILL (around 60 % and 70 %). In the same way, the percentage under the categories 'usually or always' is higher at university.

SBJ (thinking about what one knows about the subject)

As can be seen in Table 5 the percentage of the students who reported that they were 'usually or always' encouraged to think about what they know about the subject of the text in high school, both in Turkish and English courses (high school, T =40.7% and high school, E=55.2%) is higher than those who were 'usually or always' encouraged to use this strategy in secondary school (secondary school, T=30.5 % and secondary school, E=37.9%).

It can also be seen (Table 5) that the focus on this strategy was more in English courses than in Turkish courses. The reason for this might be that before reading an English text students need to activate their schemata more as they may encounter unknown words in the text. They need to relate what they already know about the topic to the new information in the text in order to compensate for their lack of vocabulary knowledge or even to cope with difficult grammatical structures (Stanovich, 1980, cited in Nunan, 1990).

Parallel to the responses given for high school category, this strategy is 'usually or always' used by 62.7 % of the students at university. Similarly, especially in pre-university education, the number of students who stated that they were 'usually or always' encouraged to use this strategy is less than those who were 'usually or always' encouraged to use TTL (guessing the content from the title) and ILL (guessing the content from the illustrations).

While-reading strategies

Table 6 presents the responses to the while-reading strategies: text-level and word-level. Items which yielded significant results will be discussed.

Table 6

Percentage of Student Responses in Relation to Reading Strategy Use   N=61

		Response Rate by Percentages															
		Secondary School					High School					University				
Strategy		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
While Reading a. text-level																
SKM	(T)	22.0	22.1	23.7	22.0	10.2	16.9	22.1	15.2	28.9	16.9					
(5)	(E)	16.9	18.7	18.6	23.8	22.0	15.3	11.8	17.0	30.5	25.4	8.3	8.4	16.6	40.0	26.7
SCN	(T)	10.2	10.1	20.4	30.5	28.8	5.1	11.8	13.6	33.9	35.6					
(6)	(E)	11.9	10.1	17.0	35.6	25.4	8.5	8.4	18.7	33.9	30.5	5.0	5.0	18.3	30.0	41.7
SUM	(T)	23.7	33.9	22.1	8.4	11.9	23.7	28.8	15.3	15.3	16.9					
(7)	(E)	25.4	28.8	27.2	8.4	10.2	25.4	27.1	20.4	13.5	13.6	25.0	23.3	21.7	15.0	15.0
MNG	(T)	5.2	15.5	24.1	36.2	19.0	5.2	12.0	25.9	31.0	25.9					
(8)	(E)	1.7	10.4	18.9	38.0	31.0	0.0	6.9	13.8	39.6	39.7	0.0	6.8	13.5	33.9	45.8
RLT	(T)	1.8	17.5	29.8	31.6	19.3	3.5	15.8	19.3	36.8	24.6					
(15)	(E)	5.3	21.0	26.3	35.1	12.3	8.8	5.2	22.8	45.7	17.5	3.4	12.1	15.5	38.0	31.0
DFI	(T)	3.6	18.2	36.4	29.1	12.7	3.6	9.1	30.9	34.6	21.8					
(16)	(E)	3.6	18.2	47.3	21.8	9.1	3.6	9.1	32.8	40.0	14.5	1.8	14.3	19.6	39.3	25.0
UND	(T)	22.8	19.3	21.1	17.5	19.3	17.2	17.3	17.2	24.2	24.1					
(18)	(E)	19.3	17.5	21.1	26.3	15.8	17.5	15.8	19.3	21.1	26.3	13.6	13.5	13.6	25.4	33.9
NTS	(T)	23.2	26.8	25.0	10.7	14.3	22.8	19.3	22.8	21.1	14.0					
(19)	(E)	23.2	14.3	33.9	16.1	12.5	25.0	14.3	17.8	26.8	16.1	20.7	13.8	15.5	31.0	19.0
DRC	(T)	12.3	19.3	28.0	28.1	12.3	10.3	13.8	22.5	34.4	19.0					
(20)	(E)	10.5	17.6	33.3	29.8	8.8	10.5	14.1	32.2	27.3	15.8	8.5	10.1	18.7	39.0	23.7
QST	(T)	20.3	23.8	23.7	25.4	6.8	18.6	18.7	23.7	27.1	11.9					
(21)	(E)	10.5	24.6	33.3	22.8	8.8	10.3	20.7	25.9	27.6	15.5	8.6	17.3	17.2	31.0	25.9
GSN	(T)	6.8	30.5	20.3	30.5	11.9	10.2	18.6	20.4	33.9	16.9					
(22)	(E)	6.8	18.6	37.3	25.4	11.9	8.5	10.1	32.2	30.6	18.6	8.3	16.7	30.0	31.7	13.3
MSP	(T)	12.5	28.6	32.1	23.2	3.6	8.6	22.4	31.1	22.4	15.5					
(23)	(E)	12.5	21.4	46.5	17.8	1.8	8.9	17.9	33.9	26.8	12.5	5.3	12.2	31.6	31.6	19.3
While Reading b. Word-level																
RWD	(T)	10.3	20.7	15.6	20.6	32.8	10.5	14.1	15.8	24.5	35.1					
(9)	(E)	12.3	21.0	36.9	21.0	8.8	12.3	10.5	22.8	36.9	17.5	6.9	12.1	15.5	43.1	22.4
GWP	(T)	19.0	17.2	20.7	29.3	13.8	17.2	17.3	17.2	27.6	20.7					
(10)	(E)	3.4	17.3	31.0	32.8	15.5	1.7	8.6	19.0	51.7	19.0	1.7	15.2	13.6	42.4	27.1
CNR	(T)	3.4	20.7	17.3	34.5	24.1	3.4	10.4	19.0	39.6	27.6					
(11)	(E)	3.4	13.8	36.2	27.6	19.0	1.7	6.9	19.0	50.0	22.4	1.7	5.1	13.5	49.2	30.5
FCD	(T)	34.5	25.8	29.4	5.1	5.2	34.5	32.7	29.4	3.4	0.0					
(12)	(E)	17.2	27.6	27.6	19.0	8.6	22.4	29.3	36.2	12.1	0.0	22.0	33.9	32.2	8.5	3.4
GSC	(T)	8.6	10.4	29.3	29.3	22.4	3.4	6.9	20.7	39.7	29.3					
(13)	(E)	1.8	14.0	35.1	28.0	21.1	1.8	7.0	14.0	49.1	28.1	3.4	3.5	17.2	48.3	27.6
UEW	(T)	22.4	19.0	31.0	20.7	6.9	27.6	25.8	27.6	15.6	3.4					
(14)	(E)	8.6	19.0	46.5	17.3	8.6	17.2	38.0	25.8	13.8	5.2	30.5	25.4	27.2	10.1	6.8
LNK	(T)	10.7	23.2	34.0	21.4	10.7	12.5	16.1	30.3	26.8	14.3					
(17)	(E)	7.0	21.1	22.8	38.6	10.5	8.8	14.0	17.6	38.5	21.1	8.6	13.8	13.8	37.9	25.0

Note. 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Usually, 5=Always, T=Turkish courses, E=English courses
N=number of students

Making ongoing summaries while reading (SUM)

The majority of the students responded to this item under categories 'never or rarely' (percentages under these categories adding up to above 50) for secondary and high school both in Turkish and English courses(see Table 6). However, as is seen in the table, in high school more students (32.2% in Turkish course and 27.1% in English course) reported that they were 'usually or always' encouraged to make summaries while reading than in secondary school (T=20.3% and E=18.6%) . The results at university are parallel to the results obtained from high school category. This strategy is used 'never or rarely' by 48.3 % of the students and 30 % are 'usually or always' using it. These results reveal that this strategy was not given importance in pre-university education and thus it was not acquired as a commonly used strategy by the students.

Underlining important parts while reading (UND)

As opposed to summarizing while reading, underlining was 'usually or always' encouraged in pre-university education and as a result is 'usually or always' used at university (59.3 %) (see Table 6). However, the percentages are below 50, with some of the responses under the 'never or rarely' categories (around 30 %). Thus, it can be said that students were encouraged to prefer underlining rather than summarizing while reading. In other words, underlining might have been thought of as an alternative to summarizing. The percentages of the responses for 'usually or always' under the high school category (T=48.3 % and E=47.4%) were higher than those under secondary school (T=36.8% and E=42.1 %). Thus, this strategy, like summarizing, seems to have been encouraged more in high school despite the fact that

still a considerable number of students reported that they were 'never or rarely' encouraged (T=34.5%).

Taking notes in the margin while reading (NTS)

When the results of NTS, another similar kind of strategy, are examined (see Table 6), it can be seen that except for the high school in English course, most of the students responded under the categories 'never or rarely' (T=50 % in secondary school). However, students were encouraged more in high school (T=35.1% and E=42.9%) than in secondary school (T=25% and E=28.6%) in both courses. The encouragement was greater in English than in Turkish course. This encouragement in high school especially in English course (42.9 %) had a positive impact on university; majority of the students (50 %) stated that they 'usually or always' try to take notes about the important parts of the text in the margin. It can thus be concluded that the note-taking strategy started to be taught from high school onwards and this continued into university.

Asking questions to check understanding while reading (QST)

It can be seen in Table 6 that, like the WHY category (thinking about why one is reading a text), the instruction on this strategy also gained importance in high school and the results at university are parallel to high school (56.9% under 'usually or always'). It is also important that encouragement for the use of this strategy was more in English courses than in Turkish courses. In secondary school in English courses encouragement was greater compared to Turkish courses. Furthermore, in high school in English courses emphasis on this strategy increased. The reason for this might be that when the students are reading in a foreign language, they need to question more whether they have understood what they have read in order to decide

to go on reading. It is more likely that there might be a failure in understanding due to unknown vocabulary items and complex grammatical structures.

Guessing what will come next while reading (GSN)

Overall, this strategy seems to be 'usually or always' encouraged in both secondary and high school ,but it is found to have been emphasized more in high school than in secondary school both in Turkish and English courses. In addition, in English courses a stronger tendency towards 'usually or always' than in Turkish courses can be observed. The number of students who responded under 'never or rarely' is less in English courses (E=18.6% in high school) than those who marked those categories in Turkish courses (T=28.8% in high school). This might be a result of the necessity to use a top-down strategy in order to compensate for deficiencies in bottom-up skills while reading in English. Students reported that they 'usually or always' use this strategy at university (45%); however, when compared to other strategies, it is used by less students, that is, it is not a commonly used strategy.

Separating main ideas from supporting details (MSP)

In Turkish courses, this strategy was 'never or rarely' encouraged in secondary school, whereas it was 'usually or always' encouraged in high school. The results for the English courses are almost similar, especially for the high school ; however, it seems that in secondary school there was a tendency to encourage the use of this strategy, although the encouragement was less than in high school (46.5 % in secondary school under 'sometimes'). At university, again this strategy is 'usually or always' (50.9 %) used.

Reading without looking up every unfamiliar word in the dictionary (RWD)

Overall, the majority of the students reported that they were 'usually or always' encouraged to read a text without looking up every unfamiliar word in the dictionary (except for in secondary school in English courses). However, in secondary school, in English courses they were 'sometimes' encouraged to look them up. This might be due to the fact that because they did not know many vocabulary items, they were encouraged to consult a dictionary in order to acquire some essential vocabulary items.

Trying to understand every word (UEW)

Similar to RWD, for UEW students reported that they were 'never or rarely' encouraged to understand every word in the text in order to be able to understand the text, which means they were encouraged to get a general idea of the text. However, results reveal that in secondary school in English courses there was a tendency(46.5 % under 'sometimes') to focus on unknown vocabulary items, which may be due to the low-level language proficiency of the students At university students 'usually or always' use RWD (65.5 %) and 'never or rarely' use UEW, which are almost parallel to the results in pre-university education.

Post-reading strategies

Table 7 displays the responses given to the post-reading strategies.

Percentage of Student Responses in Relation to Reading Strategy Use   N=61

Strategy		Response Rate by Percentages														
		Secondary School					High School					University				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Post-reading																
OUT	(T)	49.2	30.5	11.8	5.1	3.4	47.5	23.7	17.0	6.7	5.1					
(24)	(E)	44.1	27.1	22.0	5.1	1.7	40.7	22.0	25.4	8.5	3.4	23.2	23.4	20.0	26.6	6.7
SMW	(T)	28.8	28.8	27.1	13.6	1.7	32.2	28.8	25.4	10.2	3.4					
(25)	(E)	27.1	23.7	27.2	18.6	3.4	28.8	27.1	27.2	11.5	5.4	25.0	31.7	20.0	13.3	10.0
NOT	(T)	19.0	25.8	25.9	15.5	13.8	19.0	20.7	15.5	27.6	17.2					
(26)	(E)	14.0	17.6	38.6	14.0	15.8	12.3	17.5	28.1	24.6	17.5	11.9	10.1	32.2	20.4	25.4

Note. 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Usually, 5=Always, T=Turkish courses, E=English courses
N=number of students

Among the three post-reading strategies (see Table 7), NOT(note-taking) was the most frequently used one. Except for in secondary school in Turkish courses, overall, the use of this strategy was encouraged 'usually or always', especially in high school. At university, most of the students use it 'usually or always' (45.8 %), which is in accordance with their encouragement in high school. As for OUT (making an outline of the organization of the text) and SMW (making a written summary), students stated that they were 'never or rarely' encouraged to use them; however, when the responses for these two post-reading strategies are compared, it can be seen that students were encouraged more to write a summary of the text than to make an outline after reading. At university, students use these strategies 'never or rarely'. As a result, it can be said that at university, students use note-taking more frequently than summarizing and outlining, which is a result of their high school training. It may be stated that they prefer this to the other two. They may be using these three post-reading strategies as alternatives to one another ; however, they use OUT (33% under 'usually or always') more than SMW (23.3 % under 'usually or always').

SKM (skimming first and then re-reading carefully), SCN (scanning), MNG (finding meaning relationships between sentences), RLT (relating new information to previous knowledge), DFI (distinguishing between facts and ideas), DRC (drawing conclusions), GWP (guessing the meaning by looking at word parts), CNR (continuing reading to find explanation), FCD (first consulting a dictionary), GSC (guessing from the context), and LNK (looking for linking words), strategies not discussed above, were all 'usually or always' encouraged in pre-university education. Parallel to this, the students stated that they use them 'usually or always' at university. In addition, encouragement for the use of these strategies increased in high school.

Another finding was strategies such as ILL (guessing the content from the illustrations), CNR, SBJ, NTS,OUT,SMW, SKM (skimming), MNG (finding meaning relationships between sentences), GWP (guessing by looking at word parts) and LNK (looking for linking words) were encouraged more in English courses than in Turkish courses.

Analysis of Think-aloud Protocols

The strategies that were used by the subjects in the think-aloud protocols can be seen in Table 8.

Table 8

Strategy Categories with Samples

Bold letters indicate subject verbalizations
and plain letters indicate segments of the
reading text

STRATEGY	SAMPLE
Pre-Reading	
Thinking about why I am reading a text (WHY)	NA
Thinking about what I know about the subject (SBJ)	İK: (Reads the title) **I thought about the topic.**
Reading the title and imagining what the text might be about (TTL)	AD: 'Understanding Gender Differences.' (Reads the title) **I don't know what 'gender' exactly means, but I think it is related to 'genes'. I guess I am going to read a medical text.**
Looking at illustrations (if there are any) and trying to guess how they relate to the text (ILL)	NA (There were no illustrations.)

While Reading

Text Based

First reading over the text quickly and then going back and reading it carefully (SKM)

NA

Reading a text quickly when I want to find specific information in the text (SCN)

NA

Making a summary of the sections I have read. (SUM)

ÖF: 'Some qualifications: Although there are some genuine gender differences in behaviour,...'
I've read about three differences. First, I want to look at them again. I can see them in the subtitles. The first two differences are further divided into 3. Okey.

Trying to find meaning relationships between the sentences in the text in order to understand difficult sentences (MNG)

YB: 'Second, there are gender differences in nonverbal communication. The evidence indicates that females are more sensitive than males to subtle nonverbal cues.'
When I read 'nonverbal communication', I can't immediately think of what it exactly means, but when I read the next sentence I can understand better.

Trying to relate new information in the text to what I already know about the topic (RLT)

İK: 'Second, males show an advantage on tests of mathematical ability.'
I remember what I learned in my psychology course. We read about gender differences. When I compare it with this text, I can see that they are different. We learned that there are no differences between sexes in mathematical ability, but there are only physical differences.

Trying to distinguish between facts and what the writer gives as his own idea (DFI)

NA

Underlining the parts that I think are important (UND)

NA

Trying to take notes about the important parts of the text in the margin (NTS)

NA

Trying to draw conclusions from what I have read (DRC)

NA

Asking myself questions to check whether I have understand what I have read and to decide to go on reading (QST)

ÖF: 'Moreover, these gender differences are rather small and they appear to be shrinking.'
I am thinking of whether I understood this paragraph. Yes, I think I have a general idea, except for the words 'verbal' and 'spatial'. I'll go on with the next paragraph

Trying to guess what will come next in the text (GSN)

ÖF: 'In the cognitive domain, several... reviews... reveal three... gender differences in mental abilities.'
Now, they are divided into categories. I think the author will explain them one by one.

Trying to separate main points from supporting details (MSP)

AK: ' Mountains of research, literally thousands of studies, exist on gender differences. It's diffucult to sort through this huge body of research, but... review articles summarize...
Here, in this part of the paragraph, I think that there is redundant information. It is unimportant. This is very common; the author repeats the same thing many times in different ways.

Word Level

Reading a text without looking up every unfamiliar word in the dictionary (RWD)

NA

Trying to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word by looking at word parts (GWP)

ÖF: 'If you are a woman, chances are your crying wasn't discouraged as gender-inappropriate.'
Courage means 'cesaret'. I think discourage means without courage, 'cesaretsizlik'.

Continuing reading and knowing that the meaning of the word might be clear further in the text when I am not able to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word (CNR)

ÖF: 'Investigators identified three key processes involved in the socialization of gender roles: operant conditioning, observational learning and self-socialization.'
I didn't understand 'operant'. I see that this is explained in the next paragraph, therefore I skip it and continue reading.

First consulting a dictionary if I see an unknown word in the text (FCD)

ÖF: 'Socialization is the acquisition of the norms and behaviours expected of people in a particular society.'
Here, I don't know the meanings of two words. I think it would be very nice to have a dictionary now.

Trying to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word by using the words around it (GSC)

ÖF: 'Many supposed gender differences, ..., have turned out to be more mythical than real.'
'Mythical' here is I think just the opposite of 'real'. What can all these differences be more than real? I think they are not based on facts.

Trying to understand every word in a text in order to be able to understand the text (UEW)

AK: 'In the cognitive domain, several independently conducted reviews of hundreds

of studies reveal three well-documented gender differences in mental abilities.'
What was the meaning of 'cognitive'? We learned the meaning of 'cognitive'. We learned it in social psychology. Anyway, I understand what this sentence means without understanding this word. I try not to focus on unfamiliar words. I usually do this while reading in English. (She does not use this strategy)

Looking for linking words such as , however, whereas, furthermore to help my understanding of the text (LNK)

ÖF: (He has difficulty in understanding the previous paragraph.)
I'll continue with the next paragraph....I think here what will be helpful is the sentence starting with 'to summarize'.

Post-Reading

Making an outline of the organization of the text (OUT)   NA

Making a written summary of the text (SMW)   NA

Taking notes about the parts of the text that I think are important (NOT)   NA

Note. NA= Not available
        İK, AK, YB, ÖF and AD are subject initials

Although some of the strategies, namely WHY, SKM, SCN, DFI, UND, NTS,

DRC, and NOT were reported to be 'usually or always' used at university, the

students did not use them during the TAPs. In effect, the use of these strategies

except for DFI, SKM, and DRC, might have been affected by the study itself. The

students might have thought it unnecessary to think about why they were reading. In

the same way, they might have not felt the need to scan the text. There was no need

for them to take notes or underline after reading as they were not supposed to

remember what they read. Another reason might be that knowing that they were

reading in order to participate in a study and they were expected to verbalize their

thoughts, the students might have not been able to read as they would have normally

done.

Figure 1 displays the type and frequency of the strategies used by each subject.

Type and Frequency of the Strategies Used by the Readers						
STRATEGIES	AD	AK	EE	İK	ÖF	YB
PRE-READING						
WHY	-	-	-	-	-	-
SBJ	-	-	-	1	-	-
TTL	1	-	-	-	-	-
ILL	-	-	-	-	-	-
WHILE READING						
Text-Level						
SKM	-	-	-	-	-	-
SCN	-	-	-	-	-	-
SUM	-	-	-	-	3	-
MNG	-	-	-	2	2	4
RLT	13	12	6	4	2	4
DFI	-	-	-	-	-	-
UND	-	-	-	-	-	-
NTS	-	-	-	-	-	-
DRC	-	-	-	-	-	-
QST	-	-	-	-	2	-
GSN	-	-	-	3	1	-
MSP	-	1	-	-	1	-
Word-Level						
RWD	-	-	-	-	-	-
GWP	-	-	-	-	2	1
CNR	-	2	-	2	3	3
FCD	-	-	-	-	1	-
GSC	-	-	-	-	10	6
UEW	-	-	-	-	-	-
LNK	-	-	-	-	2	-
POST READING						
OUT	-	-	-	-	-	-
SMW	-	-	-	-	-	-
NOT	-	-	-	-	-	-

Figure 1

As is seen from Figure 1, RLT (relating new information to previous knowledge), MNG, CNR (continuing reading to find explanation), and GSC (guessing an unknown word from the context) are the most commonly used strategies.

Figure 2 displays the percentages of strategy use at university. The percentages under the categories 'usually or always' are given.

Percentages of Strategy Use at University (usually or always)				
STRATEGIES	50 and Below (%)	50-60 (%)	60 - 70 (%)	70 and Above (%)
PRE-READING				
WHY		55.9		
SBJ			62.7	
TTL			65	
ILL			61.7	
WHILE READING				
Text-Level				
SKM			66.7	
SCN				71.7
SUM	30			
MNG				79.7
RLT			69	
DFI			64.3	
UND		59.3		
NTS		50		
DRC			62.7	
QST		56.9		
GSN	45			
MSP		50.9		
Word-Level				
RWD				
GWP				
CNR				79.7
FCD	11.9			
GSC				75.9
UEW	16.9			
LNK				
POST READING				
OUT	33.3			
SMW	23.3			
NOT	45.8			

Figure 2

As can be seen in Figure 2, all these four strategies were reported to be used 'usually or always' by a high percentage of students at university (RLT=69, MNG=79.7, CNR=79.7 and GSC=75.9 respectively). Ten other strategies, which were not used as frequently as RLT, MNG, CNR, AND GSC were also found in the think-aloud protocols. As a result, there seem to be a match between the results of the think-aloud protocols and questionnaire results related to use of reading strategies in English at university.

This chapter presented the results of the study and discussed them in relation to one another. Chapter 5 will discuss the results in the light of research questions.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between secondary and high school education in reading and the reading strategy use of freshman students at METU while reading in English. The main research question in this study was as follows:

What is the relationship between secondary and high school education in

reading and the reading strategy use of freshman students at METU?

There were two sub-questions related to the main research question:

1.How do freshman students at METU define their previous education in

reading in secondary and high school in both their Turkish and English courses?

a. What do they report about their course books in general, reading texts

in them and motivation for reading?

b. Do they report any training in reading strategies and any assignments to

do outside reading ?

2. How frequently were these students encouraged to use reading strategies in

secondary and high school, and how frequently do they use them while reading

in English at university?

Questionnaires and think-aloud protocols (TAPs) were the means used to obtain

data for this study. Questionnaires were administered to 61 first-year students from

various departments who were exempted from preparatory school and

English 101(Eng 101), for the purpose of getting an acccurate picture of the

relationship between previous education in reading and reading strategy use at

university. TAPs were held with 6 of these students, that is to say 10% of the population who took the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. Part A was designed to get information about the subjects' secondary and high school education related to reading both in their Turkish and English courses. In this part, there were questions about student's motivation for reading and perception of themselves as a reader, how reading was done in the classroom, whether extensive reading was a common practice, what the quality of the course books and the reading texts in them were, whether subjects were instructed on pre-, while, and post-reading techniques and they could transfer techniques from Turkish to English, and whether English and Turkish courses helped them develop a reading habit.

Part B of the questionnaire consisted of 26 statements about reading strategies. Subjects were asked to respond to them according to whether they were encouraged to use these strategies in secondary and high school in their Turkish and English courses as well as whether they use them now while they are reading in English at the university. Part C asked similar questions as in Part A, this time as they applied to reading in English at university.

The data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed by calculating the percentages first. Then, the results for each item were discussed in relation to one another. The TAPs which were held individually with each subject were tape recorded with the permission of the subjects, were transcribed verbatim and translated into English. The data were analyzed according to a predetermined coding scheme based on the 26 strategies in part B of the questionnaire.

This chapter presents a summary of the findings and a discussion of these findings in the light of research questions, together with pedagocical implications. The limitations of the study follow and implications for further research are discussed as a final step.

Summary of the Findings

Previous Education of Freshman Students at METU

Course Books, Reading Texts, Motivation for Reading

In order to answer the main research question, a discussion of the two sub-questions is necessary.

Although students stated that their English course books were more interesting and/or attractive than their Turkish course books in terms of the content, illustrations and paper, this did not motivate them to read more about the same topics in English outside the classroom. As opposed to the English course books, the Turkish course books were 'never or rarely' claimed to be interesting and/or attractive by most of the students. In addition, the texts in their Turkish course books 'never or rarely' encouraged them to read more about the same topics.

Another result which confirmed the previous findings for English courses was that students reported that they 'never or rarely' read texts in English other than the ones assigned as homework because they did not like reading in English. Furthermore, the majority of the students indicated that their English courses helped them 'a little' to develop a reading habit. In contrast to what the students stated about reading in English, the majority of the students said that they read in Turkish as they liked reading. Similar to what they said for English courses, the majority of the students indicated that their Turkish courses helped 'a little' in developing a reading habit.

Training in Reading Strategies and Assignments to Do Outside Reading

Still another finding was that the majority of the students were 'usually or always' instructed on pre-reading and while-reading techniques in their English courses, but were 'never or rarely' given such an instruction on post-reading techniques. Different from the responses for English courses, responses for Turkish courses about the instruction on pre- and while-reading techniques revealed that students were 'never or rarely' instructed on these reading techniques. In the same way, they were 'never or rarely' instructed on post-reading techniques.

In secondary school in English courses 45.9 % of the students stated that they were 'usually or always' assigned to do outside reading, but this did not continue in high school. Similarly, in secondary school in Turkish courses, they were assigned to read texts other than the ones in their course books, but in high school they were 'never or rarely' encouraged to do so.

Interestingly enough, 47.6 % of the students considered themselves as 'moderate' and 42.6 % as 'good' readers due to their education in reading in Turkish and English courses.

To conclude, as an answer to the first sub-question , it was found that practices related to reading in secondary and high school were not satisfactory except for English courses where results seem to be more on the positive side. In this particular study, it was found out that students liked reading in Turkish and were self-motivated. It is possible that other factors, such as encouragement by their families, might have played a role in their motivation for reading. There seem to be problems concerning teaching and encouraging reading in the Turkish education system. Thus, secondary

and high school education have a limited role in developing reading, as reported by the particular students in this study.

The answer to the second sub-question, which asked about the encouragement for strategy use in secondary and high school and the reading strategy use in reading in English at university, was provided by the responses to the questions in part B of the questionnaire.

Encouragement to Use Reading Strategies in Secondary and High School, and Reading Strategy Use at University

Some strategies were found to have been more encouraged in English courses than in Turkish courses. MNG (finding meaning relationships between sentences), CNR (continuing reading to find explanation), GWP (guessing by looking at word parts), SKM (skimming), LNK (looking for linking words), ILL (guessing by looking at the illustrtions), and NTS (taking notes after reading) were 'usually or always' encouraged in both courses, but percentages were higher in English courses.

Except for SMW(making a written summary after reading) and ILL (guessing from the illustrations), percentages were higher in high school than secondary school both in Turkish and English courses. In some of the strategies, the differences between percentages under 'usually or always' in secondary and high school were greater in English courses. This might be due to the fact that reading strategies were given more emphasis in high school as students were thought to have mastered the basic grammar of the language and acquired some essential vocabulary items (e.g. CNR/ high school 72.4 % and secondary school 46.6 %; GSC/ high school 77.2 % and secondary school 49.1 %; RWD/ high school 54.4 % and secondary school 29.8 % ; SBJ/ high school 55.2 % and secondary school 37.9 %).

Another finding related to the second research question was that some of the strategies were found to have been less frequently encouraged in secondary and high school. A summary of these strategies are presented below.

Making ongoing summaries while reading (SUM): This strategy was reported to have been 'never or rarely' encouraged and it is 'never or rarely' used at university (48.3 %).

Underlining important parts while reading (UND): It was 'usually or always' encouraged in pre-university education and is used at university (59.3 %). However, the percentages are below 50 in pre-university education.

Taking notes in the margin while reading (NTS): It was 'never or rarely' encouraged except in high school in English courses. At university, it is 'usually or always' used by the majority of the students (50 %).

Asking questions to check understanding (QST): It was encouraged 'never or rarely' in secondary school, but 'usually or always' in high school.

Guessing what will come next (GSN): In English courses there was a stronger tendency towards encouraging the use of this strategy 'usually or always' than in Turkish courses.

Separating main ideas from supporting details (MSP): In Turkish courses, in secondary school it was 'never or rarely' encouraged, but in high school it was 'usually or always' encouraged. In English courses in secondary school, there was a tendency to encourage it (46.5 % sometimes) although in high school there was more encouragement. At university, it is used 'usually or always' (50.9 %).

Reading without looking up every unfamiliar word (RWD): Only in secondary school in English courses, students were 'sometimes' encouraged to look the unknown

words up in the dictionary. They were 'usually or always' encouraged to read without looking up every unknown word in the dictionary. At university they 'usually or always' use this strategy.

Trying to understand every word (UEW): Only in secondary school in English courses, students were 'sometimes' (45.6 %) encouraged to understand every word. At university the majority of the students(55.9%) reported that they 'never or rarely' use this strategy.

Among the three post-reading strategies, note-taking (NOT) was the most frequently encouraged one. Summary writing (SMW) and outlining (OUT) were 'never or rarely' encouraged. The results are similar at university.

The Relationship between Secondary and High School Education in Reading and the Reading Strategy Use of Freshman Students at METU

General findings revealed that in most of the items responses for pre-university and university education were parallel, results for university education being closer to the ones in high school. Students reported that they were 'usually or always' encouraged to use reading strategies in secondary and high school, percentages for high school being higher. They said that they use the same strategies 'usually or always' while reading in English at university. With this particular group of students this encouragement has proved to have positive impact on their strategy use at university, although practices related to reading were not satisfactory in their secondary and high school education. Some other factors besides encouragement, such as these students' desire for reading in Turkish, could have played a role in this result. These deficiencies in the reading component of the Turkish education system could cause serious results with other students. As for the results of the TAPs, which

are important in that they support the findings of the questionnaires, RLT (relating new information to previous knowledge), MNG (finding meaning relationships between sentences), CNR (continuing reading to find explanation) and GSC (guessing an unknown word from the context) were found to be used 'usually or always' by a high percentage of students at university (RLT=69, MNG=79.7, CNR=79.7 and GSC=75.9 respectively). SBJ, TTL, SUM, QST, GSN, MSP, GWP, and LNK were also identified in the think-aloud protocols (see Appendix E for the coding scheme). As a result, there seem to be a match between the results of the think-aloud protocols and questionnaire results related to the use of reading strategies in English at university. Some other strategies were not available , most probably due to the nature of the TAPs (see Chapter 4 for a discussion of these strategies).

<div align="center">Limitations of the Study</div>

In this study, in order to elicit information about informants' previous education, questionnaires were administered to first-year university students. Therefore, the first limitation of the study was that the responses were limited to the subjects' perceptions of their previous education experience and how much they remembered. They answered the questions about their Turkish and English courses in secondary and high school from their own points of view. In addition, they may be evaluating their previous education differently now than they would have done in the past. Thus, in their responses to the questions about secondary and high school, they may not have reflected their previous education as they experienced it.

Another limitation was the small sample size. There were not many students who were both exempted from preparatory school at the Department of Basic English (DBE) and Eng. 101. Moreover, all of the students in this sample were not available

on the day when the questionnaire was administered. Consequently, the findings of the study may not be generalizable to all other similar contexts.

Another limitation was that the researcher was not present during the administration of the questionnaires which were administered in the same hour in different classrooms. Therefore, it was not possible for the researcher to be present during the administration of the questionnaires. Consequently, it was not possible for the researcher to give information about the questionnaire and provide further explanation about what the students were expected to do prior to the questionnaire administration.

Another limitation related to the questionnaire was its length. In each item students were supposed to give answers for 4 categories in part A and 5 categories in Part B. There were 15 items in Part A, 26 items in Part B and 6 items in Part C. Rich data were obtained from the questionnaires, but the length of the questionnaire could have decreased the reliability of it.

Still another limitation was encountered in the choice of the students for the think-aloud protocols and choice of the reading texts. Despite the fact that the students who volunteered for the study were described as extroverts and good at expressing their thoughts by their instructors, their English proficiency levels could not be determined, as they were not the students of the researcher herself. These volunteer stuents had all received between 70-74 in English proficiency exam given by the university. However, knowing that there could be differences among the students, a difficult reading text was not chosen. It was thought that if the text was found too difficult by some students, they would feel frustrated and discouraged; this would affect their performance. However, all of the students ,except for one, found the text

easy. The student who found the text somewhat difficult tried to use strategies to understand it and more strategies were recorded with this student. As a result, the text was below the level of the 5 of the students although it was taken from a course book designed for advanced students.

<div align="center">Implications for Further Research</div>

Future studies could include interviews with students about their previous education and interviews following the TAPs to elicit more information on what they have done during the TAPs. In this study, due to time constraints, the data obtained from the questionnaires administered to the students could not be supported by other data sources, such as information from school teachers and administrators. In similar kinds of further studies, interviews with school teachers and administrators could be held or questionnaires could be administered to them to triangulate the data. Another alternative could be to analyse the course books used in secondary and high schools.

In this study, 21 students were from private schools and 40 students were graduates of Anatolian High Schools which are state schools.The responses of these students were analysed together. In a further study, differences between education in state and private schools could be investigated.

The choice of the reading text for the TAPs could be easier if the students who would be chosen for the TAPs could be observed in the classroom. Then, students who are almost at the same level could be chosen and the reading text could be determined accordingly. Another suggestion might be that a variety of texts could be chosen to try with the subjects before the study. Thus, the researcher could determine the general proficiency level and then choose an appropriate reading text, a text which is not too easy and not too demanding, to be used in the TAPs,.

The questionnaire used in this study could be expanded to include questions that would elicit more information about reading strategy encouragement and instruction in secondary and high schools. The extent to which encouragement for use of reading strategies is given, how it is given and how students respond to it are important issues to be investigated. Moreover, whether there is a comprehensive approach in teaching reading involving also the content courses in schools could be another research topic. These kinds of studies should also be connected to university education as influence of pre-university education on university education is important. Such studies could lead to a cooperation between universities and secondary and high schools where reading strategy instruction is very crucial; secondary and high schools intend to prepare students for university education where they are required to read a lot of texts for various purposes. These students must know how to read effectively: which strategies to use, when and how to use them.

This study was a small-scale attempt to investigate the relationship between previous education in reading and reading strategy use of freshman students at METU. It is hoped that this study encourages further research and is used as a basis for various future studies.

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The Questionnaire

Dear Students,

I am an MA TEFL (Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language) student at Bilkent University. I am doing a research project on reading comprehension. The information you provide by filling in the following questionnaire will enable your instructors to help you more in learning a foreign language. There are no right or wrong answers and you will not be graded for your answers. Your responses will be kept confidential. Thank you for your cooperation in advance.

Ebru Bayol Şahin

PART A: Part A is designed to get information about **I.** your educational background and **II.** what you did in your **Turkish course(T)** and **English course(E)** in **secondary** and **high school** years.

I. Please answer the following questions by filling in the blanks and/or circling the appropriate choice for you.

1. First Name : _____ Last Name : _____

2. Age : _____ Sex : _____

3. Name of Secondary School: a. Private b. State
   _____

   Name of High School: a. Private b. State
   _____

4. Have you studied at METU preparatory school? a. Yes b. No

   Years: From _____ to _____

5. What was your proficiency exam grade? _____

6. Have you studied English 101? a. Yes b. No

7. What was your English 101 final grade or letter? _____

8. Are you a regular student? a. Yes b. No

9. Is this the first time you are taking English 102? a. Yes b. No

10. What is your current department? _____

II. Please answer the questions 1-3 by filling in the blanks or circling the appropriate choice for you.

1. Did you have a separate 'reading class'?

	Secondary School		**High School**	
a. **Turkish course**	a. Yes	b. No	a. Yes	b. No
b. **English course**	a. Yes	b. No	a. Yes	b. No

2. How many hours a week did you have a Turkish and an English class?

	Turkish	**English**
Secondary school	_____	_____
High School	_____	_____

3. What kind of materials were you assigned to read outside the classroom?

Turkish course:

Secondary school:_____

_____

_____

High school:_____

English course:

Secondary school:_____

High school :_____

In questions 4 - 15 , please circle the number which best describes what you did in your <u>Turkish(T)</u> and <u>English(E)</u> <u>courses</u> at <u>secondary</u> and <u>high school</u>. Use the following scale for questions 4 - 12:

1 Never   2 Rarely   3 Sometimes   4 Usually   5 Always

4. Were you taught certain reading techniques that are used

	Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)
a. before starting to read a text?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. while reading a text?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
c. after reading a text?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

5. How often were you assigned to do reading outside the classroom (reading material other than the course book) ?

	Sec. School	High School
a. **Turkish course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. **English course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

6. Did you read texts other than the ones given as homework because you liked reading?

	Sec. School	High School
a. **Turkish course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. **English course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

7. Were you assigned to read the texts in your course books at home before you studied them in the class?

	Sec. School	High School
a. **Turkish course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. **English course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

8. Did you read and discuss the texts assigned as homework together with your teacher and classmates in class?

	Sec. School	High School
a. **Turkish course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. **English course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

9. Did you practice reading texts outside the classroom on your own?

	Sec. School	High School
a. **Turkish course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. **English course**	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

10. Do you think that your course books were interesting and/or attractive in terms of

	Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)
a. the content (i.e. the subjects of the texts)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
b. illustrations (e.g. pictures, photos)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
c. paper quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

11. Do you think that the texts in your Turkish and English course books

	Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)
encouraged you to read more about the same topics outside the classroom?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

12. Do you think that your English course and Turkish course had similar aims in teaching how to read?

Secondary school	1	2	3	4	5
High school	1	2	3	4	5

13.. Were you able to use the reading techniques that you learned in Turkish while reading in English?

Secondary school	1	2	3	4	5
High school	1	2	3	4	5

14. Do you think that the Turkish and English courses helped you develop a reading habit?

	Turkish classes			English classes		
	No	A little	A great deal	No	A little	A great deal
Secondary school	1	2	3	1	2	3
High school	1	2	3	1	2	3

15. How would you evaluate yourself as a reader now as a result of your education in reading in the Turkish and English courses?

Poor	Moderate	Good
1	2	3

PART B: Part B is composed of questions to get information about the reading techniques you were encouraged to use in your **Turkish course**(T) and **English course**(E) in secondary and **high school** years in addition to what you do as you read in **English** at **university** (in your department courses , English course and on your own with the aim of getting information). Please circle the number that most closely explains your situation. Do **not** answer what you think you should do or what other people do. Use the following scale.

1 Never 2 Rarely 3 Sometimes 4 Usually 5 Always

a. Before reading:

1. thinking about why I am reading a text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

2. thinking about what I know about the subject

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

3. reading the title and imagining what the text might be about

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

4. looking at illustrations (if there are any) and trying to guess how they relate to the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

b. While Reading:

5. first reading over the text quickly and then going back and reading it carefully

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

6. reading a text quickly when I want to find specific information in the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

7. making a summary of the sections I have read

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

8. trying to find meaning relationships between the sentences in the text in order to understand difficult sentences

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

9. reading a text without looking up every unfamiliar word in the dictionary

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

10. trying to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word by looking at word parts (prefix, e.g. re-read suffix, e.g. write-er)

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

1 Never 2 Rarely 3 Sometimes 4 Usually 5 Always

11. continuing reading and knowing that the meaning of the word might be clear further in the text when I am not able to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

12. first consulting a dictionary if I see an unknown word in the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

13. trying to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word by using the words around it

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

14. trying to understand every word in a text in order to be able to understand the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

15. trying to relate new information in the text to what I already know about the topic

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

16. trying to distinguish between facts and what the writer gives as his own ideas

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

17. looking for linking words such as however, whereas, furthermore to help my understanding of the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

18. underlining the parts that I think are important

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

19. trying to take notes about the important parts of the text in the margin

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

20. trying to draw conclusions from what I have read

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

21. asking myself questions to check whether I have understood what I have read and to decide to go on reading

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

22. trying to guess what will come next in the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

23. trying to separate main points from supporting details

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

1 Never 2 Rarely 3 Sometimes 4 Usually 5 Always

c. After Reading:

24. making an outline of the organization of the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

25. making a written summary of the text

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

26. taking notes about the parts of the text that I think are important

Sec. School(T)	High School(T)	Sec. School(E)	High School(E)	University(E)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

PART C: Please answer the following questions related to the reading in your English course at university. Circle the number which best describes what you do. Use the following scale:

1 Never 2 Rarely 3 Sometimes 4 Usually 5 Always

1. How often are you assigned to do reading outside the classroom (reading material other than the course book) ?
1   2   3   4   5

2. Do you read texts other than the ones given as homework because you like reading?
1   2   3   4   5

3. Do you practice reading texts outside the classroom on your own?
1   2   3   4   5

4. Do you think that the texts in your English course book encourage you to read more about the same topics outside the classroom?
1   2   3   4   5

5. Do you think that your English course help you develop a reading habit?
1   2   3   4   5

6. What kind of materials are you assigned to read outside the classroom?_____
_____

Appendix B

Reading Text Used in the Warm-up for the TAPs

CULTURE
by Conrad Phillip Kottak

''Culture...is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (Tylor 1871/1958, p. 1). The crucial phrase here is "acquired by man as a member of society." Tylor's definition focuses on beliefs and behavior that people acquire not through biological heredity but by growing up in a particular society where they are exposed to a specific cultural tradition. Enculturation is the processes by which a child learns his or her culture.

Every person begins immediately, through a process of conscious and unconscious learning and interaction with others, to internalize, or incorporate, a cultural tradition through the process of enculturation. Sometimes culture is taught directly, as when parents tell their children to "say thank you" when someone gives them something or does them a favor.

Appendix C

Reading Text Used in the TAPs
By Wayne Weiten

UNDERSTANDING GENDER DIFFERENCES

Sex refers to the biologically based categories of female and male. In contrast, gender refers to culturally constructed distinctions between femininity and masculinity. Individuals are born female or male. However, they become feminine or masculine through complex developmental processes that take years to unfold. Gender stereotypes are widely held beliefs about females' and males' abilities, personality traits, and social behavior.

HOW DO THE SEXES DIFFER IN BEHAVIOR?

Gender differences are actual disparities between the sexes in typical behavior or average ability. Mountains of research, literally thousands of studies, exist on gender differences. It's difficult to sort through this huge body of research, but fortunately, many review articles on gender differences have been published in recent years. Review articles summarize and reconcile the findings of a large number of studies on a specific issue. What does this research show? Are the stereotypes of males and females accurate? For the most part, no. The research indicates that genuine behavioral differences do exist between the sexes, but they are far fewer in number than stereotypes suggest.

Cognitive Abilities   In the cognitive domain several independently conducted reviews of hundreds of studies reveal three well-documented gender differences in mental abilities (Hyde, 1981; Linn & Petersen, 1986; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). First, on the average, females perform somewhat better than males on tests of verbal ability. Second, males show an advantage on tests of mathematical ability. Third, males tend to score high in visual-spatial ability more often than females do. For all three of these cognitive abilities, the gap between males and females doesn't open up until early adolescence. Moreover, these gender differences are rather small, and they appear to be shrinking (Linn & Hyde, 1989).

Social Behavior   In regard to social behavior, research findings support the existence of three more gender differences. First, studies indicate that males tend to be more aggressive than females, both verbally and physically (Eagly, 1987; Hyde, 1986). This disparity shows up early in childhood. Its continuation into adulthood is supported by the fact that men account for a grossly disproportionate number of the violent crimes in our society (Kenrick, 1987). Second, there are gender differences in nonverbal communication. The evidence indicates that females are more sensitive than males to subtle nonverbal cues (Hall, 1984). Females also smile and gaze at others more than males do (Hall & Halberstadt, 1986). Third, two separate reviews conclude that gender differences occur in influenceability (Becker, 1986; Eagly & Carli,

1981) . That is, females appear to be slightly more susceptible to persuasion and conforming to group pressure than males are.

Some Qualifications Although there are some genuine gender differences in behavior, bear in mind that these are group differences that indicate nothing about individuals. Essentially, research results compare the "average man" with the "average woman." However, you are _ and every individual is _unique. The average female and male are ultimately figments (1)of our imagination. Furthermore, the genuine group differences noted are relatively small. To summarize, the behavioral differences between males and females are fewer and smaller than popular stereotypes suggest. Many supposed gender differences, including those in sociability, emotional reactivity, self-esteem, analytic ability, and dependence, have turned out to be more mythical than real (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974) .

ENVIRONMENTAL ORIGINS OF GENDER DIFFERENCES

Socialization is the acquisition of the norms and behaviors expected of people in a particular society. It includes all the efforts made by a society to ensure that its members learn to behave in a manner that's considered appropriate. The socialization process has traditionally included efforts to train children about gender roles. Gender roles are expectations about what is appropriate behavior for each sex. Investigators have identified three key processes involved in the socialization of gender roles: operant conditioning, observational learning, and self-socialization.

Operant Conditioning In part, gender roles are shaped by the power of reward and punishment _the key processes in operant conditioning. Parents, teachers, peers, and others often reinforce (usually with tacit approval) "gender appropriate" behavior and respond negatively to "gender inappropriate" behavior (Fagot, 1978). If you're a man, you might recall getting hurt as a young boy and being told that "men don't cry." If you succeeded in inhibiting your crying, you may have earned an approving smile or even something tangible like an ice cream cone. The reinforcement probably strengthened your tendency to "act like a man" and suppress emotional displays. If you're a woman, chances are your crying wasn't discouraged as gender inappropriate .

Studies suggest that parents may use punishment more than reward in socializing gender roles (O'Leary, 1977). Many parents take gender-appropriate behavior for granted and don't go out of their way to reward it. But they may react negatively to gender-inappropriate behavior. Thus, a ten~year-old boy who enjoys playing with dollhouses may elicit strong disapproval from his parents.

Observational Learning As a young girl did you imitate the behavior of your mother, your aunts, your older sister, and your female peers? As a young boy, did you imitate your father and other male role models? Such behaviors reflect observational learning, in which behavior is shaped by the observation of others' behavior and its consequences. In everyday language, observational learning results in imitation. Children

imitate both males and females, but most children tend to imitate same-sex role models more than opposite-sex role models (Perry & Bussey, 1979). Thus, imitation often leads young girls to play with dolls, dollhouses, and toy stoves. Young boys are more likely to tinker with toy trucks, miniature gas stations, or tool kits.

Self-Socialization Children themselves are active agents in their own gender role socialization. Several cognitive theories of gender-role development emphasize self-socialization (Bem, 1981; Kohlberg, 1966; Martin & Halverson, 1981). Self-socialization entails three steps. First, children learn to classify themselves as male or female and to recognize their sex as a permanent quality (around ages five to seven). Second, this self-categorization motivates them to value those characteristics and behaviors associated with their sex. Third, they strive to bring their behavior in line with what is considered gender-appropriate in their culture. In other words, children get involved in their own socialization, working diligently to discover the rules that are   supposed to govern their behavior.

(1) creations

Appendix D

Strategy Profile for Each Student

AK	
STRATEGY	SAMPLE
RLT	'In regard to social behaviour, research findings support the existence of three more gender differences. First, studies indicate that males tend to be more aggressive than females, both verbally and physically.' **Social behaviour. I remember that we've learned about this topic. Our instructor has given a very good example related to this: Males tend to be more aggressive.**
MSP	'Mountains of research, literally thousands of studies, exist on gender differences. It's difficult to sort through this huge body of research, but... review articles summarize...' **Here, in this part of the paragraph, I think that there is redundant information. It is unimportant. This is very common; the author repeats the same thing many times in different ways.**
CNR	'Third, two separate reviews conclude that gender differences occur in influenceability.' **I don't know the meaning of influenceability. While I am reading, if I come across an unknown word, I read the next sentence, thinking that two sentences are related.**

Figure 3

IK	
STRATEGY	SAMPLE
MNG	ʿSex refers to the biologically based categories….In contrast, gender refers to culturally…ʾ **Here, I tried to find the relationship between 'sex' and 'gender'. Here, it gives the definition of gender.**
GSN	ʿAlthough there are some genuine gender differences in behaviour, bear in mind that these are group differences that indicate nothing about individuals.ʾ **It is said that these don't affect individuals much, that is they are not exactly true or I guess this will be told.**
RLT	ʿSecond, males show an advantage on tests of the mathematical ability.ʾ **I remember what I learned in my psychology course. We read about gender differences. When I compare it with this text, I can see that they are different. We learned that there are no differences between sexes in mathematical ability, but there are only physical differences.**
CNR	ʿSocialization is the acquisition of the norms…It includes all the efforts…The socialization process has traditionally included efforts to train children about gender roles.ʾ **I don't know the meaning of 'acquisition'. I understood what socialization is by the help of the second sentence. But I didn't concentrate on 'acquisition' at all.**
SBJ	(Reads the title) **I thought about the topic.**

Figure 4

YB	
STRATEGY	SAMPLE
GSC	'In contrast, gender refers to culturally constructed distinctions between femininity and masculinity.' **I didn't understand what femininity exactly means. (Rereads) Hm, here masculinity is related to men, so I think femininity is something got to do with women.**
RLT	'Cognitive Abilities' **Cognitive. I remember cognitive dissonance. We read about it in our psychology course in the first term. I associated it with cognitive.**
MNG	'Social Behaviour' **Here, I immediately thought of the relationship between social behaviour and cognitive, because social follows cognitive. Its social aspect and the other aspect.**
CNR	'Gender stereotypes are widely held beliefs about females' and males' abilities, personality traits and social behaviour....(In the second paragraph) Gender differences are actual disparities between the sexes...(In the third paragraph) Are the stereotypes of males and females accurate? **(She reads the sentence, but does not say anything). I'll go on with the next paragraph. (She reads the next two paragraphs quickly.) Actual disparities. Ih, here stereotypes mean differences I think.**
GWP	'...working diligently to discover the rules that are supposed to govern their behaviour.' **I associated 'govern' with 'government'.**

Figure 5

ÖF	
STRATEGY	SAMPLE
GSC	'Gender differences are actual disparities between the sexes in typical behaviour or average ability.' **Actual disparities? I don't know the meaning of disparities. I think it means differences. Here 'gender' refers to 'actual' and 'differences' refer to 'disparities'.**
MNG	'The evidence indicates that females are more sensitive than males to subtle nonverbal cues. Females also smile and gaze at others more than males do.' **'Cues' means 'clues' I think, but, it is irrelevant here. I'll continue with the next sentence. 'Females smile more than males do.' I think this sentence supports the previous sentence, that is the sentence which says females are better in 'nonverbal' than males.**
SUM	**I want to look at what I have learned generally from the beginning. Yes, I see that gender differences have been divided into 3. Then, I look at what has been acquired from the environment; they have also 3 categories. That's all. Actually, I only remember what I have read recently, the last part.**
LNK	'In other words, children get involved in their…' **In other words. I think the author will summarize here. I will understand better.**
QST	'Moreover, these gender differences are rather small and they appear to be shrinking.' **I am thinking of whether I understood this paragraph. Yes, I think I have a general idea, except for the words 'verbal' and 'spatial'. I'll go on with the next paragraph.**
RLT	'But they may react negatively to gender inappropriate behaviour.' **For example, when boys play with the toys that girls are supposed to play, their family reacts negatively to this.**
GSN	'In the cognitive domain, several…reviews…reveal three… gender differences in mental abilities.' **Now, they are divided into categories. I think the author will explain them one by one.**
MSP	'The reinforcement probably strengthened your tendency to 'act like a man' and suppress emotional displays.' **I didn't understand reinforcement. Anyway, I'll continue with the next sentence because I think that this sentence is not very important. In this sentence the author again talks about things like behaving like a man.**
GWP	**'Courage' means 'cesaret'. I think 'discourage' means 'without courage', cesaretsizlik..**
FCD	'Socialization is the acquisition of the norms and behaviours…' **Here, I don't know the meanings of two words. It would be very nice to have a dictionary now.**
CNR	'If you succeeded in inhibiting your crying, you may have earned an approving smile…' **I don't know what 'inhibit' means. I will continue reading to understand it.**

Figure 6

AD	
STRATEGY	SAMPLES
TTL	'Understanding Gender Differences' (Reads the title) I don't know what 'gender' exactly means, but I think it is something related to 'genes'. I guess I am going to read a medical text.
RLT	'It (socialization) includes all the efforts made by a society to ensure that its members learn to behave in a manner that's considered appropriate.' Here socialization is explained in a different way. As far as I've learned, socialization is the effort spent by an individual in order to adapt to the society, but here just the opposite is given.

Figure 7

EE	
STRATEGY	SAMPLES
RLT	1- 'Young boys are more likely to tinker with toy trucks, miniature gas stations, or tool kits.' **This is similar to the argument that there are certain jobs which only males can do. Boys play with the toys related to these jobs.** 2- 'Children imitate both males and females, but most children tend to imitate same sex role models more than opposite sex role models.' **Girls imitate mothers and boys imitate fathers. Boys usually don't imitate their mothers. I think they don't feel close to the mothers.**

Figure 8

Appendix E

Coding Scheme for 26 Reading Strategies

Before reading:

1. WHY (thinking about why one is reading a text)
2. SBJ   (thinking about what one knows about the subject)
3. TTL   (guessing from the title)
4. ILL   (guessing from the illustrations)

While reading:

5. SKM (skimming first and reading again carefully)
6. SCN (scanning)
7. SUM (making ongoing summaries)
8. MNG (finding meaning relationships between sentences)
9. RWD (reading without looking up every unfamiliar word)
10. GWP (guessing by looking at word parts)
11. CNR (continuing reading to find explanation)
12. FCD   (first consulting dictionary)
13. GSC (guessing from the context)
14. UEW (trying to understand every word)
15. RLT   (relating new information to previous knowledge)
16. DFI (distinguishing between facts and ideas)
17. LNK (looking for linking words)
18. UND (underlining important parts)
19. NTS (taking notes in the margin)
20. DRC(drawing conclusions)
21. QST (asking questions to check understanding)
22. GSN (guessing what will come next)
23. MSP (separating main ideas from supporting details)

After reading:

24. OUT (making an outline of the organization of the text)
25. SMW (making a written summary)
26. NOT (taking notes)

Appendix F

Program Related to Teaching Reading in English Courses in Anatolian High Schools

(Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim ve Terbiye Dairesi Başkanlığı'nın Anadolu Liseleri İngilizce Eğitim Programının Okuma Öğretimine İlişkin 13.08.1984 Tarih ve 2170 Sayılı Tebliğler Dergisi'nde Yayınlanmış Kararı)

Σ. Okuma Öğretimi :

Okuma, edinilmesi gereken dört temel dil becerisinden biridir.

1. Okuma Öğretiminde Amaçlar ⊙

    a. Okuduğunu anlama,

    b. Yazarın görüşünü anlama,

    c. Bilmediği kelimeleri sözlüğe bakmaksızın konunun bütünü içinde anlama,

    d. Okumayı zevk ve alışkanlık olarak benimseme,

    e. Metnin değişik bölümleri arasındaki bağlantıyı kurma,

    f. Okuduğuna kendi yorumunu getirme,

    g. İleri aşamada da özü daha süratle anlama,
    yeteneğini geliştirmektir.

2. Okuma becerisini geliştirmek için yapılacak çalışmalar şu üç grupta düşünülebilir :

    a. Okuma öncesi etkinlikler (pre-reading activities) : Konuyla ilgili bir ön konuşma yapılır.

    Öğrencilerden,

    1. Verilen bir başlığa göre parçanın içeriğini kestirme (predicting),

    2. Verilen başlık, resim veya şekil ile muhteva arasında ilişki kurma,

    3. Verilen konuyla ilgili kelime bilgisinin kazandırılması için soru cevap tekniği kullanma,

    vb. çalışmalar istenir.

    b. Okuma sırasındaki etkinlikler (activities during reading):

    1. Genel anlamayı sağlamak için genel nitelikte ve yeterli sayıda soru tahtaya yazılır veya dikte ettirilir. Öğrencilerden konuyu okuduktan sonra cevap vermeleri istenir (skimming).

    2. Öğrencilerden, okudukları parçada geçen kelimelerin anlamlarını, metindeki ipuçlarını değerlendirerek tahmin etmeleri istenir. Öğrenciler gerekirse emin olmak için sözlükten yararlanabilirler.

    3. İleri düzeyde, metinde geçen ve anlama katkısı olan, yapı ve sanatla ilgili (structural and rhetorical) özelliklerin bulunması istenir.

    4. Öğrencilerden önemli gördükleri kelime gruplarının veya cümlelerin altını çizmeleri (underlining) ve okunan metindeki önemli noktaları not almaları (note-taking); sonrada gerekirse bu notları düzenlemeleri (note-making) istenir.

    5. Bir metinde anlaşılması güç cümlelerde geçen şahıs zamirlerinin hangi ismin yerine kullanıldığının (reference signals) bulunması istenir.

c. Okuma sonrası etkinlikler (post-reading)activities) :
1. Ayrıntılı anlama (scanning) : Öğrencinin okuduğu metinle ilgili ayrıntılı sorulara cevap vermesi istenir. Bunun içinde"evet-hayır", sonra, "yanlış-doğru" şeklinde cevap alınabilecek basit sorulardan başlanır. Konuyla ilgili olarak olayın nerede, ne zaman ve nasıl olduğunu belirleyen açıklayıcı cevaplar almaya yönelik sorular; daha sonra da yargıya ve yoruma dayalı sorular sorulur.

2. Öğrencilerin, metinde geçen anlaşılması güç ifadeleri yazılı veya sözlü olarak kendi ifadeleriyle açıklamaları, istenir. (paraphrasing).

3. Okunan metnin anafikrinin (main idea), ileri düzeyde de anafikri destekleyen yardımcı fikirlerin (supporting ideas) bulunması, istenir.

4. Öğrencilerin okunan metni öz ve şematik olarak ifade etmeleri istenir. (diagramming),

5. İleri düzeyde, öğrencilerin okudukları metnin giriş, gelişme, sonuç (hikâye vb. yazılarda serim, düğüm, sonuç) bölümlerini bulmaları (outlining) istenir.

6. Okunan metnin, öğrencilerin kendi cümleleriyle sözlü veya yazılı olarak özetlenmesi (summarizing) istenir.

3. Okuma iki sebeple yapılır :

a. Zevk için okuma (reading for pleasure) : Dergi, gazete, tatil broşürleri, arkadaş mektupları; roman, oyun, şiir gibi edebî metinler kullanılarak,

b. Bilgi için okuma (reading for information) : çalışma sırasında, sözlük, kitap, index, bibliyograya, kitaplık katalogları, şema, grafik ve şekiller; iş hayatıyla ilgili rapor, makale, ilân, reklâm, iş mektupları, prospektüsler, sözleşmeler; günlük hayatla ilgili ilân ve tabelalar, otobüs, tren tarifeleri, yer, yol, sokak levhaları, gazete başlıkları, fotoğraf altı yazıları vb. kullanılarak,

4. Okuma uygulaması, başlangıç devresinde, sesli okuma (reading aloud) olarak yapılırken, orta ve ileri devrelerde sessiz okumaya (silent reading) geçilir.

a. Sesli okuma, sözlü bir alıştırma olduğundan tonlama ve telâffuz çalışmalarında yararlıdır. Öğrenci, dilin söylenen ve yazılan şekillerini de bu yolla ayırt edebilir. Sesli okuma alıştırmalarında yalnızca kısa pasajlar kullanılmalıdır.

Sesli okuma daha çok sınıfiçi okuma (intensive reading) çalışmalarında yapılır. Başlangıç ve orta düzeylerde, okuma çalışmalarında amaç daha çok temel dil kalıplarını ve kelimeleri yazılış biçimleriyle tanımak ve bunların kullanışlarını görmektir.

b. Sessiz okuma, anlama yeteneğini geliştirmek içindir. Bu yeteneğin geliştirilmesi öğrenciye okul sonrası çalışmalarında da yarar sağlayacaktır. Sessiz okuma çalışmalarında, sesli okumaya göre daha uzun parçalar kullanılabilir.

Sessiz okuma, zevk veya bilgi almak için yapıldığından daha çok sınıf dışındaki okuma çalışmalarında (extensive reading) uygulanır. Bu uygulamada ayrıntıdan çok, genel anlamayı gerektiren süretli okumaya yer verilir.

Appendix G

Percentages of Responses to Questions 1 and 2 in Part A and Questions 1-5 in Part C

of the Questionnaire

Percentages of Responses to Questions 1 and 2

1. Did you have a separate 'reading class'?

	Secondary School	**High School**
a. **Turkish course**	a. Yes b. No 46.6 53.6	a. Yes b. No 24.6 75.4
b. **English course**	a. Yes b. No 63.6 36.4	a. Yes b. No 67.2 32.8

2. How many hours a week did you have a Turkish and an English class?

Most of the students stated that they had Turkish courses about 4 hours a week and

English courses about 8 hours a week.

Percentages of Responses to Questions 1-5 in Part C of the Questionnaire

PART C: Please answer the following questions related to the reading in your **English course** at **university**. Circle the number which best describes what you do. Use the following scale:

1 Never   2 Rarely   3 Sometimes   4 Usually   5 Always

1. How often are you assigned to do reading outside the classroom (reading material other than the course book) ?

1	2	3	4	5
33.3	**22.8**	**28.1**	**14.0**	**1.8**

2. Do you read texts other than the ones given as homework because you like reading?

1	2	3	4	5
14.0	**21.1**	**40.3**	**17.6**	**7.0**

3. Do you practice reading texts outside the classroom on your own?

1	2	3	4	5
17.5	**38.6**	**28.1**	**12.3**	**3.5**

4. Do you think that the texts in your English course book encourage you to read more about the same topics outside the classroom?

1	2	3	4	5
19.3	**40.3**	**28.1**	**10.5**	**1.8**

5. Do you think that your English course help you develop a reading habit?

1	2	3	4	5
8.8	**24.5**	**31.6**	**28.1**	**7.0**

Appendix H

A Sample Think-aloud Protocol Transcript in Turkish

(Bold letters indicate that the subject used English while verbalizing her thoughts.)

''Burda, en başta çok bilinen bir şeyden, biyolojik yönünden falan bahsetmiş galiba. Ama bir de pek fazle akla gelmeyen kültür gibi bir şeyinden bahsetmiş galiba. Orda **femininity**'i tam anlamadım (rereads). Hım, burda, **masculinity** erkekle ilgili, bu yüzden herhalde **femininity** kadınla ilgili bir şey. Bu galiba şey, kız erkek olarak doğuyor da ona ait özellikleri alması yıllar süren bir şeyle oluyor. **Gender stereotypes**. Diğerine geçtim. **Disparities**'i anlayamadım (rereads). **Disparities** burda farklılıklar mı oluyor? Belirgin farklı özellikler. Tamam, bir sürü çalışmalar yapılıyor. Gelişmeler oluyor. Burda bu paragrafı anladım da şu **disparities**'den emin olamadığım için ilk şey tam kafama oturmadı gibi. **Actual disparities.** Hı, burda **stereotypes** farklılıklar oluyor galiba. Onlar çok mu belirgin diye mi söyledi? **For the most part,** ha, evet. **The research indicates that.** Hı, başka bir şey mi? Bu **stereotypes**, biyolojik şey dışındaki şeyler mi, genel kız erkek arasındaki. Onların davranışları arasındaki farklılık. Fiziksel özellikler dışındaki. Toplumdaki genel inanış mı? Kadın şöyle davranır, erkek şöyle davranır gibi. **Cognitive domain.** Burda yapılan çalışmalar sonucu bulduklarını söylüyorlar. İşte, kadınların **verbal ability**'de daha **better** olduklarını, hı hı erkekler **mathematical ability**'de iyi. Genelde anladım da **stereotype** tam oturmadığı için bu paragraftan emin değilim. **Cognitive** şey mi? Deney sonucu ulaşılan bir şey mi? **Cognitive, cognitive dissonance** vardı. İlk dönem psikoloji dersinde almıştım, ordan çağrışım yaptı. Yanlış hatırlıyor olabilirim. Akılcı mı demekti yoksa? Akla uygun bir şey miydi? Yani, böyle, varsayımlarla bulunmamış

birşey. **Social behaviour**. Burda da şimdi **cognitive** ile olan bağlantısını düşündüm

birden. **Cognitive**'den sonra **social**'a geçtiğine göre. Sosyal yönü, bir de diğer yönü. 3

tane daha var. Burda erkeklerin daha **aggressive** olduğunu söylüyor. **Disparity**.

Disparity shows up in early childhood. Özellik gibi, erkeklerde olan farklılık gibi

birşey diye düşündüm. Erkeklerin bu şiddet şeylerine daha çok yol açtığını söylüyor.

Nonverbal comunication dediğinde direkt ne diyor diye kafamda tam bir şey

oluşturamıyorum da diğer cümleyi de okuyunca daha çok şey oluşuyor kafamda. Hı,

burda başka bir şeye geçti. Kadınlar daha çok gülüyor erkeklerden. Burda **subtle**'ı

oturtamadım. **Subtle**'ı İngilizce 102'de görmüştük ama. **Subtlety**'di hatta.

Influencability etkilemekti başkalarını. Hı, burda kadınların ikna yeteneği daha fazla

diyor galiba. Ya da grup üstünde erkeklerden daha çok baskı, erkeklerden daha çok

söz geçirebiliyorlar gibi bir şey. Diğerine geçtim. Burda **genuine** galiba. Bunu bir daha

okuyacağım. **Although**. Ha, **genuine** burda ortak galiba. Yani genel olarak herkesde

görülen farklılıklar var da bunlar teker teker insanların özelliği diye söylenemez diyor

galiba. **To summarize**. Gene **stereotypes**. Burda **stereotype** bir meslek gibi bir şey

mi? Onu görünce başa dönüp tekrar **stereotypes**'ın tanımına baktım. Çok kafamı

karıştırdı. Çünkü 'popular stereotypes state' diyor. Her okuduğumda **stereotype**'ı

farklı bir şey düşünüyorum. Böyle, bir kelimeyi anlamadığımda gözüm takılıyor, ama

devam ediyorum anlayabilir miyim diye. Bir defa daha okudum. Ondan sonraki

cümleyi anladım, **it includes all the efforts**. Burda **operant conditioning** tam, hı hı

operant conditioning diğerlerine göre tabii anlayamadığım için hemen geçtim.

Sadece **acquisition**'ı tam çıkartamadım. Burda sosyalleşme galiba belli bir toplum

içinde insanlardan beklenen kurallar ve davranışlar gibi bir şey. **Gender roles** da işte

farklı cinsiyetler için uygun olan davranışlar. Cümlenin tümünden anladığım

kadarıyla,**operant conditioning** galiba ceza ve ödül sonucunda bir davranışı

oturtmaya çalışmak. **Men don't cry.** Evet. Hı hı , evet, bu daha önce de bildik bir şey.

Operant conditioning'ı anladım. Bildiğim bir örnek verince kafamda daha iyi oturdu.

Parents'ın yaptığı (rereads). Ha, bir daha okuduğum zaman anladım. Burda galiba

aileler, ee, mesela ödül verecekleri zaman pek fazla üstünde durmuyorlar ama ceza

gerektiren bir davranışta daha fazla tepki veriyorlar. Ha, yok , bir dakika. Anladığım

gibi değil galiba (rereads). Aileler uygun bir davranış görmediklerinde buna olumsuz

yaklaşıyorlar. Mesela 10 yaşındaki bir çocuğun, işte, bebeklerle oynaması gibi.

Ailesinden güçlü bir tepki alıyor. **Observational learning**'e geçtim. Hı, bu şey, eee,

bakarak, taklit ederek öğrenme (rereads). Evet, tanımdan çok böyle örnek falan

verince daha iyi anlıyorum. **Imitation,** evet, tamam. Taklit etmek.Yani günlük

konuşmada öyle. Hı hı, tam şey böyle, kafamda düşündüklerimi yazmış. Mesela, daha

çok aynı cinsten olanları taklit eder diye düşünmüştüm. Böyle olunca daha hızlı

okuyup geçiyorum. Şurda **observational learning**'i açıklarken bunları düşünmüştüm,

burda doğrulandı. Hı hı, evet. Böyle gözlemleyerek öğrenme, taklit etme. Burda gene

cognitive çıktı. Burda **self-socialization** şey galiba, kendi kendine öğrenme. Bakarak

da değil, ceza ya da ödül de değil, kendi kendine. Evet, mesela, şey, kendine ben

male'ım ya da **female**'ım diye şey yapıyor. Hım, bu onları şey yapıyor, **self-**

categorization. Onların kendi cinsiyetlerine uyan davranışları daha iyi

değerlendirmelerine **motivate** ediyor. Evet, onun kültürlerine göre uygun olan

davranışı yerine getirmek için kendi davranışları ile biraz uğraşıyorlar. Bir daha

okuyorum. **In other words** (rereads). Burda **children** da kendi sosyalleşmesini

gerçekleştirirken, davranışlarını şey yapacak kuralları keşfediyorlar, ee, yönlendirecek.

Government'dan çağrışım yaptı, doğru mu bilmiyorum ama.''

Analysis of the English Translation of the Think-aloud Protocol

(The underlined sentence and the code in the paranthesis show the strategy used by

the subject. The coding scheme is in Appendix E.)

"Here, at the beginning , the author has mentioned about the biological aspect

of it, which is a very commonly known aspect. But, he has also mentioned about

something like culture, which is rarely thought of (RLT 1). I didn't understand what

femininity exactly means (rereads). Hm, here **masculinity** is related to men, so I

think **femininity** is something got to do with women(GSC 1). I think what's meant

by this is that people are born as female or male, but it takes years to acquire the

characteristics that belong to them. **Gender stereotypes. I'll continue with the next**

sentence (CNR 1). I couldn't understand **disparities** (rereads). Does that mean

differences here? (GSC 2). Distinct, different characteristics. Okey, a lot of studies are

being done. Developments occur. Here, I understood this paragraph, but because I'm

not sure about **disparities,** the first thing isn't very clear. **Actual disparities.** Hı, here

stereotypes means differences I think (CNR 2). Does the author say they are very

distinct? **For the most part,** ha, yes. **The research indicates that.** Hı, is it something

different? These **stereotypes,** are they the things other than the biological ones?

Between boys and girls in general. The differences between their behaviour. Other

than the physical characteristics. Are they the common beliefs in the society? Like,

females behave this way, males behave like this (GSC 3). **Cognitive domain.** The

author talks about the results of the studies here. Females are **better** in **verbal ability,**

hı, hı, males are good at **mathematical ability.** I understood in general, but because

stereotype is not very clear, I'm not sure about this paragraph. Does **cognitive** mean

something found after an experiment? **Cognitive.** I remember **cognitive dissonanace.** We read about it in our psychology course in the first term. I associated it with cognitive (RLT 2). I may be wrong. Or does that mean reasonable? Something logical? Something which is not based on assumptions? **Social behaviour.** Here, I immediately thought of the the relationship between 'social behaviour' and 'cognitive' and because **social** follows **cognitive.** Its social aspect and the other aspect (MNG 1). There are three more. Here, it is stated that males are more **aggressive. Disparity. Disparity shows up in early childhood.** It's something like characteristic, the difference males have (GSC 4) It's stated that males cause violence more than females do. When I read **nonverbal communication,** I can't immediately think of what it exactly means, but when I read the next sentence I can understand better (MNG 2). Hı, here something different started. Females smile more than males do. I couldn't understand **subtle** here. We learned it in Eng.102. It was **subtlety.** **Influencability** means influencing the others. Hı, here I think the author says that females can persuade others more easily than males can do. Or it means something like, females can have more dominance, more authority in a group than males can do. I'll continue with the next sentence. Here, **genuine** means. I'll read it once more. **Although.** Ha, **genuine** means common I think. In general, individuals have differences, but these are not the characteristics of each individual (GSC 5). **To summarize.** Again **stereotypes.** Is **stereotype** something like a profession? I reread the definition of it. It's very confusing because it says '**popular stereotypes state**'. Everytime I read **stereotype** I think of it as something different. When I don't understand a word I tend to focus on it, but I continue reading to see whether I can understand it (CNR 2). I reread. I understood the following sentence, '**it includes all**

the efforts'. Here, because I couldn't understand **operant conditioning** as exactly as the others, I didn't concentrate on it (CNR 3). I couldn't understand **acquisition.** Here, I think socialization is the rules and behaviour expected of people in a society. **Gender roles** are the behaviour appropriate for each sex. As far as I understand from the whole sentence **operant conditioning** means making people learn a behaviour by using punishment and reward (GSC 6). **Men don't cry.** Yes. Hı hı, yes, I already knew it. I understood what **operant conditioning** means. When an example I know is given, I understand better. What do **parents** do? (rereads). Ha, I understood it when I reread. I think here the author says that when parents see behaviour that deserves reward, they don't mention it, but they react negatively to behaviour that must be punished. Ha, no, just a minute.I think I misunderstood it (rereads). When families don't see appropriate behaviour, they react negatively. For example, when a ten-year-old boy plays with dolls, his parents show a strong negative reaction. I'll continue with the **observational learning.** Hı, this is, ee, learning by observing, imitating (rereads). Yes, I understand something better when it is explained by an example rather than by a definition. **Imitation,** yes, okey. To imitate. It is used like this in everyday speech. Hı hı, the author writes about what I 've already thought (RLT 4). For example, I thought that children imitate people from the same sex more than they do the ones from the opposite sex. When this happens I can read faster and continue reading. I had thought about this when the author was explaining **observational learning.** What I had thought is confirmed here. **Cognitive** again. Self-socialization means learning on one's own, I think. It's not by observing, not through punishment or reward, but on one's own (MNG 4). Yes, for example, they understand whether they are **male** or **female.** Hım, this leads to **self-categorization.** This **motivates** them

to evaluate the behaviour approprite to their sex better. Yes, they try to behave in a way appropriate to their culture. I'm rereading. **In other words** (rereads). **Children** discover the rules that will govern their behaviour when they are self-socializing. I associated govern with **government** (GWP 1). I don't know whether it is correct.''