

READING MOTIVATION IN L1 AND L2 AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP
WITH L2 READING ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

READING MOTIVATION IN L1 AND L2 AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH L2 READING ACHIEVEMENT

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In this study, reading motivations of university students enrolled in the preparatory school of a private university in Ankara were investigated. Firstly, the factors that constitute the reading motivation in Turkish and English were explored using a questionnaire which was adapted from the related literature. Then, the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading motivation was investigated. Next, the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation and L2 reading achievement was analyzed separately. In addition to the nature of reading motivation, students' text selections and reading habits (*how often, how long and how many* pages they read) were included in the analysis. Finally, preparatory school instructors' and students' perceptions of reading motivation and the factors influencing it were scrutinized.

In order to address the issues stated above, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected with the help of a questionnaire and semi-structured face-to-face

interviews. A total of 273 questionnaires were collected from the students in two instruction levels. In addition, fifteen teachers and eight students were interviewed.

The findings indicated that there is a slight relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading motivation. Secondly, L1 reading motivation and behaviors made no significant contribution to L2 reading achievement. However, L2 reading motivation and behaviors were found to be significant contributors of L2 reading achievement. Among these, while the factor *anxiety* was found to be a significant factor in pre-intermediate level and the factor *comfort* was the significant factor in the upper-intermediate level. Among the text selections, students prefer to read, *transactional* texts had a positive correlation with L2 reading achievement. Finally, *time* students spend reading in English was found to be a significant contributor. Apart from the questionnaire data, the teacher interviews revealed that several other factors affect students' reading motivation and their reading comprehension such as the classroom-specific motivational variables and the family and educational backgrounds of the students.

Key words: Reading motivation, teachers' and students' perceptions of reading motivation, motivation transfer from L1 to L2 reading.

ÖZ

ANADİLDE VE İKİNCİ DİLDE OKUMA MOTİVASYONU VE BUNLARIN İKİNCİ DİLDE OKUMA BAŞARISI İLE İLİŞKİSİ

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Bu çalışmada Ankara'daki özel bir üniversitenin hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinin okuma motivasyonları incelendi. İlk olarak, ilgili literatürden uyarlanan bir ölçek kullanarak Türkçede ve İngilizcede okuma motivasyonunu oluşturan faktörler araştırıldı. Daha sonra, anadil ve ikinci dil okuma motivasyonu arasındaki ilişki incelendi. Anadilde okuma motivasyonu ve ikinci dilde okuma motivasyonu ile ikinci dilde okuma başarısı arasında ilişki ayrı ayrı incelendi. Okuma motivasyonunun yapısına ek olarak, öğrencilerin okumak için tercih ettikleri metinler ve okuma davranışları (ne sıklıkta, ne kadar süre ile ve kaç sayfa okudukları) da incelemeye dahil edildi. Son olarak, bazı hazırlık okulu okutmalarının ve öğrencilerinin okuma motivasyonu ve bunu etkileyen etkenler hakkındaki algıları irdelendi.

Bahsedilen araştırma sorularını yanıtlayabilmek için anket ve yüz yüze mülakatlar yardımıyla hem nicel hem de nitel türde veri toplandı. Öğrencilerden

172'si alt-orta ve 101'i üst-orta seviyeden olmak üzere toplam 273 adet ölçek toplandı. Buna ek olarak, 15 okutman ve 8 öğrenci ile yüz yüze mülakat yapıldı.

Bulgular anadilde ve ikinci dilde okuma motivasyonu arasında düşük düzeyde de olsa bir ilişki olduğunu gösterdi. Anadilde okuma motivasyonunun ikinci dilde okuma başarısına anlamlı bir katkısının olmadığı görüldü. Fakat, ikinci dilde okuma motivasyonu ve okuma davranışlarının ikinci dilde okuma başarısına anlamlı bir katkısının olduğu tespit edildi. Bu değişkenler arasında *endişe* değişkeni alt-orta seviyede anlamlı bir faktörken, üst-orta seviyede *rahatlık* değişkeni anlamlı bir faktör olarak bulundu. Tercih edilen metinler arasında *interaktif* metinler ile ikinci dilde okuma başarısı arasında pozitif bir bağıntı görüldü. Son olarak, öğrencilerin İngilizce okurken harcadıkları *zamanın* da anlamlı bir faktör olduğu tespit edildi. Ölçek aracılığıyla toplanan veri dışında, okutman ve öğrencilerle yapılan yüz yüze görüşmeler sınıfa özel motivasyon değişkenleri ve öğrencilerin aile ve eğitim geçmişleri gibi başka birçok etkenin de öğrencilerin okuma motivasyon ve okuma başarılarını etkilediğini gösterdi.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Okuma motivasyonu, öğretmen ve öğrencilerin okuma motivasyonu tutumları, ana dilde ve ikinci dilde okuma motivasyon transferi.

To My Father and To the Memory of My Beloved Mother

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the overall purpose, significance and research questions of this study are explained. Throughout the study, the reading skill is recognized as *the* most important skill for second language learners in academic contexts; therefore, the reasons for conducting this study focus on explaining the need to motivate the students to become good readers.

1.2 The Nature of Reading

Reading is a complicated skill because it requires the combination of “attention, memory, perceptual processes, and comprehension processes” (Kern, 1989, p. 135). Since it requires both more linguistic and cognitive processing than reading in the native language, reading in the target language is very challenging for language learners. To comprehend reading texts, language learners must not only understand the words, structure, and purpose, but have access to the background knowledge assumed. This demanding nature of reading in educational and professional settings in mind, Grabe (2009) puts it:

Citizens of modern societies must be good readers to be successful. Reading skills do not guarantee success for anyone, but success is much harder to come by without being a skilled reader. The advent of computer and the Internet does nothing to change this fact about reading. If anything, electronic communication only increases the need for effective reading skills and the strategies as we cope with the large quantities of information made available to us (p. 5).

Despite its complicated but indispensable nature, reading is something that is taken for granted, as Grabe (2009) argues “we read with what appears to be little effort and little planning” (p. 4).

The literature reports interrelationships between first language reading ability, second language proficiency, and second language reading performance (Hudson, 2007). L2 reading development is not merely the result of L1 transfer. Nevertheless, L1 transfer has a crucial role to play. Students who are weak in L1 reading cannot be expected to transfer resources to L2 reading contexts (Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

The crucial role of L1 in mind, Turkish students’ generally known reluctance to read is a matter of concern. In one of the studies conducted on Turkish students’ reading habits, Arıcı (2008, cited in Urgan, 2008, p. 220) reports that around 60 % of the 2000 secondary school students researched see their teachers as reading models, indicating that their parents are not good models. Sadly enough, 68.5 % of the teachers do not read regularly or do not read at all (Yılmaz, 2007, cited in Urgan, 2008, p. 221). According to a national survey conducted by Çocuk Vakfı (2006), 70 % of the young never read and the 95 % of the adults only watch TV.

As for the international studies, the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) was conducted by Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 41 countries and Turkey in 2003. PISA is an assessment tool developed by the participating countries (Akşit, 2007). The results showed that Turkey is in the group that is below the OECD average in mathematics, science and reading tests. Specifically, the reading test results are similar: Turkey has the second lowest performance in all tests among the OECD countries (Cinoğlu, 2009).

The results of another study, The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), were quite similar to those of the PISA. The PIRLS provides information about the reading achievement of primary school students, concentrating on students in the fourth grade. In this study, Turkey's average was 449, which was significantly lower than the international average 500 (Akşit, 2007). Park (2006) made use of PIRLS findings and further analyzed the home literacy environments of the 25 participant countries. The results indicated that Turkey was in the lowest group in all three criteria, which were index of *early home literacy activities*, index of *parents' attitudes toward reading* and *number of books at home*.

Within the context of this study, the *reasons* for this reluctance to read in or out of the class will be discussed. Baseline data will be provided in terms of problems both students and teachers face in reading lessons, which will help to portray the reading attitudes of adolescent EFL students in the preparatory school of a private university in Ankara, Turkey.

1.3 Background of the Problem

Literacy used to be viewed as a simple decoding process and as reading to find information in the text. Over the past fifty years or so, literacy has been explored from many perspectives including linguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology, and sociolinguistics (Pearson & Stephens, 1994). The researchers' idea of reading includes the complexities involved in the reading process. Researchers and teachers have become more aware that reading is *transdisciplinary* (Pearson & Stephens, 1994).

There has been a strong emphasis on reading skills in the research, and this overshadows the areas of attitudes towards reading, motivations of reading, and reading behaviors and habits. It is generally believed that if students have proficient reading skills, they will automatically want to read and they will read. This is not always the case (Stepp, 2008).

Furthermore, an overall decline appears in students' interests in their independent reading of books as they progress into their education in secondary schools (Guthrie & Greaney, 1991). In addition, during their education in secondary schools, the students are expected to acquire subject-specific content through reading. This decrease in motivation and increase in the workload lead some students to become unwilling or struggling readers.

As mentioned before, the modern societies require individuals to be good readers. Considering the rise of English as a global language and its huge effect on educational systems around the world, demands for reading in a second language are noteworthy too: "in countries around the world school systems require students to learn English for access to information and for the eventual ability to compete economically and professionally" (Grabe, 2009, p. 6).

As far as the researcher is concerned, although it has been more than a decade since the program of the research setting was established, no scientific work has been undertaken to see how effective the reading program is. It has been pointed out in a previous research conducted by Tunç (2009) that although the instructional materials namely the course books, are chosen considering the latest developments in ELT literature, variables such as students' needs, expectations or motivation are not considered to be an important criteria in the selection.

In addition, the *need for a better* reading syllabus is continuously mentioned in the weekly meetings which are held with the group heads. In these meetings, the problems students generally face in the lessons, not specifically reading lessons though, are generally mentioned too. It is frequently reported by the teachers that students ask their teachers to do reading tasks similar to the exams. It is observed by the researcher that teachers *exchange* reading texts and exercises they prepare, generally from outside resources.

Considering the need to read in a foreign language in an English-medium university, the generally known reluctance of Turkish students, and the program that the students are put in, the researcher aims to explore the students' reading motivation to read both in their native language and in English, the effectiveness of the current reading programme regarding reading and the problems both the students and the teachers face in reading lessons.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

This study develops around three main purposes: definition, analysis and gaining insight. As this study is unique in its design within its context, the data gathered will also provide baseline data for future research.

Firstly, this study aims at defining the nature of motivation to read in Turkish (L1) and in English (L2). To do this, factors that comprise the EFL students' motivation to read will be analyzed. Secondly, the relationship between the students' motivations to read together with their reading habits and their success in reading exams will be explored. Finally, this study aims at gaining an insight as to the educational value English teachers assign to reading motivation in their classroom

dynamics, while also investigating whether teachers have a clear idea of creating motivating conditions in their lessons.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study comes from several reasons. To begin with, there is no doubt that a large majority of students even at advanced proficiency levels in a second language (L2) need the ability to read a written text with good comprehension to cope with the large mass of reading material in research in their respective fields (Eskey, 1986). In ESL and EFL situations, especially in programs that make extensive use of academic materials written in English, effective reading is crucial. As data about the situation of university students in terms of their motivation and attitude to read is not available within the context of Turkey, the findings of this study may constitute baseline data and a basis for future research on enhancement of motivation into reading instruction.

Secondly, judgments regarding a reading lesson's success and a student's comprehension are shaped by an interaction of several factors. One crucial factor that influences such judgments is student motivation; however, what reading motivation is and its role in reading comprehension need more attention, as Miller & Faircloth argue (2009):

Only recently has motivation moved a bit closer to center stage in literacy studies. The role motivation plays in promoting comprehension, whether explicitly or implicitly, across grade levels for students at different achievement levels and backgrounds, has yet to be determined (p. 307).

The concept of reading motivation is connected to the research and discussions of readers, but it remains an ambiguous concept about which fairly little is understood. Much more research is needed to explore valid instruments, relationships between motivation traits and reading amount, enjoyment, reading-strategy use, and vocabulary knowledge (Miller & Faircloth, 2009). The present study attempts to make contributions in this regard.

By researching teachers and students *simultaneously*, this research aims to find common patterns, or factors that are necessary to create more motivating reading lessons for both sides. In this respect, this study might be considered unique.

As for the potential implications of the study, by looking at the attitudes of students to reading, the delivery of reading lessons in the research setting could be reexamined. The same argument might be valid for teachers, as knowing their perceptions of reading, and the way it should be taught provides insights for better reading instruction. Thus, more structured and motivating environments may be created, and the students in the preparatory school could be better prepared for their future academic lives in their departments.

1.6 Research Questions

To reach the aforementioned purposes, this study will address the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading motivation?
 - a. Is there a difference in this regard between pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate students?

2. What is the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading achievement?
 - b. Is there a difference in this regard between pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate students?
3. What is the relationship between L2 reading motivation and L2 reading achievement?
 - c. Is there a difference in this regard between pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate students?

1.7 Definitions of Terms

Attitude: Gardner (1985) sees attitudes as components of motivation in language learning. According to him, “motivation ... refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language” (p. 10). He believes the motivation to learn a foreign language is determined by basic predispositions and personality characteristics such as the learner’s attitudes towards foreign people in general, and the target group and language in particular, motives for learning, and generalized attitudes.

Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) define **attitudes toward reading** as an individual's feelings about reading.

Motivation: According to Dörnyei & Otto (1998), motivation is dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.

Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) define **reading motivation** as the individual's goals and beliefs with regard to reading.

Language proficiency level: Students' language proficiency level that is decided by an institutional placement test at the beginning of the academic year at the institution where the study was conducted. Students are placed in different ability groups according to the results of this test.

- **A level:** Upper-intermediate level of language proficiency.
- **B level:** Pre-intermediate level of language proficiency.
- **C level:** Beginner level of language proficiency.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, literature on the reading skill and motivation to read is reviewed and linked to the current study. To discuss the relevance of previous research findings, this chapter is divided into three: (a) the nature of reading focusing on the effect of reading strategies and the native language on L2 reading; (b) the role of motivation in foreign language learning; (c) the nature of reading motivation of foreign language students.

2.2 The Nature of Reading

First, to provide the definition of reading and the reading process would be beneficial to understand the fact that it is an important skill for tertiary students.

Goodman (1988) defines reading as follows:

Reading is a receptive language process. It is a psychological process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning which the reader constructs. There is thus an essential interaction between language and thought in reading. The writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought (p.12).

On the other hand, Grabe (2009) approaches the idea *with caution*:

When viewed in terms of the set of processes involved, reading becomes a unified process that is adjusted flexibly in response to reader purpose, reader proficiency level, and possible contextual constraints. This notion of reading as a unified concept, or construct, points out the need for a careful definition of reading ... reflect the true complexity of what we do when we read (p.13).

What Grabe (2009) suggests is that *not one* process or definition is enough to define reading, but to get an accurate account of reading, he gives the list of processes required for fluent reading:

Table 1. Processes required for fluent reading

| |
|----------------------------|
| 1. A rapid process |
| 2. An efficient process |
| 3. A comprehending process |
| 4. An interactive process |
| 5. A strategic process |
| 6. A flexible process |
| 7. A purposeful process |
| 8. An evaluative process |
| 9. A learning process |
| 10. A linguistic process |

Source: (Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2002)

To dwell on these processes, it should be noted, first, that reading *efficiently* and *rapidly* means reading occurs when certain processes are coordinated and carried out automatically and at an approximate rate of 250-300 words per minute. Next, interrelated to one another, *comprehending* and *purposeful* processes lead us to the idea of reading as a *learning* process. The notion purpose means that readers have different purposes to read and also means that “any motivation to read a given text is triggered by some individual purpose or task, whether imposed internally or externally” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; p. 19). Basically, *this* purpose is to comprehend the text although how this happens makes this process subtle. With a purpose in mind, readers read to learn, especially in academic environments, it is through reading that the students learn. In addition, fluent reading requires the readers to use a range of *strategies*, such as organizing or summarizing information, or repairing comprehension breakdowns. This strategic nature of fluent reading requires the

reader to be *flexible* as well in that the reader adjusts his/her purposes and monitors his/her comprehension while reading. This adjustment suggests that the reader should be *evaluative* in that the reader decides whether the information is relevant to his/her purposes or expectation that the information is useful or enjoyable for him/her. The term *interactive processes* refers to two different concepts: first, the general interaction between the reader and the text and second, the simultaneous interaction of many component skills. Lastly, reading is a *linguistic* process in that, naturally, no one can understand a text without engaging with it linguistically, as Grabe (2009) argues linguistic information is central to reading while background information could be limited.

2.2.1 Reading Models

Models exemplify theories of reading; they provide ways to represent a theory or part of a theory; they explain what reading involves and, in more detailed versions, and they explain how reading works (Sadoski & Paivio, 2007). Even though models have a crucial role in synthesizing information and producing hypotheses developing a research field, they are constructed through a subjective process and they cannot justify all the evidence available (Grabe, 2009).

As for the types of models, there are general models of reading comprehension, word recognition, syntactic processing, working memory, and inferencing. In addition, there are models that are based on empirical evidence, and metaphorical models that provide abstract generalizations.

To look at the specific models of reading is beyond the scope of the current study. In this chapter, popular and the most common metaphorical models of reading,

namely bottom-up, top-down and interactive models, will be touched upon.

Considering the fact that the focus of the present study is on reading motivation, Matthewson's model of attitude influence and *The McKenna* model will be included as well. The current research does not focus on all of the models of reading; however, this should not be interpreted as neglect for the rest.

2.2.1.1 Bottom-up Approach to Reading

What bottom-up approach basically indicates is that

... the reader constructs meaning from letters, words, phrases, clauses and sentences by processing the text into phonemic units that represent lexical meaning, and then builds meaning in a linear manner (Hudson, 2007; p. 33).

Reading is considered to be a series of steps that continue in a fixed order. Two important points to make here is that reading is a *mechanical* process and the information is translated from the text with *little interference* from the reader's background knowledge. The reader's ability to recognize words *in isolation* is emphasized by "mapping the input directly onto some independent representational form in the mental lexicon" (Hudson, 2007; p. 36).

2.2.1.2 Top-down Approaches to Reading

The top-down model of reading suggests, in Goodman's (1976) words:

Reading is a selective process. It involves partial use of available minimal language cues selected from perpetual input on the basis of reader's expectation. As this partial information is processed, tentative decisions are made, to be confirmed, rejected or refined as reading progresses (p.498).

In top-down reading, readers try to be *less* dependent on the print of the text:

cognitive economy of linguistic information is emphasized rather than graphemic

information. Two important features of top-down approach are that first, the reader is seen as someone with expectations about the information in the text. Second, background knowledge of the readers has an important role in meaning construction.

However, top-down approaches are criticized from many perspectives. To begin with, Grabe (2009) argues that what the reader can learn from the text if s/he must first have expectations about the information in the text is not clear. In addition, Eskey (1988) argues the model is an accurate model for fluent readers but for the less proficient readers and “like most second language readers” (p. 93), this model cannot offer a true picture of the problems of these less proficient readers. Another criticism is that the model does not emphasize the decoding dimension of the reading process but considers reading only a cognitive process (Eskey, 1988).

Carrell (1988b) states that extreme use of either top-down or bottom-up processing may cause readers problems with comprehending the text efficiently. What she emphasizes is that to be a good language learner top-down and bottom-up processes must be used in different combinations for different purposes.

2.2.1.3 Interactive Approaches to Reading

The interactive model was developed by theorists on account of criticism against the bottom-up and top-down models. It highlights both what is on the written page and what a reader brings to it.

Interactive approaches are believed to provide clarification for many variables in the reading process. The term *interactive approaches* has two connotations. First, it can refer to the general interaction which takes place between the reader and the

text. Second, it refers to the interaction of componential processes (Grabe, 1991; 2009).

Considering its pedagogical implications, rapid visual recognition, extensive vocabulary development and syntactic pattern recognition should be focused since lower-level processes are essential for successful reading. Since especially vocabulary is considered to be a major difficulty for EFL students, there is a real need for “receptive vocabulary that is rapidly, accurately, and automatically accessed” (Grabe, 1988; p. 63).

Interactive models could be considered to be a solution in that it could be basically assumed that it is possible to combine useful elements of bottom-up and top-down views in interactive approach. Nevertheless, according to what Grabe (2009) suggests, this does not match empirical findings:

Research demonstrates that (a) fluent readers do not wait for context information to support automatic word-recognition processes; (b) inferences do not impact automatic word-recognition processes; and (c) eye-movement patterns follow consistent and fairly automatic processes, they are not usually under the conscious direction of the reader during fluent reading (p. 90).

What is suggested here is that some key features of bottom-up approach do not match with key components of top-down processing. Therefore, among recent discussions the term *restricted interactive models* is mentioned. It suggests that they are mainly “bottom-up driven with respect to automatic processing ... automatic processing require interaction among processes and resources within a given component skill level” (Grabe, 2007; p. 90).

2.2.1.4 Mathewson's Model of Attitude Influence

There are several reading models, which attempt to explain the relationship between attitude and the process of reading. The first theory to be explained is the Mathewson model.

In the earliest version of the model, Mathewson's (1976) model was comprised of *attitude, motivation, attentional processes, comprehension processes* and *acceptance processes*. The attitude and motivation components work together to create the condition in which the child begins to pay attention to books, which is termed as attentional processes. With increasing complexity, comprehension processes are brought into operation. If attitude and motivation is favorable, comprehension works efficiently. "Acceptance processes" component compares the meaning with the previous components and a relevant attitude is modified.

Over the course of about 20 years, Mathewson refined his model, and in his latest (1994) model, Mathewson portrays how attitude is developed over time. McKenna, Kear and Ellsworth (1995) explain, "Mathewson's principal concern was with the role of attitude as a factor during the act of reading and during the period when one learns to read" (p. 937).

Mathewson's new model (1994, as cited in Hudson, 2007) has a three-component definition of attitude: "with evaluation as the cognitive component, feeling as affective component, and action readiness as the conative component" (p. 1133). Another aspect of the model is that goal of the reader may cause a change in his/her attitude to reading. A comprehension exam, for example, may lead the reader

to do well in the exam rather than to understand the text which initially was not of interest to him/her.

The role Mathewson model had is how important it is to address affective issues in the teaching of reading and the fact that the model puts issues of motivation at the centre. Despite its contributions, it has limitations (McKenna et al., 1995; Hudson, 2007). In McKenna, Kear and Ellsworth's (1995) words: "the model is silent as to the possibility that social norms may have a direct effect on attitude" (p. 938) and the model was considered to be limited in predicting the development of attitude over time.

2.2.1.5 The McKenna Model

In the McKenna model, attitude is seen as affective and the beliefs as causally related to attitude. It also suggests the idea that the social structure and environment of readers affect their beliefs and intentions to read. The McKenna's model did not adapt the three attitudes presented in the Mathewson model (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995), for which they criticize Mathewson's model. According to them:

Specifically, the McKenna model identified three principal factors influencing attitudinal change: (a) beliefs about the outcomes, (b) beliefs about the expectations of others in light of one's motivation to conform to those expectations, and (c) the outcomes of specific incidents of reading. (p. 938)

In other words, if a reader is frustrated when s/he reads, these experiences may cause the reader to believe that reading is a frustrating experience, and consequently, the reader starts to have a negative attitude towards reading.

The McKenna model suggests that a *teacher* may have an influence on a reader's attitude in an indirect way; through teaching techniques. The McKenna model is believed by McKenna et al. (1995) to predict that these techniques might cause improved attitudes by:

- (a) a direct effect due to the positive nature of the experience afforded by the technique; (b) an indirect effect on the beliefs a student harbors about the outcomes of reading (for example, the technique might induce the student to believe that reading will be less frustrating); and (c) an indirect effect on a student's beliefs about how influential others view reading (p. 953).

2.2.2 Reading Strategies

Reading is a complex system of deriving meaning from a text, which involves skills like inferencing, guessing and prediction. Analysis of the reading process raises awareness of the demands of different texts and the need for *strategy* use to meet those demands. The aim of strategies is to promote learner autonomy and to make learning more efficient. In addition, in order to be *successful readers*, second language learners need to be able to develop strategies for reading, both for “bottom-up processing (e.g. reading at a reasonable rate, which ... really means reading in a meaningful groups of words and reading without stopping to look up words in the dictionary) and top-down processing (e.g. skimming a text before reading, formulating specific questions that the text might be answer)” (Eskey, 2005, p. 575).

Taxonomies of *skills* and *strategies* are considered identical terms in some sources while in some others, they are defined as separate. Paris, Wasik and Turner (1991) distinguish skills and strategies with these clear definitions:

Skills refer to information-processing techniques that are automatic, whether at the level of recognizing grapheme-phoneme correspondence or summarizing a story. Skills are applied to text unconsciously for many

reasons including expertise, repeated practice, compliance with directions, luck and naïve use. In contrast, *strategies* are actions selected deliberately to achieve particular goals. (pp. 610-611)

In other words, when a skill is used intentionally, it could be taken as a strategy. And similarly, a strategy can become a skill after long practice (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Paris et al., 1991).

2.2.2.1 The Categorization of Strategies

For the categorization of reading strategies, researchers use different classifications. A comprehensive classification is provided by Oxford (1990). She offers six kinds of strategies within the context of reading strategies. She first distinguishes two broad categories: *Direct Strategies* and *Indirect Strategies*. *Memory, Cognitive* and *Compensation* go under direct strategy category. First, memory strategies include creating mental images through grouping and associating, semantic mapping, using key words, employing word associations, and placing new words into a context. Second, cognitive strategies include note taking, formal practice with the specific aspects of the target language such as sentence structure, summarizing, paraphrasing, predicting, analyzing, and using context clues. Lastly, compensation strategies refer to inferencing, guessing while reading, or using reference materials such as dictionaries.

Indirect strategies similarly comprise three sub-strategies. To begin with, *metacognitive strategies* require learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their own learning through direct attention and self-evaluation, organization, setting goals and objectives. Next, *affective strategies* are used while reading. Students use affective

strategies such as self-encouraging behaviors to continue processing and to encourage learning. Third, cooperation with peers, questioning, asking for correction and feedback are *social strategies* that students use in the reading process. The categorization of strategies as pre-, while- and after-reading is also suggested frequently (Carrell, 1984; Paris et al., 1991).

Another taxonomy of reading strategies, *text-level* and *word-level* strategies, are referred to in various sources. Word-level strategies are related to word processing like understanding the meanings of words and references. These strategies help with the interpretation of the text starting from the word level and working through the sentence level. Text-level strategies, such as using the title, predicting the content, skimming, scanning and activating the background knowledge, refer to the ones applied when the purpose of reading is to comprehend the text as a whole (Barnett, 1988)

Whatever the categories are, *not* all readers are able to employ them successfully: since good readers attach more importance to “meaning-centered” reading, they try to use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies, while less successful readers cannot connect or control the limited number of strategies they employ (Anderson, 1991).

To conclude, Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003) *summarize* the necessary skills for successful reading as follows:

determination of a reading objective; activation and use of one’s own knowledge with regard to the content of the text; drawing of connections or relations between words, sentences and paragraphs including the prediction of information and creation of representations; exploration of the nature and structure of different types of texts; discovery of the theme and the main ideas in a text along with a summary of such; posing and answering of one’s own questions; planning, steering, monitoring and correction of one’s own reading

behavior; evaluation of texts for their value; and reflection on the reading activities which have been executed and their results (p.391).

Research on reading strategies, both in the international and in the Turkish context, falls into two broad categories: first, the studies investigating the students' strategy repertoires and second the studies searching the effects of strategy instruction. There are a range of studies conducted to explore strategy use, although these studies overshadow some other dimensions, such as the affective domain. Next two sections will focus on these studies.

2.2.2.2 Successful and Unsuccessful Readers' Strategy Use

Strategic readers see themselves as “competent in the class; because they have multiple tactics available to monitor and improve comprehension, they know how to learn effectively” (Paris et al. 1991; p. 625).

To explore the different repertoires of successful and unsuccessful readers, Uzunçakmak (2005) conducted a study with successful and unsuccessful readers at a preparatory school of a state university in Ankara, Turkey. Successful and unsuccessful readers' recall of strategy instruction was explored using a questionnaire. Two successful and two unsuccessful readers' reported use of strategies after performing a reading task was determined through stimulated recall. The findings of the study indicated that there are similarities and differences between successful and unsuccessful readers. The results showed *non-significant* differences between these two groups of readers in terms of reported strategy use and recall of strategy instruction. However, qualitative analysis of stimulated recall results indicates that successful and unsuccessful readers differ from one another in their use

of strategies while performing a reading task. Successful readers seem to use more top-down (holistic) strategies whereas unsuccessful readers use bottom-up (analytical) strategies more.

The results of a similar study conducted by Yiğiter, Sarıçoban and Gürses (2005) indicated that poor readers are not able to brainstorm ideas about the meaning of the title or an illustration and discuss what they know. As the poor readers do not use the *pre-reading* strategies effectively, they do not make connections easily. In addition, less able readers do not exploit the structural cues, in the *while-reading* stage. Poor readers have also difficulty in figuring out the meaning of new words.

Another study was designed by Tercanlıoğlu (2004) to explore what postgraduate readers do to assist their reading and to examine how the strategies readers, namely ESL students and native English students, use is related to their overall reading comprehension. What she found was that *both* groups showed a clear preference for cognitive strategies (reasoning, analysis, note taking and synthesis), followed by metacognitive strategies and support strategies. What this study also confirmed was that while the native students reported frequent use of metacognitive reading strategies, the ESL students reported more frequent use of reading support strategies (using a dictionary, taking notes, underlining or highlighting).

In their qualitative study Jimenez, Garcia and Pearson (1995) revealed four dimensions that distinguished the proficient bilingual reader from the less-proficient readers: importance of vocabulary in both languages, view of reading, interaction with text, and handling of two languages. Both of the bilingual students (one proficient and one less-proficient) were obsessed with vocabulary; however, the proficient bilingual's obsession was reported to stem from her bilingualism rather

than reading proficiency; for her vocabulary was both a barrier and a bridge, but for the less proficient reader it was merely a barrier. The results also showed that while successful bilingual reader expressed a multistrategic approach to reading, the less successful bilingual reader was found to employ counterproductive reading behavior. Interestingly, it was found that the successful bilingual reader sees her home language as a resource while the less successful bilingual reader views her home language as a problem, reporting that it causes problems.

2.2.2.3 Reading Strategy Instruction

Research on proficient and less proficient readers has led the researchers to suggest that less proficient readers could be assisted via strategy instruction. A second line of research regarding reading strategies deals with the effect of *strategy instruction* on reading comprehension.

To begin with, Arpacioğlu (2007) did an experimental study to explore the effect of combined strategy instruction on reading comprehension. The results of the study revealed that the students who received four-week strategy instruction were significantly better in terms of their reading comprehension scores. The participant students indicated that they had positive attitudes toward strategy instruction, in that explicit instruction of strategies was found to be efficient.

Sadık (2005) conducted a study exploring the effect of strategy instruction focus activities on the strategy use of university students. The quantitative data did not reveal any significant results between the experimental and control groups. However, what she found through interviews was that students who received the instruction were more aware of the use of strategies after treatment. These results

imply that strategy instruction can have a positive effect on students reading strategy use and their awareness of the reading process.

In Kantarci's (2006) study, the aim was to explore not only the strategy repertoires of the students but also the effect of three-week explicit strategy instruction on their strategic performance. The results of the questionnaires and post-treatment interviews indicate that explicit strategy instruction had positive effects on students' strategy use. In addition, instruction in top-down strategies seemed to be useful for students to raise their awareness in terms of reading purposefully, also fast and more easily.

Finally, the study conducted by Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003), has a more significant role in the current study in that their study tries to connect strategy instruction to *reading motivation*. A 40-lesson theme-based problem-oriented reading program was utilized. The most important motivational factors were that every unit was introduced with an exciting story or event pertaining to the theme of the unit; students chose the problem themselves; they worked the problem out into a concrete product and they presented the product. Aarnoutse and Schellings tried to explore the effect of this programme on students' reading comprehension, their strategy use and reading motivation. The results showed that the experimental programme tended to influence the capacity of the children to use various reading strategies in that the experimental programme promoted the children's knowledge of reading strategies. With regard to the effect of the programme on reading comprehension in general, no such an effect was found. Finally, the present research showed that the experimental programme clearly influenced the children's reading motivation in that the students in the experimental groups showed more positive reading motivation.

To conclude, as seen it is quite possible that successful and unsuccessful readers may make use of the same strategies to assist their reading process, yet in different manners. The research above indicates partially inconclusive results in terms of the effectiveness of strategy instruction in that they provide qualitative effectiveness rather than quantitative. In Barnett's (1988) study, for instance, despite impressive gains, subjects receiving strategy instruction did not score significantly higher on a French reading comprehension test than did subjects not receiving strategy instruction. On the other hand, Kern (1989) found out that reading strategy training had a strong positive effect on L2 readers' comprehension gain scores.

2.2.3 L1 and L2 Relationships

While learning to read, the readers must expand their linguistic knowledge, manage transfer effects and learn to use L2-specific resources such as translation, glosses, and bilingual dictionaries and so on. All these mean that reading in a second language can be quite different from reading in L1. However, as has mentioned, there are interconnections between first language reading ability, second language proficiency and second language reading performance (Hudson, 2007). This relationship between L1 and L2 reading is reviewed under two hypotheses: *the linguistic interdependence hypothesis* and *the linguistic threshold hypothesis*. Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis (LTH) suggests that "in order to read in a second language, a level of second language linguistic ability must first be achieved" (Bernhardt & Kamil 1995; p. 17). In other words, *language* is the key factor in reading activities.

Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (*LIH*) suggests that reading performance is shared with reading ability in a first language. In other words when a language operation has been acquired in a language, the same operation is not reacquired in a second language.

Bernhardt & Kamil (1995) suggest that the interdependence hypothesis is “more intuitively appealing of the two” (p.18), in that the learners do not start over but they can make their native language work for them. However, they state that in terms of research, *LIH* is problematic: an L2 score would be a mixture of two languages and drawing conclusions about either language is impossible.

These two hypotheses conflict; however, Grabe (2009) argues:

the issue is not that two hypotheses conflict; instead, the issue is to determine the role of transfer as part of L2 reading development: What transfers and when does it transfer? The issue raised by the Language Threshold Hypothesis is not if L1 skills transfer, but when. The goal is to arrive at a much more nuanced understanding of the contributing to L2 reading development (p.146).

2.2.3.1 Evidence Supporting The Linguistic Threshold and The Linguistic Interdependence Hypotheses

Several research studies attempted to explore these hypotheses and one such study was conducted by Carell (1991). English L1 speakers studying Spanish and Spanish L1 speakers studying English were investigated. The L2 proficiency levels of the language learners were determined according to their course levels: from level 2 (first year) to level 6 (university composition). Two texts in two languages with ten multiple choice questions were used as instruments. The results showed that both first language reading ability and second language proficiency level are significant predictors of second language reading ability. However, *post hoc* analyses showed

that for native speakers of Spanish, their ability in their L1 accounted for a greater variance in their L2 reading, while for native speakers of English, their proficiency level in L2 was a greater indicator. The suggested reason for this by the author was that the Spanish native speakers had native speakers of English in their surrounding environment; however, the native speakers of English did not have Spanish speakers in their surrounding environment.

Carrell's (1991) findings were consistent with that of Perkins et al. (1989). In the study, random parallel reading comprehension tests in Japanese and English were administered to native Japanese students enrolled in intensive English instruction. Students were grouped into three proficiency levels according to their TOEFL results: 0-374 interval was the first group; 375-429 interval was the second group; and 430-469 interval was the third group. Two tests (one in Japanese and one in English) were used as elicitation instruments. In both of the tests, the same skills – facts, inference and generalizations – were assessed. The Pearson product-moment correlation procedure was utilized. The results showed that in the first proficiency group there was no significant relationship between L1 and L2. However, in the second and third proficiency levels there was found to be a significant relationship. The significant relationship in second proficiency group was not felt good enough to claim that the TOEFL 375-429 is the threshold ceiling but the third proficiency level (TOEFL 430-469) presents the conclusive evidence that transfer of reading skills began in this proficiency level. Considering the pedagogical implications, the results of the study suggest that the subjects need focused work on the use of content and formal schemata and global comprehension (top-down orientation), and focused

work on the code elements (bottom-up orientation), especially the lowest proficiency level.

Bernhardt & Kamil (1995) give direct evidence of *both* hypotheses. Bernhardt & Kamil (1995) worked with American students in three levels of Spanish instruction (beginning, intermediate and advanced). The students took a reading test in Spanish and two tests in English, translated versions of the same test. The regression analyses showed that 28 per cent of the variance in Spanish (L2) scores could be accounted by L1 reading. However, when language level was stepped into the regression, the variance accounted was 38 per cent with an additional 10 per cent contributed by the first language reading. When first language reading variables (comprehension, rate and the translated versions of the Spanish test) were forced into this second regression, they accounted for 16 %.

In a similar study, Taillefer (1996) investigated reading tasks on the contribution of L2 proficiency and L1 reading ability. The first task required French university students to search for key words and numbers in English texts. In the second task, the same students answer agree/disagree and multiple choice questions. The results indicated that *both* L1 reading ability and second language proficiency predicted foreign language reading performance, although depending on the type of the task. While L1 reading ability was the significant predictor for the less demanding task, the scanning task, L2 proficiency was found to significantly predict the performance for the more demanding task, namely answering questions. This effect of L2 proficiency was observed only in the proficient students' performances, indicating that the use of first language reading ability facilitates reading performance only after the reader has a *threshold* of second language ability.

Yamashita (2002a; 2002b) contributed to the L1 & L2 reading relationship research, too. In her review article, she suggests that the research into the relationship between L1 and L2 reading should include the distinction between product-oriented and process-oriented reading. “*Process* refers to various mental activities that readers are engaged in during interaction with a text for the purpose of constructing meaning. The *product* of reading refers to both quality and quantity of meaning representation that readers have constructed as a result of various mental interactions with the text” (p.272).

In *product-oriented* studies, scores on L1 and L2 reading comprehension tests, low to moderate correlations have been reported. Different from the product-oriented studies, moderate to high correlations have been observed in *process-oriented* studies. This suggests that the relationship between L1 and L2 reading is stronger in process than in product of reading.

Readers with high L1 reading ability can transfer their L1 ability and facilitate their L2 reading comprehension at least to a certain extent, and this transfer does not necessarily guarantee overall text-level comprehension. So as to look at the issue from a larger point of view, Yamashita (2002a) argues:

Readers tend to transfer and use their L1 strategies in the process of L2 reading. However, because of their weak L2 linguistic proficiency, these L1 strategies are not always fully successful in helping them construct an appropriate meaning representation for the product. ... Although the linguistic threshold hypothesis should still be given priority because of the strong influence of L2 linguistic proficiency on the transfer of L1 reading ability to L2 reading, we cannot fully explain the relationship of reading in two languages without integrating the linguistic interdependence hypothesis. We should bear in mind that the entire process of reading can be much more similar in L1 and L2 reading than the linguistic threshold hypothesis suggests (p. 277).

The linguistic threshold hypothesis directs us to infer that readers need help to get L2 linguistic abilities. While this is an important aspect of teaching, teachers should also be aware that L2 readers use their L1 reading strategies.

In another study conducted by Yamashita (2002b), evidence for the Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis was provided. Japanese university students who were in high, middle and low levels, determined according to their L1 reading ability and L2 language proficiency, took part in the study. Variance analysis was utilized to explore the effect of L1 reading ability and L2 language proficiency on reading performance. The total shared variance of the two predictor variables was 40 % and L2 proficiency was proved to be a much stronger predictor, offering support for the threshold hypothesis. On the other hand, the study did find that readers with L1 reading ability benefitted from L2 language proficiency. This suggests that the transfer of L1 reading ability happens despite low language proficiency, supporting the linguistic interdependence hypothesis.

All of the findings of the studies above suggest the existence of a language threshold. However, it is not possible to “determine it in absolute terms” (Grabe, 2009; p. 148). There is a real need for future study in this regard.

2.3 The Role of Motivation in Language Learning

2.3.1 Definition of Motivation

Dörnyei and Otto (1998) define *motivation* as follows:

the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor process whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (p. 65).

Motivation is reported to account for second/foreign language learning achievement; in other words, a direct relationship between motivation and language achievement has been reported (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). The general purpose of motivational theories has been to investigate student motivation in order to increase student success in language learning.

Gardner's social-psychological theory of the relation between motivation and language achievement has inspired several researchers. In this theory, language learning is considered different from other school subjects: "the nature of language acquisition may be such that attitudes are implicated in achievement more than is true for other school subject areas" (Gardner, 1985; p. 42).

The social-psychological theory links motivation to a will to integrate or be in contact with the community of speakers of the target language (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). As a result, motivation to learn language is affected by attitudes towards the speakers and culture of the target language, and highlighting the social dimension of language learning.

The most developed and researched feature of Gardner's (1985) motivation theory is the *integrative* aspect. What this aspect concerns is:

... a positive interpersonal/affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community. It implies an openness to, and respect for, the other cultural groups and ways of life (Dörnyei, 2003; p. 5).

In foreign language learning settings, on the other hand, where L2 is learned as a school subject, identification could be linked to the cultural and intellectual values associated with language and to the actual L2 itself (Dörnyei, 2003).

It was in the 1990s that many researchers who were interested in motivation in language learning realized that the social-psychological approach focused too much on motivation in second language settings, ignored classroom-specific components of motivation, and it considered the will to integrate with the speakers of the target language as the major drive in learning a language (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994).

In the social-psychological theory, the concept of motivation did not deal with practical concepts of what it means to be motivated. For the classroom teacher, being motivated does not necessarily mean that learners want to integrate with the speakers of the target language, but that they are engaged in learning tasks and maintaining this engagement for a long time (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

2.3.2 Motivation Theories

As a result of the cognitive revolution in psychological research, cognitive motivation theories were put forward, and they were utilized for better understanding of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2003). The following sections will provide influential theories of motivation.

2.3.2.1 Gardner's Motivation Theory

Gardner's Socio-Education Theory had an influential role on language learning motivation and appeared as a distinctive sample for later models of motivation. Gardner (1985) focuses on the role of learners' attitudes and motivation in developing L2 achievement. In his model, Gardner argues that motivation accounts for achievement in second language development and refers to "...extent to

which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (p.10).

Language learners’ goals can be classified as *integrative orientation*, which refers to positive attitudes toward the native speakers of L2, and being willing to interact with or become a part of that community, or *instrumental orientation*, which is more related to practical reasons, such as getting a good job or a higher salary, or to pass an examination (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

Gardner and Tremblay (1994) explained that motivation differs from orientation because a student might demonstrate a particular orientation but not be highly motivated to achieve that goal. Moreover, although the terms *instrumental* and *integrative* have been used both for motivation and orientation, the term motivation itself is dynamic whereas the term orientation is seen as static (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993 in Gardner & Tremblay, 1994).

Although Gardner’s theory provides basic framework, it does have limitations. In Oxford & Shearin’s (1994) words:

The old definitional framework (softened now by Gardner, but still used by some practitioners) that limits motivation to instrumental and integrative also might need to be broadened to allow for complicated changes over time in a student's reasons for learning a language (p. 14).

2.3.2.2 Dörnyei’s Framework of Motivation

One of the most remarkable theorists who broadens Gardner’s motivation theory is Zoltan Dörnyei. His new approach specifically focuses on a “rather neglected aspect of motivation: its dynamic character and temporal variation” (Dörnyei, 2003; p. 17). He adds that even in a single lesson, learners could show

varying levels of commitment, so it does not seem likely to estimate their motivation in a longer period. In order to explore this variation in motivation, he applies a *process-oriented* approach to motivation. The importance of this approach is given by Dörnyei (2003) as follows:

... a process model of L2 motivation breaks down the overall motivational process into several discrete temporal segments organized along the progression that describes how initial wishes and desires are first transformed into goals and then into operationalized intentions, and how these intentions are enacted, leading (hopefully) to the accomplishment of the goal and concluded by the final evaluation of the process (p. 18).

All these occur in three stages: *preactional*, *actional* and *postactional* stages.

In *preactional* stage, also referred to as choice motivation, motivation is generated.

Three subprocesses are listed here: (a) setting goals, (b) forming intentions, and (c)

launching action. In *actional* stage, also referred to as executive motivation, this

generated motivation is actively maintained and protected. This is the stage in which

students face distracting influences, like off-task thoughts, comments that come from

others, or anxiety about the tasks. Lastly, in the *postactional* stage, also referred to as

motivational retrospection, the student evaluate how things went, and decide on the

type of activities they will be motivated to follow (Dörnyei, 2003).

2.3.2.3 Self-Determination Theory

Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory is one of the most significant

approaches in motivational psychology. In this theory, Ryan and Deci (2000)

distinguish between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or

goals that cause an action. First, *intrinsic* motivation refers to doing something

because it is naturally interesting or enjoyable, and second, *extrinsic* motivation refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome, for example earning a reward.

For a high level of *intrinsic* motivation people must experience fulfillment of the needs both for competence and autonomy. Noels et al. (2000) suggest that when people have the freedom to do an activity, they will try to find situations where they deal with the challenges that the activity requires, and with the help of these challenges, they develop a sense of *competence*.

Extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome. According to the self-determination theory, there are four types of extrinsic motivation; *external regulation*, *introjected regulation*, *identified regulation*, and *integrated regulation*. First, external regulation refers to behavior which is decided by people or things that external to the individual, such as the teacher's praise. Second, introjected regulation is about performing an activity because of pressure that is integrated into the self and forcing oneself to do the activity. Third, identified regulation is related to behaviors caused by others, but the individual accepts that it is necessary to perform the behavior for the sake of its results. Finally, integrated regulation, the most autonomous regulation, represents full self-determination. Although the last two categories, can be regarded as close to intrinsic motivation, they are different from intrinsic motivation in that learners who have autonomous extrinsic motivation may find activities important for their goals and purposes, whereas intrinsically motivated students find activities interesting and fun (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.3.2.4 Research on the Effect of Motivation on Foreign Language Learning

To begin with, in the study conducted by Yağcıoğlu (1994), the aim was to find out whether there was a relationship between instrumental/integrative motivation for L2 learning and students' socioeconomic background in EFL setting. The participants were students from two English-medium universities who were studying in the preparatory schools in order to improve their English proficiency level prior to entry to their respective departments. The results revealed that instrumental motivation was highly correlated with upper levels of socio-economic background, but not integrative motivation. She concluded that students coming from higher socio-economic background are likely to be aware of the advantages of knowing English because of their encounters with people who enjoy the economic gains associated with the knowledge of English. She also contends that instrumentality of learning English is related to the fact that the subjects of the study learn the language as a foreign language, and they do not have enough opportunities to practice the language outside the school environment.

In another study, Kaya (1995) attempted to explore the relationship between active class participation and affective variables, namely motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, extroversion/introversion. Among these variables, self-confidence had the highest correlation, and was the single most important predictor of class participation. The results of the study indicated that all the affective variables correlated significantly with participation. A considerable amount of variance in class variance (60 %) was explained by these variables. In addition, there were significant correlations among these variables, in that students who were motivated

were self-confident and less anxious; introverted students were anxious and they lacked self-confidence, and motivated, self-confident and extroverted students participated more.

In a recent study, Uçar (2009) investigated the nature of motivation that Turkish university EFL students have, their instructional activity preferences and the effect of proficiency level on these two. Among the factors found in the study, instrumental motivation was the most important component for the students, which according to the researcher, “reflects learners’ pragmatic evaluation of learning English in the Turkish context” (Uçar, 2009, p. 89). The results also revealed that communicative activities were the most favored activity type. In terms of proficiency level, it was concluded that with increasing proficiency level students become more self-efficacious, determined, and have more positive attitudes towards English classes. Similarly, upper-intermediate students tend to prefer communicative and challenging activities.

Finally Demir (2005) conducted a study to investigate the influence of gender on motivation, specifically extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Different from the above cited studies, he also tried to explore the relationship motivation level and language achievement of primary school EFL students. The results revealed that female students were more intrinsically motivated than male students. In addition, fourth graders displayed more positive attitudes than the eighth graders did. Similar to Yağcıoğlu’s results (1994), students who live in better socio-economic conditions are more motivated. Therefore, they are more successful in learning English. In addition, the findings showed that there was a close relationship between the two types of motivation of the learners and their academic achievement in English. That

is, students who were extrinsically or intrinsically more motivated were also more successful in learning English.

2.4 Reading Motivation

Reading was considered to be a cognitive process; however, as Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) argue “because reading is an effortful activity that involves choice, motivation, along with cognition is crucial to reading” (p. 57). In order to have a complete picture, which includes not only the acquisition of reading skills but also the amount of time devoted to reading, it is of absolute importance to understand the cognitive and motivational processes of reading.

2.4.1 Aspects of Reading Motivation and their Relation to Reading Comprehension

Motivation researchers defined several constructs regarding motivation, and it has been argued that these constructs vary across different domains and that they should be studied in those domains. Eccless et al. (1993) suggests that beliefs, values and goals are motivation constructs and when they are considered in the domain of reading, they turn into the questions of *whether a person can be a good reader* and *whether s/he wants to be a good reader and why*.

Considering these questions, Wigfield (1997) suggests that *ability beliefs*, *expectancies for success*, and *self efficacy* are constructs related to the first question. Ability beliefs refer to evaluation of the children’s competence in different areas. Expectancies are their sense of how well children will do a task, and finally self-efficacy is the capacity that organizes different subskills into courses of action.

The constructs related to the second question are *subjective task values*, which refer to the reasons the children want to do certain activities, and *intrinsic* versus *extrinsic motivations*, which were explained above.

Reading motivation requires to be treated in a multidimensional approach.

Wigfield (1997) defined each construct as the following:

Reading efficacy refers to the belief that one can be successful at reading. *Reading challenge* is the satisfaction of mastering or assimilating complex ideas in text. *Curiosity* is the desire to learn about a particular topic of personal interest. *Importance of reading* concerns the individual's sense that reading is an activity of central importance to the individual. *Reading involvement* refers to the enjoyment of experiencing different kinds of literary or informational texts. *Reading for recognition* is the pleasure in receiving a tangible form of recognition for success. *Reading for grades* refers to the desire to be favorably evaluated by the teacher. *Competition in reading* is the desire to outperform others in reading. *Social reading* refers to the process of sharing the meanings gained from reading with friends and family. *Compliance* refers to reading because of an external goal or requirement. The term *work avoidance* refers to students' dislike for reading (pp. 63-64).

Among these constructs, curiosity, involvement and challenge belonged to *intrinsic* motivation. *Extrinsic* motivation comprised recognition, grades, social reading, competition and compliance. (Reading efficacy, importance of reading and work avoidance were not included in the revised version in 2004.)

Wigfield and Guthrie (1997b) conducted a study to explore the aspects of motivation to read and its relationship with amount and breadth of their reading. A group of Grade 4 and 5 students with mixed socioeconomic backgrounds completed a reading motivation questionnaire twice, in fall and in spring. The main conclusions from the study indicated that motivation was multidimensional, motivation predicted the amount and breadth children read, and intrinsic motivation was related more strongly than extrinsic motivation to the children's reading. From this, Wigfield and

Guthrie (1997) proposed the same set of motivational constructs mentioned above. These intrinsic and extrinsic motivations became the basis for further research by these researchers and others (for example, Wang & Guthrie, 2004).

Wang and Guthrie (2004) conducted a study to examine the extent that motivational processes facilitate reading comprehension and possible effect of culture on this relationship. The researchers shaped their ideas with their study on reading motivation, examining how intrinsic and extrinsic motivations correlate with text comprehension. Students from the United States ($N = 187$) and China ($N = 197$) participated in the study. The results supported the theory of the correlations between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations with different relationships of text comprehension. With both groups, intrinsic motivation was positively related to text comprehension, in their words “intrinsic motivation is pivotal to successful reading” (p. 182). However, extrinsic motivation was negatively related. The reason why extrinsic motivation did not predict text comprehension was, according to the researchers, that these students may lack the intention or desire to understand the texts. On the other hand, intrinsic and extrinsic reasons together explained a larger proportion of variance in how much children read than either one alone. The expectation that text comprehension is dependent on culture was not supported by the results of the study, in that American and Chinese students showed similar structural motivation-reading comprehension relationships. This study supported teacher and parent involvement and encouragement with students reading, especially to help students attain both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Tercanlioğlu (2001) conducted a study to understand the nature of Turkish students' reading motivation and its relation to their reading frequencies. Two

instruments were used in this study: the *Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)* and the *Reading Activity Inventory (RAI)*. The participants were 7th, 8th and 9th grade students of an Anatolian High School. The results showed that both more intrinsic motivation like *Curiosity* and *Challenge*, and more extrinsic motivation like *Grades* and *Competition* have the highest mean scores. Whereas *Social Reasons* for reading and *Reading Work Avoidance* have the lowest scores. In terms of the reading frequencies of students it was found that boys do more school reading whereas girls do more reading for personal pleasure. The school reading frequency had a positive correlation with both individual belief of being an efficacious reader, and more intrinsic motivations like *curiosity* and *involvement* and more extrinsic motivations like *recognition* and *grades*.

Another instrument “*Motivation/Attitude Questionnaire*” (Dörnyei, 1990) was utilized in another study conducted by Mendi (2009). The study explored the relationships between students’ reported use of reading strategies, motivation and reading proficiency performance. Another aim of the study was to investigate the effects of gender, language proficiency level and amount of outside reading on students’ reported use of reading strategies, foreign language learning motivation and reading proficiency performance. Findings showed the students were not extensively involved in reading outside class although for most of them reading in English was important for language learning. This study showed that reported use of reading strategies did not significantly vary according to gender and language proficiency level; however, there was a positive effect of outside reading on the use of problem solving strategies. Moreover, female students and intermediate level students were found to be more motivated than male students and elementary level students. The

students who spent much time on reading English outside class showed higher motivation levels than students who read less. Finally, the study revealed a positive relationship between reading strategy use and motivation, and between reading performance and motivation.

Another study focusing on the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on reading achievement was conducted by Unrau and Schlackman (2006). The study took place over a two year time period in which the students were in grades 6-7 or grades 7-8. The participants were of Hispanic and Asian ethnicity. The results indicated that there was a significant decline in motivation to read. In higher grades; however, the students had better reading achievement, which would follow the idea that students' academic achievement improve with each grade level. Also, girls were significantly more affected by extrinsic motivations than were boys. Regarding ethnicity as a factor, the researchers found that intrinsic motivation predicted reading achievement of the Asian students, showing Asian students performing at significantly higher levels than the Hispanic students. The reason for this, according to the researchers, was associated to the different orientations of different cultures have to school life.

2.4.2 Reading Motivation and Other Variables

Yamashita (2007) conducted a study to examine the transfer of reading attitudes from L1 to L2. She utilized the same questionnaire with different wording to explore both L1 reading and L2 reading attitudes. The constructs *comfort*, *intellectual value*, *practical value*, *linguistic value*, and *anxiety* comprised attitudes to reading in L1 and L2. The results indicated that there were significant differences

between L1 and L2 reading attitudes in that (a) students feel *more comfortable* in reading L1 than L2, (b) students believe that they achieve *higher intellectual* development from reading L1 than L2, (c) students believe that they obtain *higher practical benefits* from reading L2 than L1, (d) students feel *more anxious* in reading L2 than L1 (e) students believe that they achieve *higher linguistic development* from reading L2 than L1. A possible reason for the significant differences between L1 and L2 reading attitudes is that, according to the researcher, L2 reading is largely restricted to class work.

The results also revealed that, different from transfer of reading abilities and strategies, the influence of L2 proficiency is weaker, and this indicates that the aspect of a linguistic threshold does not apply to the transfer of reading attitudes from L1 to L2. The effect of proficiency level on attitude transfer was in the case of *linguistic value*, in that the advanced group showed a significant difference between L1 and L2. The reason for this was reported to be difficult to interpret. *Comfort* is also affected by proficiency level in that it was observed that advanced learners feel *more comfortable* in their L2 reading than lower level learners, and that the transfer of a comfortable feeling from L1 to L2 reading is more strongly affected by L2 proficiency than transfer of other types of reading attitude.

Kamhi-Stein (2003) qualitatively analyzed the role of affective factors such as readers' views of their home language and beliefs about reading. The study participants were four L2 college readers of Spanish and English, all from an immigrant background and all considered academically *underprepared* for college, this was determined by their success levels in a series of tests. Data were collected through think-aloud protocols, open-ended interviews, self-assessment inventories,

and reading comprehension measures in Spanish and English. Qualitative data analyses showed that readers' attitudes toward their home language influenced their reading behavior. Specifically, in contrast to the two readers who viewed their LI as a problem, the readers who viewed their LI as a resource chose to purposefully translate mentally into their home language when reading in the L2. If reading was considered a process of constructing meaning, readers employed a multi-strategic approach. When reading was seen a process of understanding the meaning of words, or a process of learning how to pronounce words, readers viewed reading as a logocentric process, which require a small repertoire of strategies, all designed to uncover the meaning of unknown words rather than to negotiate the meaning of the text.

In the study conducted by McKenna, Kear, and Ellsworth (1995), the researchers explored the effect of *age, gender, grade level, ethnicity, and reading ability*. The students were placed into three categories of ethnicity, namely African American, Hispanic, or White. Within the three subcultures in this study, the reading cultural norms were similar. The reason for this was that "mere membership in an ethnic group may involve too broad categorization for meaningful social norms to affect beliefs" (p. 952). Age, proficiency, and gender seem to be better predictors of attitudes toward reading. McKenna, Kear, and Ellsworth (1995) also found that girls possessed a more positive attitude toward academic and recreational reading than boys. Regarding the effect of gender, the recreational attitude gap widens with age, but the academic attitudes were fairly constant. The most remarkable result of the study was that the relationship between ability and attitude grows stronger in time.

This finding suggests an increasing effect of undesirable experiences on the attitudes of poor readers, just as the McKenna model predicts.

2.4.3 Habits and Behaviors of Readers

McKool's (2007) study with fifth grade students revealed several significant factors related to students choosing to read. The study focused specifically on fifth grade students because this is the *critical age* at which students develop habits of voluntary reading. The researcher found similarities and differences among *avid* and *reluctant* readers. Most of the students did little out-of-school voluntary reading: while avid readers read an average of 46 minutes a day, reluctant readers read 17 minutes. Another difference was with reading attitudes and motivations. Avid readers had “much higher self-concepts as readers and tended to value the importance of reading more than reluctant readers” (p. 120).

It was revealed that home life and preschool literacy experiences had a direct relation to students' ability and attitude toward reading. It was underlined that “the dearth of reading done outside of school is not an exclusively low income phenomenon” (p. 119) but it is a phenomenon of positive home environment in that those from middle and high income families had books available on a daily basis, and had positive reading modeled in the home.

The findings from this study also found that students needed opportunities to discuss their voluntary reading, either at home or school. While more avid readers had this opportunity at home, the students in this study revealed they did not have that same opportunity at school. Finally the study revealed that low income students watched significantly more television a day than did middle/high income students.

Excessive television viewing has been offered as a possible reason many children choose not to read outside of school.

From a more theoretical framework, regarding the amount and the breadth of reading, it was found that students with high *intrinsic motivation* are likely to read more frequently and report higher amounts of reading (Wang & Guthrie, 2004; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997b). In addition, it was concluded that children who report that they are motivated to read tend to increase their reading.

2.5 Summary of the Chapter

This review of literature attempted to provide a general framework for research in reading skill, language learning motivation and reading motivation. It was observed that in Turkey, reading research has been dominated by strategy use or strategy instruction studies (Uzunçakmak, 2005; Yiğiter et al., 2005; Tercanlıoğlu, 2004; Arpacıoğlu, 2007; Sadık, 2005; Kantarcı, 2006). The discussion related to the effectiveness of strategy instruction, mentioned above, in mind, it was the researcher's belief that there is more to reading skill than simply focusing on strategy use. Believing that reading, academic or recreational, does not just happen and it is a construct that is difficult to define, the researcher focused on the idea that there should be a "drive" to read, which is named as motivation in the literature. The study aims at understanding the nature of motivation and its role in foreign language learners' reading achievement.

In accordance with the information presented in the literature review part, this study aims at answering the research questions stated in Chapter 1. It has

significance in that it sets out to explore the perceptions of preparatory school students and instructors simultaneously.

In the next section, Chapter 3, the Methodology of this study is explained.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the methodology of this study is explained. After explaining the context of the study, data collection and analysis methods are discussed. The instruments used in data collection process are presented in order to get a clear picture of the data collection and analysis procedures.

3.2 Research Design and Research Methodology

3.2.1 Research Design

This research study was designed to answer three research questions. Firstly, the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading motivation was explored. Similarly, the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading achievement was analyzed. Thirdly, the contribution of L2 reading motivation to L2 reading achievement was investigated. In addition, the effect of instruction levels of students on their motivation was explored. In order to explore these, a *questionnaire* which was adapted from the related literature was used.

Finally, the pedagogical value given to motivational aspects of reading motivation in reading sessions was explored to gain insight into both the teachers' and students' perceptions of reading motivation. In order to address this, qualitative data gathered through semi-structured face-to-face interviews were used.

Thus, in order to reach these aims ranging from qualitative concerns to quantitative ones, this research based its methodology on *mixed-methods* approach. The main design of the study was a quantitative study with face-to-face interviews included in it to broaden data coverage.

Thus, in order to reach these aims ranging from qualitative concerns to quantitative concerns, this research grounded its methodology on mixed-methods approach (Table 2).

Table 2. Research Questions, Methods and Instruments Used in the Study

| Research Question | Method | Instrument |
|---|------------------------------|---|
| 1. What is the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation? | Quantitative and Qualitative | Questionnaire and face-to-face interviews |
| 2. What is the relationship between L1 Reading motivation and L2 reading achievement? | Quantitative and Qualitative | Questionnaire and face-to-face interviews |
| 3. What is the relationship between L2 Reading motivation and L2 reading achievement? | Quantitative and Qualitative | Questionnaire and face-to-face interviews |

3.2.2 Research Methodology

In this study, in order to address research questions of qualitative and quantitative nature, data collection and analysis techniques from both methodologies were implemented; therefore, *mixed-method* approach was chosen as the methodology of this research. Mixed-method research is good to use if the aim is to build the research on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2005). As Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2007) argue mixed-method provides more

elaborated understanding and greater confidence in conclusions in addition to providing richer, more meaningful and more useful answers to research questions.

Another advantage of using mixed-methodology is the fact that using various data collection tools makes the study more valid and reliable, which was one of the prominent purposes of using this methodology for this study. Similarly, Krathwohl (1998) claims that using multiple research methods helps make the study stronger. Furthermore, in this study, the raw numbers calculated from the questionnaire data as to the nature of reading motivation and habits of the students gained deeper meaning with the help of the interviews, which asked the respondents what really happens in the classroom regarding the effects of motivational aspects on students reading comprehension. Student interviews, similarly, provided first hand and deeper information about what motivates the students. In other words, the quantitative data was validated with the help of qualitative data.

Mixed-methodology design used in this study was *triangulation*. The strength of this design is that it combines the advantages of quantitative and qualitative data in that quantitative data provides for generalizability and qualitative data offers information about the context or setting (Creswell, 2005).

During data collection period, *concurrent triangulation strategy* was employed. The researcher collected both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently and then compared the data to decide if there was convergence, differences or some combination. The strength of this strategy is that using separate quantitative and qualitative means compensate for the weaknesses inherent in one method with the strengths of the other (Creswell, 2009).

In this study, the mixed methodology helped explain the nature of reading motivation and its effect on the foreign language students' reading comprehension with the help of the questionnaire. In addition, with the help of the interviews the pedagogical values the teachers and students attach to motivational aspects that were not covered by the questionnaire were revealed.

In the next section, the setting, participants, data collection instruments and data analysis procedures will be explained and a clear picture of the methodology of this study will be formed.

3.3 Setting and Participants of the Study

3.3.1 Populations and Settings

To make the way of participant selection clearer, a summary of the system applied in the institution the data collected at is necessary. At Atılım University, students are placed into three different courses at the beginning of the year according to their levels, namely C (elementary) B (Intermediate) and A (Upper-Intermediate) according to the scores they get in the *Placement Exam*. (There is also a supplementary Pro level, which aims to prepare those students who accomplished all three courses but failed to pass the proficiency exam they took at the end of the year; yet, it has a different procedure and is out of the scope of this study.)

Every course lasts for three months (12 weeks). At the end of three months they pass to the next level if they get the required points from the mid-term examinations, weekly quizzes, reading examinations, writing papers and presentations. If they cannot accumulate the satisfactory points, they fail the course and repeat the same course for another three months.

3.3.1.1 Questionnaire Population and Setting

The respondents for the questionnaire were foreign language students at Atılım University. Respondents were at two different instruction levels, namely pre-intermediate (N = 172) and upper-intermediate (N = 101). *Pre-intermediate* and *upper-intermediate* instruction levels were chosen in order to see the effect of proficiency level *better* in that pre-intermediate and intermediate level students, for example, would be *too close* to reveal this effect. The students are placed in these levels depending on their results in the *Placement Exam*, given by the institution at the beginning of the academic year. Eight of these respondents were also interviewed on a voluntary basis, after the administration of the questionnaire.

3.3.1.2 Age, Gender and Educational Background of the Respondents

The questionnaire was distributed to a total of 273 respondents, which was composed of 172 pre-intermediate and 101 upper-intermediate students. As for the gender distribution of the respondents, 42.1% of them were females and 57.9 % of them were males (Table 3).

Table 3. Gender Ratio of Questionnaire Population

| | <i>N</i> | <i>% of total</i> |
|---------------|----------|-------------------|
| Female | 115 | 42,1 |
| Male | 158 | 57,9 |

In terms of age, most of the students were at the age of 19 (or younger) and within the range of 20-23. (Table 4).

Table 4. Age Distribution of Questionnaire Population

| | <i>N</i> | <i>% of total</i> |
|-----------------------|----------|-------------------|
| 19 and younger | 127 | 46,5 |
| 20-23 | 126 | 46,2 |
| 24-29 | 18 | 6,6 |
| 30-39 | 2 | 0,7 |

As for the distribution of the respondents in terms of their educational background, most of the students graduated from Anatolian High school or State High schools (Table 5).

Table 5. Educational Background of Questionnaire Population

| | <i>N</i> | <i>% of total</i> |
|--|----------|-------------------|
| State High School | 113 | 41,4 |
| Anatolian High School | 63 | 23,1 |
| Private High School | 56 | 20,5 |
| Foreign Language Intensive H.S. | 16 | 5,9 |
| Vocational High School | 12 | 4,4 |
| Other | 5 | 1,8 |
| Science High School | 4 | 1,5 |
| Teacher Training High School | 4 | 1,5 |

3.3.1.3 Interview Participants

As for the selection of the *student interviewees*, purposeful sampling procedures were implemented. Student selection process was based on the students' L2 reading motivation scores obtained from the questionnaire they filled in considering the fact that the medium of instruction is English and the purpose of conducting interviews is to explore the classroom practices and environment of the preparatory school. 33rd and 67th percentile scores were calculated. Scores lower than 3.22 belonged to *lower third*, whereas scores higher than 3.60 belonged to *upper third* of the total L2 reading motivation score distribution. Four (out of 89 students) *lower third* group students (2 males and 2 females) and four (out of 89 students) *upper third* group students (2 males and 2 females) were interviewed on a voluntary basis.

Teacher interviewees were the academic advisors of the questionnaire respondents. A total of 15 (24 % of the total instructors who teach main course) instructors were interviewed on a voluntary basis. Academic advisors were chosen considering the fact that the aim of the interviews was to understand the students' habits and behaviors in the classroom and their academic advisors were the instructors who taught them the most, in terms of class hours. In addition, they had access to the students' personal files that were filled in by the students at the beginning of the term and included information about the students' family, economic and educational background. Before the interviews, the interviewees were kindly asked to have a look at these files in order to have a general idea about the students' backgrounds.

The interviews took fifteen to thirty-five minutes and they were conducted in available quiet rooms. After getting permission from the interviewees, an audio recorder was used and upon their approval the interviews were recorded to be transcribed and analyzed later. In order to prevent language related constraints the interviews were conducted in Turkish, the mother tongue of the interviewees.

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

In this study, mainly two types of data collection instruments were used: a questionnaire (See Appendix 1) and face-to-face semi-structured interviews (See Appendices 3 and 4).

3.4.1 The Questionnaire

The advantages of using a questionnaire as a data collection tool mainly comes from the fact that with the help of questionnaires large amounts of quantitative

data can be collected quickly and economically from a large sample (Krathwohl, 1998). Moreover, with the help of data analysis software, such as SPSS, the data can be statistically analyzed easily and efficiently. Another advantage of questionnaires is that it is possible to analyze them *reliably*.

3.4.1.1 The Design and Development of the Questionnaire

Reading Motivation in L1 and Reading Motivation in L2 Questionnaire

(Appendix 1) consisted of 66 items (33 items in L1 section and 33 items in L2 section). The questionnaire was adapted from Wang & Guthrie's *Motivations for Reading Questionnaire* (2004) and Yamashita's (2007) reading attitude questionnaire.

In the first part of the questionnaire, *demographic information* about the students was collected. This part included questions about the respondents' age, gender, faculty, and the high school they finished.

The second part of the questionnaire, *Reading Motivation in L1*, was designed to explore the nature of the reading motivation in Turkish, as well as the habits of the respondents. In order to analyze the habits of the respondents, they were asked about *what* they like to read, *how often* they read, *how long* they read and *how many pages* they read.

The third part of the questionnaire, *Reading Motivation in L2*, included the same items as the second part but with different wording. The same questions focusing on the habits of students were repeated here, again with different wording.

Item 8 (Reading **Turkish** materials is useful to get good grades in my courses) and item 16 (Reading **Turkish** materials is useful to express myself better in

exams) were reworded in the *Reading Motivation in L2* section. Since the students take exams only in English at the Preparatory School, in L1 section the indirect role of reading in L1 was mentioned. In Reading Motivation in L2 section the items were worded as follows:

Item 8: Reading **English** materials is useful to get good grades in the quizzes and mid-term exams.

Item 16: Reading **English** materials is useful to pass the Proficiency Exam.

Except for the *demographic information* and the *L1 / L2 Reading Habits* parts, the students were asked to respond to Likert-scale statements, from 1 (*I strongly disagree*) to 5 (*I strongly agree*).

In addition, the questionnaire was administrated in Turkish in order to limit the misunderstandings and increase the reliability. In the process of developing the questionnaire, *backtranslation* method was utilized: first, all of the items were translated into Turkish by two language instructors with an MA in ELT. Next, the Turkish version was backtranslated into English by two other language instructors with an MA and the differences were identified. The best translation versions for these differences were determined as a group.

3.4.1.2 Piloting the Questionnaire

In order to both improve the quality of the prepared questionnaire and analyze the potential effectiveness of the questions, the questionnaire was piloted one month before the actual data collection process. The piloting population (N=145; 62 female and 83 male) was similar to the intended population; they were intermediate level students at the Preparatory School of Atılım University.

Overall reliability of the questionnaire was quite high: for *Reading Motivation in L1*, reliability coefficient was .911. Similarly, for *Reading Motivation in L2*, it was .872. However, reliability coefficients of some factors were quite low (Tables 6 & 7).

Table 6. Reliability Analysis of the Piloting- *Reading Motivation in L1*

| Factor | Number of Items | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
|-------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------|
| Value | 7 | .882 |
| Recognition | 5 | .927 |
| Reasons to read | 10 | .913 |
| Anxiety | 3 | .584 |
| Comfort | 3 | .652 |
| Difficulty ¹ | 2 | .189 |
| Strategy ² | 1 | - |

Table 7. Reliability Analysis of the Piloting- *Reading Motivation in L2*

| Factor | Number of Items | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------------------|
| Value | 8 | .889 |
| Recognition | 5 | .905 |
| Reasons to read | 10 | .889 |
| Anxiety | 3 | .383 |
| Comfort | 3 | .681 |
| Value ³ | 1 | - |
| Strategy ⁴ | 1 | - |

¹ This factor was not extracted in the actual data analysis.

² This item was under a different factor in the actual data analysis.

³ This item was under a different factor in the actual data analysis.

⁴ This item was under a different factor in the actual data analysis.

As seen in Tables 6 and 7, both in L1 and L2, reliability coefficient of the factor *anxiety* was not at an acceptable level: .584 for L1 Reading Motivation and .383 for L2 Reading Motivation. When reliability is concerned, Freedheim et al. (2003) claim that reliability coefficient *over* $r = .60$ is acceptable depending on the purpose of the questionnaire. With the help of the piloting, some question formats were refined, and the wordings of some items were changed in order to prevent ambiguity. None of the items was discarded from the questionnaire on expert opinion in order keep the internal validity of the questionnaire.

3.4.2 Mid-term Exams as Reading Achievement Indicator

The respondents of the questionnaire were chosen according to their *instruction levels*; pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate. In each of the levels, students take two achievement exams prepared by the testing unit. The reading part of the exam comprises 25 % of the total grade of the exam. In this part, there is one text whose length depends on the level of the students. As for question types, open ended comprehension questions, True/False items, vocabulary-guess items and textual reference questions are utilized to assess the reading comprehension questions.

3.4.2.1 Validity and Reliability of the Mid-term Exams

To begin with, the exams are prepared by the instructors with 25 to 30 years of teaching and 5 to 7 years of testing experience. After the preparation of the exams, every question is checked by a native speaker of English. Exam papers are checked according to an answer key, which is revised after standardization sessions. All of the

papers are checked twice according to this revised key. All these support the idea that these mid-term exams are fairly reliable.

As for the validity of the exams, it should be noted that the exams are prepared by testing unit members. The texts for the exams are chosen depending on the levels of the students. Considering the fact that there is only one text in each exam, and more texts and more questions would give a better and more reliable understanding of the reading achievement of the students, the average of *three* exam results was utilized as the reading achievement index of the students. Due to institutional restrictions, no sample mid-term exams are presented here.

In order to dwell upon the *validity* of the mid-term exams, a face-to-face interview was conducted with the *head of the testing unit* of the institution. She argued that the mid-term exams *are* valid, because the texts are chosen according to the levels of the students. In addition, the interests of the students are taken into account. Also they pay attention to pick texts with current topics. These are done in order to limit the possible negative effect of the topic of the text on students' comprehension. They pay attention to include task types similar to the course book. However, due to practicality reasons, such as time, they cannot include tasks such as scanning longer texts. Depending on her five-year experience in the testing unit, and she strongly believes that the mid-term exams, the Proficiency Exam, and the Placement Exam are quite successful in determining what the students can achieve and the level they are in.

In addition, as a part of the curriculum evaluation process done by the Preparatory School, 27 of the questionnaire respondents took the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Due to administrative restrictions, official results

were not released; however, before the exam the students got training and during this process, they took an official sample exam. The reading scores of this sample exam were utilized in the correlation analysis to check the concurrent and construct validity of the mid-term exams. Even though the second and the third mid-term did not correlate at high levels, all of the correlations were significant. The reading achievement indicator used in data analysis was the average result of the mid-term exams and it moderately correlated with the IELTS reading scores (Table 8).

Table 8. Correlations – Mid-term and IELTS

| | IELTS score |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| Mid-term 1 | .714** |
| Mid-term 2 | .442* |
| Mid-term 3 | .385* |
| Average | .688** |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Besides it should be noted that IELTS is a commonly used measure of English proficiency. In the literature there are studies that investigated the predictive validity of IELTS and the results revealed significant correlations ($r = .52$, $p < .05$) between overall IELTS score and first-semester GPA. The correlation for reading and GPA was $r = .42$, which was significant. (Bellingham, 1993, as cited in Lee & Greene, 2007).

Considering the small sample size ($N=27$), these correlations would indicate a favorable idea regarding the validity of the mid-term exams.

3.4.3 Interviews with the Teachers and the Students

3.4.3.1 Teacher Interviews

In this study, in addition to collecting quantitative data and getting statistical information about the respondents, gaining an insight from the teachers with regard to the classroom practices of the teachers was also one of the main goals. To this end, with the help of face-to-face interviews qualitative data was collected.

As Krathwohl (1998) suggested when the research questions are preplanned in nature (a hypothesis, for instance), rather than emergent ones, more structured interviews suits better as data collection tools. In addition, one of the main reasons for the selection of *semi-structured* face-to-face interviews as the data collection tool is that they fit best when the research purpose is to understand the meaning of the experiences of the people involved in education (Kvale, 1996).

The semi-structured face-to-face interviews used in this study were composed of predetermined, theory-driven themes. These themes included:

- personal factors affecting student motivation
- effect of student motivation to read on classroom practices
- effect of the reading syllabus on classroom practices
- macro factors that affect students' motivation to read in L1 and L2

3.4.3.2 Student Interviews

Besides teacher interviews, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with students from both instruction levels. The aim was to understand the nature of their motivation to read deeply. Also one of the purposes of the student interviews was to cross check the teacher interviews, and to understand the role of the teacher in motivating the students to read.

Theory-driven themes of the student interviews were:

- the formation of their motivation to read
- the effect of contextual surroundings (such as teacher, materials) on their motivation
- their expectations about their future education in their departments

3.5 Data Analysis

3.5.1 Factor Analysis – Quantitative Data

In order to ease the analysis of the questionnaire, factor analyses were conducted. DeCoster (2004) defines factor analysis as “a collection of methods used to examine how underlying constructs influence the responses on a number of measured variables” (p. 50). Instead of explaining each item in the questionnaire, factors were extracted and they were utilized to comprehend what the questionnaire results meant. The total variance explained by the second part of the questionnaire (*Reading Motivation in L1*) was quite high (64.4 %). The percentages of the variance explained by the *factors* extracted in this section ranged from 6.3 % to 19.9 %. Similarly, the third part of the questionnaire (*Reading Motivation in L2*) explained 61.7 % of the variance. The factors identified in this section explained variances ranging from 6 % to 16.5 %.

Thanks to the pilot study and the revisions made, all of the reliability coefficients were at acceptable levels (Table 9).

Table 9. Reliability of the Questionnaire

| Factors | L1 (overall: .937) | L2 (overall: .891) |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Reasons to read | .919 | .888 |
| Recognition | .907 | .916 |
| Value | .878 | .869 |
| Anxiety | .676 | .762 |
| Comfort | .654 | .617 |
| Information/Career | .765 | .615 |

3.5.2 Analysis of the Qualitative Data

In order to analyze the qualitative data obtained from the interviews, Attride-Stirling's (2001) *thematic networks* were utilized. In her words, what thematic networks are

simply a way of organizing a thematic analysis of qualitative data. Thematic analyses seek to unearth the themes salient in a text at different levels, and thematic networks aim to facilitate the structuring and depiction of these themes (p. 387).

In thematic networks analysis, three concepts are used to conceptualize the qualitative data: (a) basic themes; (b) organizing themes; (c) global themes. First, *basic themes* are lowest-order premises evident in the text. Second, *organizing themes* are categories of basic themes grouped together to summarize more abstract principles. Third, *global themes* refer to super-ordinate themes summarizing the principal metaphors in the text as a whole.

During the analysis process, first, as Attride-Stirling (2001) suggests, the transcribed interviews were coded considering the repeated topics or concepts. Then related codes were grouped. These groups were not repetitive but discrete. Then, these themes were arranged into basic themes. After this, an abstract analysis was

started. The basic themes were put in a sequential order. Basic themes constituted organizing themes. Naturally, the number of the organizing themes was fewer than basic themes. Finally, organizing themes were put under the global themes.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the results of the collected data will be presented. The data from the questionnaire was analyzed using the SPSS program. The statements that claim similar views, and loaded on the same factor were examined in groups in accordance with the factor analysis. While a theory and data driven thematic analysis was used in the analysis of the interviews, a series of hierarchical regression analyses were used to analyze factors that show the nature of reading motivation.

In addition, a total of 23 interviews were conducted (15 interviews with teachers and 8 interviews with students). The interviews were conducted in a face-to-face fashion. As the interviews were semi-structured, the questions were constructed around themes. Therefore, in the analysis of the interviews the pre-determined themes were compared with the interpreted data from the transcriptions.

The overall analysis of the data was conducted in alignment with the research questions of the study. While the quantitative data explained the overall tendency of the population, the qualitative data was used to support and gain insight about the questionnaire findings.

4.2 Factors Identified in the Questionnaire

Factor analysis was applied to determine how many factors were involved in students' responses to the questionnaire. The principal factor method was used to extract the factors having eigenvalue more than one. An item was regarded as being

loaded on a factor when the absolute value of factor loading was greater than 0.40. Following this, four items (items 18 “I get to know about new ways of thinking if I read materials in Turkish/English” and 23 “I like to read in Turkish/English because I always feel happy when I read things that are of interest to me”) were discarded from the questionnaire. On expert opinion, for L1 reading motivation and L2 reading motivation an identical pattern was *not* adopted; some of the questionnaire items loaded on different factors (Tables 10 and 11).

4.2.1 Reading Motivation in L1

The first factor was interpreted as *reasons to read*, because the items loaded on this factor were concerned with the question why the students read (e.g., “I read about my hobbies to learn more about them from Turkish materials”, “I have favorite subjects that I like to read about in Turkish”). The second factor was interpreted as *recognition*, because the items on this factor reflected the importance they assigned to other people’s ideas about their reading habits or success (e.g., “I like having my friends sometimes tell me I am good at reading in Turkish”, “I like having the teacher say I read well in Turkish”). The third factor included the items that showed the *value* the students put on reading, linguistic, practical or intellectual (Yamashita, 2007). Sample items on this factor were: “Reading Turkish materials is useful to get good grades in my courses” (*practical value*), “I can develop reading ability if I read materials in Turkish” (*linguistic value*), and “I can acquire broad knowledge if I read materials in Turkish” (*intellectual value*). The items loaded on the fourth factor represented *anxiety* (e.g., I feel anxious when I’m not sure whether I understood the content of the Turkish material I am reading”). Fifth factor was interpreted as

comfort; the items loaded on this factor were concerned with positive or negative feelings towards reading (e.g., “Reading materials in Turkish is troublesome”, “I feel tired if I read materials in Turkish”). The last factor was named *information* because the items on this factor reflected the idea that the student read to get information from different sources (e.g., “I can get various types of information if I read materials in Turkish”). Table 10 shows the complete items on each factor.

Reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s α) were at acceptable levels and varied from .65 to .91. (Please refer to Table 9, reproduced here for the convenience of the reader).

Table 9. Reliability of the Questionnaire

| Factors | L1 (overall: .937) | L2 (overall: .891) |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Reasons to read | .919 | .888 |
| Recognition | .907 | .916 |
| Value | .878 | .869 |
| Anxiety | .676 | .762 |
| Comfort | .654 | .617 |
| Information/Career | .765 | .615 |

4.2.2 Reading Motivation in L2

Since an identical pattern between L1 and L2 reading motivation was not followed, there were different items loaded on the same factors. To begin with, the same items loaded on the factors *recognition*, *anxiety* and *comfort*. However, item 16 “Reading English materials is useful to pass the Proficiency Exam”; item 26 “Reading materials in English is useful to get a job” loaded on the factor *value*. This was quite logical since knowing English is one of the requirements to get a job in Turkey. In addition, the benefit of reading to pass the exit exam was reflected as a

practical value the students put on reading. Two more items related to information item 2 “I can get various types of information if I read materials in English” and item 1 “I can become more sophisticated if I read materials (books, magazines, newspapers, textbooks, the Internet) in English” loaded on the factor value. This reflected the *intellectual value* the students put on reading.

Item 4 “Reading materials in English is useful for my future career” and item 9 “I can acquire broad knowledge if I read materials in English” constituted a factor named as *career*. Being more general than getting a job, career opportunities of Turkish students are very much dependent on knowing at least one foreign language in Turkey, which is English most of the time. If the young have broad knowledge acquired through a foreign language, and if they can express themselves well in another language, they have better career opportunities. Complete items can be seen in Table 11.

Similar to L1 reading motivation factors, reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s α) were at acceptable levels and varied from .61 to .91 (Please refer to Table 9 on page 65).

Table 10. Factor Loadings (L1)

| Items | Reasons | Recognition | Value | Anxiety | Comfort | Information |
|--|---------|-------------|-------|---------|---------|-------------|
| 30. Reading materials in Turkish is enjoyable. | .749 | | | | | |
| 27. I have favorite subjects that I like to read about in Turkish. | .734 | | | | | |
| 31. I like to read about new things (different cultures, traditions, sports etc) from Turkish materials. | .728 | | | | | |
| 29. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them from Turkish materials. | .720 | | | | | |
| 24. I feel refreshed and rested if I read materials in Turkish. | .683 | | | | | |
| 32. I get to know about different values if I read materials in Turkish. | .655 | | | | | |
| 33. I enjoy reading about different countries and learning about them (people, culture, food, traditions etc of those countries) from Turkish materials. | .643 | | | | | |
| 25. If the teacher or a friend discusses something interesting I might read more about it from Turkish materials. | .622 | | | | | |
| 26. Reading materials in Turkish is useful to get a job. | .560 | | | | | |
| 16. Reading Turkish materials is useful to express myself better in exams. | .477 | | | | | |
| 11. I feel relaxed if I read materials in Turkish. | .453 | | | | | |
| 10. I like having the teacher say I read well in Turkish. | | .829 | | | | |
| 13. I like having my friends sometimes tell me I am good at reading in Turkish. | | .827 | | | | |
| 21. I like having my parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in Turkish. | | .818 | | | | |
| 15. I am happy when someone recognizes my reading ability in Turkish. | | .813 | | | | |

Table 10. Continued

| Items | Reasons | Recognition | Value | Anxiety | Comfort | Information |
|--|---------|-------------|-------|---------|---------|-------------|
| 6. I like to get compliments for my reading ability in Turkish. | | .682 | | | | |
| 4. Reading materials in Turkish is useful for my future career. | | | .772 | | | |
| 8. Reading Turkish materials is useful to get good grades in my courses. | | | .596 | | | |
| 7. I can acquire vocabulary and knowledge about Turkish if I read materials in Turkish. | | | .540 | | | |
| 9. I can acquire broad knowledge if I read materials in Turkish. | | | .534 | | | |
| 14. I can develop reading ability if I read materials in Turkish. | | | .498 | | | |
| 19. I can improve my sensitivity to the Turkish language if I read materials in Turkish. | | | .441 | | | |
| 22. I feel anxious when I'm not sure whether I understood the content of the Turkish material I am reading. | | | | .834 | | |
| 5. I feel anxious if I don't know all the words when I read something in Turkish. | | | | .718 | | |
| 12. When I read something in Turkish, sometimes feel anxious that I may not understand even if I read | | | | .684 | | |
| 28. I don't mind even if I cannot understand the content entirely when I read something in Turkish. | | | | | .699 | |
| 3. Reading materials in Turkish is troublesome. | | | | | .548 | |
| 20. I feel tired if I read materials in Turkish. | | | | | .544 | |
| 17. Reading materials in Turkish is dull. | | | | | .493 | |
| 1. I can become more sophisticated if I read materials (books, magazines, newspapers, textbooks, the Internet etc) in Turkish. | | | | | | .777 |
| 2. I can get various types of information if I read materials in Turkish. | | | | | | .746 |

Table 11. Factor Loadings (L2)

| Items | Reasons | Recognition | Value | Anxiety | Comfort | Career |
|--|---------|-------------|-------|---------|---------|--------|
| 30. Reading materials in English is enjoyable. | .750 | | | | | |
| 27. I have favorite subjects that I like to read about in English. | .649 | | | | | |
| 31. I like to read about new things (different cultures, traditions, sports etc) from English materials. | .791 | | | | | |
| 29. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them from English materials. | .757 | | | | | |
| 24. I feel refreshed and rested if I read materials in English. | .710 | | | | | |
| 32. I get to know about different values if I read materials in English. | .526 | | | | | |
| 33. I enjoy reading about different countries and learning about them (people, culture, food, traditions etc of those countries) from English materials. | .574 | | | | | |
| 25. If the teacher or a friend discusses something interesting I might read more about it from English materials. | .656 | | | | | |
| 11. I feel relaxed if I read materials in English. | .548 | | | | | |
| 10. I like having the teacher say I read well in English | | .781 | | | | |
| 13. I like having my friends sometimes tell me I am good at reading in English. | | .858 | | | | |
| 21. I like having my parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in English. | | .801 | | | | |
| 15. I am happy when someone recognizes my reading ability in English. | | .791 | | | | |
| 6. I like to get compliments for my reading ability in English. | | .762 | | | | |
| 8. Reading English materials is useful to get good grades in my courses. | | | .709 | | | |
| 7. I can acquire vocabulary and knowledge about English if I read materials in English. | | | .641 | | | |

Table 11. Continued

| Items | Reasons | Recognition | Value | Anxiety | Comfort | Career |
|--|---------|-------------|-------|---------|---------|--------|
| 14. I can develop reading ability if I read materials in English. | | | .525 | | | |
| 19. I can improve my sensitivity to the English language if I read materials in English. | | | .505 | | | |
| 16. Reading English materials is useful is pass the Proficiency Exam. | | | .761 | | | |
| 26. Reading materials in English is useful to get a job. | | | .513 | | | |
| 2. I can get various types of information if I read materials in English. | | | .489 | | | |
| 1. I can become more sophisticated if I read materials (books, magazines, newspapers, textbooks, the Internet etc) in English. | | | .426 | | | |
| 22. I feel anxious when I'm not sure whether I understood the content of the English material I am reading. | | | | .809 | | |
| 5. I feel anxious if I don't know all the words when I read something in English. | | | | .728 | | |
| 12. When I read something in English, sometimes feel anxious that I may not understand even if I read. | | | | .701 | | |
| 28. I don't mind even if I cannot understand the content entirely when I read something in English. | | | | | .552 | |
| 3. Reading materials in English is troublesome. | | | | | .587 | |
| 20. I feel tired if I read materials in English. | | | | | .697 | |
| 17. Reading materials in English is dull. | | | | | .770 | |
| 4. Reading materials in English is useful for my future career. | | | | | | .632 |
| 9. I can acquire broad knowledge if I read materials in English. | | | | | | .434 |

4.3 Research Question 1: The Relationship between L1 and L2 Reading Motivation

In order to analyze the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed between L1 reading motivation factors and L2 reading motivation factors extracted from the questionnaire. A positive moderate correlation between the factor *recognition* in L1 and L2 ($r = .655$, $p < .001$) was observed. In addition, positive small correlations were observed between *reasons to read* in L2 and L1 ($r = .206$, $p < .001$); *value* assigned to reading in L1 and L2 ($r = .368$, $p < .001$) and L2 reading *anxiety* and L1 reading anxiety ($r = .203$, $p < .001$). No significant correlations were observed between reading *comfort* in L1 and L2 and L1 *information* and L2 *career* factors. Correlations between Turkish and English reading motivation factors are presented in the diagonal in Table 12.

Table 12. Correlations – L1 and L2 Reading Motivation Factors of the Whole Questionnaire Population

| | Reasons to read in L1 | Recog. L1 | Value assigned | Reading anxiety L1 | Comfort in L1 | Information L1 |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Reasons to Read in L2 | .206** | .248** | .116 | .131* | .008 | -.069 |
| Recognition L2 | .404** | .655** | .324** | .193** | .171** | .208** |
| Value assigned to L2 reading | .380** | .273** | .368** | .026 | .282** | .206** |
| Reading anxiety in L2 | .338** | .261** | .271** | .203** | .094 | .261** |
| Comfort in L2 | -.119 | -.147* | -.121* | -.128* | .108 | -.204 |
| Career L2 | .143* | .135* | .140* | .077 | .074 | .047 |
| N | 273 | 273 | 273 | 273 | 273 | 273 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3.1 Effect of Instruction Level on L1 and L2 Reading Motivation Relationship

4.3.1.1 Pre-intermediate Level

In order to explore the effect of instruction level on the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated first in pre-intermediate level. Regarding pre-intermediate students' responses to the questionnaire, the correlations among the factors *reasons*, *recognition*, *comfort* and *career* followed a similar pattern with the whole questionnaire population: a positive moderate correlation between L1 and L2 *recognition* ($r = .633, p < .001$) and positive small correlations between *reasons* to read in L1 and L2 ($r = .203, p < .01$) and reading *anxiety* in L1 and L2 ($r = .199, p < .01$) were observed. However, for the factors *value* the correlation level was higher than it was in the whole questionnaire population: $r = .446, p < .001$. Correlations between Turkish and English reading motivation factors are presented in the diagonal in Table 13.

Table 13. Correlations – L1 and L2 Reading Motivation Factors of the Pre-intermediate Students

| | Reasons to read in L1 | Recog. L1 | Value assigned | Reading anxiety L1 | Comfort in L1 | Information L1 |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Reasons to read in L2 | .203** | .237 | .135 | .111 | -.002 | .034 |
| Recognition L2 | .376** | .633** | .304** | .147 | .184* | .249** |
| Value assigned to L2 reading | .458** | .345** | .446** | -.006 | .319** | .412** |
| Reading anxiety in L2 | .388** | .268** | .335** | .199** | .185** | .305** |
| Comfort in L2 | -.091 | -.182 | -.105 | -.189* | .047 | -.163* |
| Career L2 | .176* | .124 | .249** | .074 | .109 | .102 |
| N | 172 | 172 | 172 | 172 | 172 | 172 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3.1.2 Upper-intermediate Level

As seen in Table 14, *reasons* to read in L1 and L2, L1 and L2 reading *recognition* and *value* assigned to reading in L1 and L2 showed similar correlation levels to the whole questionnaire population; a moderate positive correlation between L1 and L2 *recognition* ($r = .678, p < .001$) and a small correlation between *value* assigned to reading in L1 and L2 ($r = .284, p < .01$). However, no significant correlation was observed between *anxiety* in L1 reading and L2 reading ($r = .186, ns$). A small positive correlation between *comfort* in L1 and L2 reading was observed ($r = .200, p < .05$). Correlations between Turkish and English reading motivation factors are presented in the diagonal in Table 14.

Table 14. Correlations – L1 and L2 Reading Motivation Factors of the Upper-intermediate Students

| | Reasons to read in L1 | Recog. L1 | Value assigned | Reading anxiety L1 | Comfort in L1 | Information L1 |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Reasons to read in L2 | .210* | .231** | .090 | .154 | .024 | -.207* |
| Recognition L2 | .442** | .678** | .349** | .240* | .159 | .156 |
| Value assigned to L2 reading | .298** | .198* | .284** | .056 | .247* | -.028 |
| Reading anxiety in L2 | .265** | .233* | .173 | .186 | -.036 | .210* |
| Comfort in L2 | -.158 | -.104 | -.146 | -.052 | .200* | -.262** |
| Career L2 | .089 | .155 | -.033 | .084 | .015 | -.043 |
| N | 101 | 101 | 101 | 101 | 101 | 101 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.4 Research Question 2: The Relationship between L1 Reading Motivation and L2 Reading Achievement

To examine whether L1 reading motivation contributes to L2 reading achievement, multiple regression analyses were adopted. According to Pallant (2005), multiple regression tells us how much of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables. It also offers an indication of the relative contribution of each independent variable.

The dependent variable was the reading grades of the students. The independent variables were *reasons* to read in L1, L1 reading *recognition*, *value* assigned to reading in L1, L1 reading *anxiety*, reading *comfort* in L1 and L1 *information*. In addition, the period the students were exposed to English (how many years they have been learning English) was entered into the regression.

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .085$, $F(1, 271) = 25.278$, $p < .001$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 8.5 % of their reading achievement. After the addition of L1 reading motivation factors (*reasons*, *recognition*, *value*, *comfort*, *anxiety* and *information*), it was observed that none of L1 reading motivation factors significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .096$, $F(6, 265) = .508$, *ns*. Table 15 summarizes the results.

Table 15. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses – Contribution of L1 Reading Motivation

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-------------|-------|---------|-------|------|-------|----------------|
| Reasons | -.165 | -.035 | -.340 | | | |
| Recognition | .126 | .032 | .400 | | | |
| Value | -.328 | -.072 | -.685 | | | |
| Anxiety | -.233 | -.058 | -.922 | | | |
| Comfort | .188 | .039 | .531 | | | |
| Information | .370 | .091 | 1.220 | | | |
| | | | | .309 | .096 | .072 |

The column “ β ” (standardized regression coefficients) shows the relative weight of each independent variable, and the “ t ” column (t -value) indicates the significance of each independent variable. R is the multiple correlation between the Independent Variables and the Dependent Variable. Column “ R^2 ” shows the squared multiple correlation coefficient, which is interpreted as showing the percentage of variance accounted for by the independent variable on the left.

As seen in Table 15, L1 reading motivation variables were not significant predictors of the reading achievement.

4.4.1 Effect of Instruction Level on the Relationship between L1 Reading Motivation and L2 Reading Achievement

4.4.1.1 Pre-intermediate Level

In order to explore the effect of pre-intermediate instruction level, further hierarchical regression analyses were performed. In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .023$, $F(1, 170) = 3.983$, $p <$

.05. 2.3 % of the pre-intermediate students' reading achievement was predicted by the period the students have been learning English.

After the addition of L1 reading motivation factors (*reasons, recognition, value, comfort, anxiety and information*), it was observed that none of L1 reading motivation factors significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .035$, $F(6, 164) = .337$, *ns*. Table 16 summarizes the results.

Table 16. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses – Contribution of L1 Reading Motivation (Pre-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | <i>t</i> | <i>R</i> | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-------------|-------|---------|----------|----------|-------|----------------|
| Reasons | .211 | .042 | .308 | | | |
| Recognition | .124 | .029 | .294 | | | |
| Value | -.530 | -.110 | -.786 | | | |
| Anxiety | -.244 | -.056 | -.692 | | | |
| Comfort | -.043 | -.009 | .086 | | | |
| Information | .472 | .111 | 1.042 | | | |
| | | | | .187 | .035 | -.006 |

As seen in Table 16, L1 reading motivation variables were not significant predictors of the reading achievement in pre-intermediate level.

4.4.1.2 Upper-intermediate Level

The same procedure was repeated in the upper intermediate level. In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .112$, $F(1, 99) = 12.436$, $p < .001$. 11.2 % of the reading achievement of upper-intermediate students was predicted by the exposure period. After the addition of L1 reading motivation factors (*reasons, recognition, value, comfort, anxiety and information*), it was observed that none of L1 reading motivation factors significantly predicted L2

reading achievement, $R^2 = .139$, $F(6, 93) = .496$, *ns*. Table 17 summarizes the results.

Table 17. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses – Contribution of L1 Reading Motivation (Upper-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-------------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Reasons | -.633 | -.191 | -1.123 | | | |
| Recognition | .399 | .149 | 1.021 | | | |
| Value | -.112 | -.036 | -.206 | | | |
| Anxiety | -.029 | -.011 | -.099 | | | |
| Comfort | .499 | .144 | 1.237 | | | |
| Information | -.014 | -.005 | -.042 | | | |
| | | | | .373 | .139 | .074 |

As seen in Table 17, L1 reading motivation variables were not significant predictors of the reading achievement in upper-intermediate level.

It should be noted here that *in the absence of period* students have been learning English in the model, the L1 reading motivation factors were not significant predictors, either. None of the independent variables significantly contributed to L2 reading achievement; $R = .12$, $R^2 = .01$, $F(6, 266) = 0.629$, *ns*.

4.5 Research Question 3: The Relationship between L2 Reading Motivation and L2 Reading Achievement

To examine whether L2 reading motivation contributes to L2 achievement, multiple regression analyses were carried out. The dependent variable was the reading grades of the students. The independent variables were *reasons* to read in L2, L2 reading *recognition*, *value* assigned to reading in L2, L2 reading *anxiety*, reading *comfort* in L2 and L2 *career*. In addition, the period the students were exposed to the

language (how many years they have been learning English) was entered into the regression.

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .085$, $F(1, 271) = 25.278$, $p < .001$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 8.5 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L2 reading motivation factors (*reasons, recognition, value, comfort, anxiety* and *career*), it was observed that L2 reading motivation factors significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .166$, $F(6, 265) = 4.291$, $p < .001$. This indicates that the exposure period *and* L2 reading motivation factors significantly predicted 16.6 % of the reading grade. Of this variance, the exposure period accounted for 8.5 % of the variance while L2 reading motivation factors significantly explained 8.1 %. Table 18 summarizes the results.

Table 18. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Contribution of L2 Reading Motivation

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-------------|-------|---------|---------|------|-------|----------------|
| Reasons | .563 | .120 | 1.597 | | | |
| Recognition | .394 | .102 | 1.401 | | | |
| Value | .295 | .065 | .891 | | | |
| Anxiety | -.816 | -.198 | -3.086* | | | |
| Comfort | .336 | .068 | 1.097 | | | |
| Career | .109 | .050 | .845 | | | |
| | | | | .408 | .166 | .144 |

* $p < .01$

As seen in Table 18, among L2 reading motivation factors, only L2 reading *anxiety* was a significant predictor.

4.5.1 Effect of Instruction Level on the Relationship between L2 Reading Motivation and L2 Reading Achievement

4.5.1.1 Pre-intermediate Level

In order to explore the effect of pre-intermediate instruction level, further hierarchical regression analyses were performed. In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .023$, $F(1, 170) = 3.983$, $p < .05$. 2.3 % of the pre-intermediate students' reading achievement was predicted by the period the students have been learning English.

After the addition of L2 reading motivation factors (*reasons, recognition, value, comfort, anxiety and career*), it was observed that L2 reading motivation factors significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .107$, $F(6, 164) = 2.577$, $p < .05$. 10.7 % of reading achievement of the pre-intermediate students was significantly predicted by L2 reading motivation factors *and* the exposure period. L2 reading motivation factors were found to explain 8.4 % of the variance while the exposure period was found to explain 2.3 %. Table 19 summarizes the results.

Table 19. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Contribution of L2 Reading Motivation (Pre-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-------------|--------|---------|----------|------|-------|----------------|
| Reasons | .742 | .142 | .1503 | | | |
| Recognition | .508 | .119 | 1.211 | | | |
| Value | .451 | .084 | .797 | | | |
| Anxiety | -.1009 | -.227 | -.2.602* | | | |
| Comfort | .211 | .039 | .492 | | | |
| Career | .052 | .023 | .296 | | | |
| | | | | .327 | .107 | .069 |

* $p < .05$

As seen in Table 19, among L2 reading motivation variables, only L2 reading *anxiety* was a significant predictor of the reading achievement in pre-intermediate level.

4.5.1.2 Upper-intermediate Level

The same procedure was repeated in the upper intermediate level. In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .112$, $F(1, 99) = 12.436$, $p < .001$. 11.2 % of the reading achievement of upper-intermediate students was predicted by the exposure period.

After the addition of L2 reading motivation factors (*reasons, recognition, value, comfort, anxiety* and *career*), it was observed that none of L2 reading motivation factors significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .235$, $F(6, 93) = .2492$, $p < .05$. This indicates that 23.5 % of the upper-intermediate level students' reading achievement was significantly predicted by L2 reading motivation factors *and* the exposure period. Of this variance, the exposure period accounted for 11.2 % of the variance, while L2 reading motivation factors significantly explained 12.3 %. Table 20 summarizes the results.

Table 20. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Contribution of L2 Reading Motivation (Upper-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-------------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Reasons | .042 | .014 | .104 | | | |
| Recognition | .493 | .191 | 1.637 | | | |
| Value | .243 | .090 | .798 | | | |
| Anxiety | -.340 | -.120 | -1.201 | | | |
| Comfort | .666 | .200 | 1.913* | | | |
| Career | .116 | .074 | .758 | | | |
| | | | | .484 | .235 | .177 |

* $p = .059$

As seen in Table 20, L2 reading motivation variables were not significant predictors of the reading achievement in upper-intermediate level. However, the effect L2 reading *comfort* reached a *marginally significant* level.

4.6 Reading Habits and Behaviors of Students

In order to explore the effect of students' reading habits and behaviors, they were asked to report *how often* they read (frequency), *how long* they read (time) and *how many* pages they read (amount) both in L1 and L2. Their responses were analyzed through regression analyses.

4.6.1 Reading Habits and Behaviors in L1

The dependent variable was the reading grades of the students. The independent variables were *amount* of reading in L1, *frequency* students read in L1, and *time* spent reading in L1. In addition, the period the students were exposed to the language (how many years they have been learning English) was entered into the regression.

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .083$, $F(1, 250) = 22,673$, $p < .001$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 8.3 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L1 reading habits and behaviors (*frequency*, *time*, *amount*) it was observed that none of the independent variables significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .093$, $F(3, 247) = .922$, *ns*. Table 21 summarizes the results.

Table 21. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses - L1 Reading Habits and Behaviors

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-----------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Frequency | .191 | .065 | 1.062 | | | |
| Time | -.100 | -.033 | -.514 | | | |
| Amount | -.145 | -.069 | -1.082 | | | |
| | | | | .305 | .093 | .079 |

As seen in Table 21, the reading habits and behaviors in L1 did not significantly predict L2 reading achievement.

4.6.1.1 L1 Reading Habits and Behaviors of Pre-intermediate Level Students

The reading habits and behaviors of students in different instruction levels were explored through regression analyses.

The dependent variable was the reading grades of the students. The independent variables were *amount* of reading (how many pages) in L1, *frequency* students read in L1, and *time* spent reading in L1. In addition, the period the students were exposed to the language (how many years they have been learning English) was entered into the regression.

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .027$, $F(1, 159) = 4.390$, $p < .05$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 2.7 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L1 reading habits and behaviors (*frequency*, *time*, *amount*) it was observed that none of the independent variables significantly

predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .050$, $F(3, 156) = 1.288$, *ns*. Table 22 summarizes the results.

Table 22. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses – L1 Reading Habits and Behaviors (Pre-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-----------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Frequency | .191 | .070 | .883 | | | |
| Time | -.379 | -.115 | -1.411 | | | |
| Amount | -.116 | -.062 | -.766 | | | |
| | | | | .224 | .050 | .026 |

As seen in Table 22, the reading habits and behaviors in L1 did not significantly predict L2 reading achievement in pre-intermediate level.

4.6.1.2 L1 Reading Habits and Behaviors of Upper-intermediate Level Students

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .093$, $F(1, 89) = 9.084$, $p < .01$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 9.3 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L1 reading habits and behaviors (*frequency, time, amount*) it was observed that none of the independent variables significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .111$, $F(3, 86) = .603$, *ns*. Table 23 summarizes the results.

Table 23. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses – L1 Reading Habits and Behaviors (Upper-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-----------|-------|---------|-------|------|-------|----------------|
| Frequency | -.118 | -.044 | -.426 | | | |
| Time | .308 | .154 | 1.307 | | | |
| Amount | -.137 | -.059 | -.500 | | | |
| | | | | .334 | .111 | .070 |

As seen in Table 23, the reading habits and behaviors in L1 did not significantly predict L2 reading achievement in upper-intermediate level.

4.6.2 Reading Habits and Behaviors in L2

The dependent variable was the reading grades of the students. The independent variables were *amount* of reading (how many pages) in L2, *frequency* students read in L2, and *time* spent reading in L2. In addition, the period the students were exposed to the language (how many years they have been learning English) was entered into the regression.

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to English was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .098$, $F(1, 247) = 26.820$, $p < .001$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 9.8 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L2 reading habits and behaviors (*frequency*, *time*, *amount*) it was observed that none of the independent variables significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .124$, $F(3, 244) = 2.440$, ns . However, the effect of L2 reading habits and behaviors of the students reached a *marginally*

significant level; $p = .065$. 2.6 % of the total variance (12.4 %) was *marginally significantly* explained by the L2 reading habits and behavior factors. Table 24 summarizes the results.

Table 24. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses - L2 Reading Habits and Behaviors

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-----------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Frequency | .111 | .048 | .769 | | | |
| Time | .527 | .175 | 2.267* | | | |
| Amount | -.451 | -.124 | -1.652 | | | |
| | | | | .352 | .124 | .110 |

* $p < .05$

As seen in Table 24, among the independent variables *time* spent reading in English significantly predicted L2 reading achievement.

4.6.2.1 L2 Reading Habits and Behaviors of Pre-intermediate Level Students

The reading habits and behaviors of students in different instruction levels were explored through regression analyses.

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to language was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .034$, $F(1, 157) = 5.607$, $p < .05$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 3.4 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L2 reading habits and behaviors (*frequency*, *time*, *amount*) it was observed that none of the independent variables significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .045$, $F(3, 154) = .573$, *ns*. Table 25 summarizes the results.

Table 25. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses – L2 Reading Habits and Behaviors (Pre-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-----------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Frequency | -.041 | -.018 | -.220 | | | |
| Time | .357 | .112 | 1.147 | | | |
| Amount | -.417 | -.112 | -1.171 | | | |
| | | | | .212 | .045 | .020 |

As seen in Table 25, the reading habits and behaviors in L2 did not significantly predict L2 reading achievement in pre-intermediate level.

4.6.2.2 L2 Reading Habits and Behaviors of Upper-intermediate Level Students

In the first step, the period students have been exposed to language was regressed on their reading grade. After step 1, period significantly predicted reading achievement, $R^2 = .086$, $F(1, 88) = 8.298$, $p < .01$. This indicated that the period the students were exposed to the language accounted for 8.6 % of their reading achievement.

After the addition of L2 reading habits and behaviors (*frequency, time, amount*) it was observed that none of the independent variables significantly predicted L2 reading achievement, $R^2 = .161$, $F(3, 85) = 2.530$, ns . However, the effect of L2 reading habits and behaviors of the upper-intermediate students reached a marginally significant level; $p = .063$. 7.5 % of the total variance (16.1 %) was *marginally significantly* explained by the L2 reading habits and behavior factors. Table 26 summarizes the results.

Table 26. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses - L2 Reading Habits and Behavior (Upper-intermediate)

| Variables | Beta | β | t | R | R^2 | Adjusted R^2 |
|-----------|-------|---------|--------|------|-------|----------------|
| Frequency | .077 | .044 | .416 | | | |
| Time | .668 | .334 | 2.445* | | | |
| Amount | -.492 | -.193 | -1.464 | | | |
| | | | | .401 | .161 | .122 |

* $p < .05$

As seen in Table 26, only *time* spent reading in English significantly predicted L2 reading achievement.

4.6.3 Reading Text Preferences of the Students

In the questionnaire, the students reported their text preferences among 17 alternatives (Appendix 1). In order to ease the analysis of the text selection alternatives, the alternatives were grouped into *pleasure*, *informative* and *transactional* texts (Table 27). An expert with a PhD was consulted about the appropriateness of the text types in each group.

Table 27. Reading Text Preferences – Grouping

| Pleasure | Informative | Transactional |
|---------------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| newspaper | reference books | online newspapers |
| magazines | how-to books | games |
| short stories | textbooks | the Internet |
| novels | | E-mails |
| essays | | electronic references |
| poetry | | |
| classics | | |
| song lyrics | | |
| comics | | |

In order to explore the effect of text preferences on the students' reading achievement, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed between students' L1 and L2 text preferences and their reading grades.

4.6.3.1 L1 Text Preferences and Their Relationship with Reading Grade

Among the students' text preferences, none of them correlated with their reading grades. However, significant positive correlations were observed between L1 reading motivation factors and their text preferences, though at low levels (Table 28).

Table 28. Correlations: L1 Text Selections and Reading Grade

| | Reasons to read in L1 | Recognition | Value | Anxiety | Comfort | Information | Reading Grade |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|-------|---------|---------|-------------|------------------|
| Pleasure reading | 0,21** | 0,22** | 0,13* | 0,01 | 0,24** | -0,02 | 0,01 |
| Informative Reading | 0,08 | 0,08 | 0,02 | 0,05 | 0,07 | -0,02 | 0,00 |
| Transactional Reading | 0,04 | 0,06 | 0,02 | 0,05 | -0,03 | -0,04 | -0,02 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As seen in Table 28, there were positive, significant but small correlations between students' selections for *pleasure* reading and the factors *reasons* to read, *recognition* gained by reading, *value* students assign to reading and the *comfort* students have when reading in Turkish.

4.6.3.2 L2 Text Preferences and Their Relationship with Reading Grade

A positive significant correlation was observed between the students' reading achievement and their online text preferences ($r = .17, p < .01$). Positive significant correlations were also observed between text selections for pleasure reading, informative reading, transactional reading and the L2 reading motivation factors (Table 29).

As seen in Table 29, students' text selections for pleasure reading and transactional reading significantly correlated with L2 *recognition* and *value* they assign to reading. In addition the factor *comfort* significantly correlated with pleasure reading selections ($r = .24, p < .01$) and informative reading selections ($r = .19, p < .01$). Finally, the factor reasons to read in L2 significantly correlated with students' selections for pleasure reading ($r = .35, p < .01$); their selections for informative reading ($r = .21, p < .01$) and transactional reading ($r = .26, p < .01$).

Table 29. Correlations: L2 Text Selections and Reading Grade

| | Reasons to read in L2 | Recognition | Value | Anxiety | Comfort | Career | Reading Grade |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|--------|---------|---------|--------|------------------|
| Pleasure reading | 0,35** | 0,22** | 0,24** | 0,10 | 0,24** | 0,05 | 0,10 |
| Informative Reading | 0,21** | 0,02 | 0,09 | -0,06 | 0,19** | 0,05 | 0,10 |
| Transactional Reading | 0,26** | 0,18** | 0,17** | 0,05 | 0,01 | 0,01 | 0,17** |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.7 Language Teachers' Perceptions of Reading Motivation

In order to gain insight about the teachers' perceptions of reading motivation, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted. After the interviews were transcribed, they were coded, and then these codes were developed into *basic* themes. These basic themes were categorized into *organizing themes* and then finally into *global themes*.

Two *global themes* were identified: (1) educational factors influence student motivation to read; (2) personal factors influence student motivation to read

(Appendix 6). In the first step, the interviews were transcribed and *coded* (a sample coded interview is provided in Appendix 5). Then, the same or similar codes were grouped and a more comprehensive explanation (as a statement or a phrase) is provided next to the codes. These are the *Basic Themes*. Next, these basic themes are classified and put in more general and bigger groups, namely the *Organizing Themes*. Finally, the organizing themes were grouped under two largest categories: the *Global Themes*.

4.7.1 Educational Factors

Under this theme four organizing themes were identified: (a) institutional factors; (b) government policies; (c) students' previous educational background and (d) environmental factors.

4.7.1.1 Institutional Factors

In the interview, specific questions were asked regarding institutional factors such as the effect of materials used and tasks done in the class, and the effect of exams. In addition to these, some other institutional factors were identified in the transcriptions.

To begin with, most of the teachers interviewed complained about the *syllabus*. The basic criticism that came from the teachers was that there is no systematic reading syllabus but the course book's syllabus is *the* syllabus implemented. As for the reading syllabus, it is again the course book's reading programme. To this end, one of the teachers claimed

We do the same things as we did in the C course [elementary level]. We do nothing different in A course [upper-intermediate level]. We do not teach these kids how to analyze a text and how to synthesize the information in it,

there is no standard reading program. In this sense, I find our curriculum inefficient (*Teacher 14*)⁵.

What the teachers also mentioned was that, even though the *course book* constitutes the reading programme of the preparatory school, it is not good enough to prepare the students for academic reading. In this sense, the Preparatory School was claimed to lack the aim of preparing the students for their departments. Since academic reading requires the students to have higher-order skills such as inferencing or synthesizing, another criticism came from the teachers. As *Teacher 10* argued:

The students should not do only True/False or multiple-choice exercises during the prep class. The most important thing for these kids is to understand what the teacher in their departments gives him and write what he understands from the text in the exams.

One final criticism about the syllabus was about the lack of extensive reading focus. It was claimed by some of the teachers that the students already lack extensive reading habits, and the teachers do not take any responsibility to help the students to form this habit.

Secondly, since the course book is *the* reading syllabus that the teachers implement, several criticisms were mentioned regarding the usefulness of the *course book*. Most of the teachers find the course book monotonous and easy considering the expectations and requirements of the exams and their future academic lives. The reason why it is monotonous comes from the fact that the same tasks are repeated even though the topics are interesting.

⁵ All of the interviews were held in Turkish. The quotations were translated into English by the researcher.

Another weakness of the course book is the fact that it is an international version, thus it is difficult to create situations in class to attract the students' attention. *Teacher 10* claims that if someone wants to do a good reading lesson, he or she has to leave the course book aside. He further argues that this is basically because of the washback effect of the exams. It was also argued that the course book does not teach vocabulary well:

Before the readings, there are exercises like "look at the vocabulary, tick the words you know" so what? In addition, there are statements like "use your dictionary" or "ask your teacher". I do not think these prepare the students for the reading tasks (*Teacher 3*).

Another point made by most of the teachers was that vocabulary is important while doing the reading tasks because "if there is only one unknown word, the students cannot go on reading" (*Teacher 7*). As the course book does not give enough direction, it is the teacher's job to pre-teach the words in a different way.

Only two positive aspects of the course book were mentioned: "it is theme based and stories are based on the same characters so it is easy to remind the students what is going on" *Teacher 15* argued. Second, the reading texts are not too long, so most of the students do not have difficulty in following them.

The third institutional factor was *the exams*, both the mid-term exams and the proficiency. They were reported to have a tremendous effect on the teachers' teaching practices. However, this effect was believed to be a negative one: the students do not need to study for the mid-term because it is easy. It was also pointed out by most of the teachers that the exams are too grammar oriented and they are not consistent with the classroom tasks. Thus, the teachers find motivating the students

to read really hard. On the other hand, interestingly, the teachers generally make use of exams to motivate the students to read:

Very few students are motivated to read for any other reason but exams, most of them care about reading to pass their courses and their exams. Actually this means to threaten the students but it somehow works when I say every question in the proficiency exam is 1 point but reading questions are 2 points. However, teachers should be careful about this, when motivating and threatening the students (*Teacher 5*).

Regarding institutional factors, the fourth theme was *the teacher* and the role he or she plays in motivating the students. The most common point made about the role of the teacher was that they are responsible to motivate the students to read and do the related tasks, and they are free to do what they want; however, this causes inequalities among the classroom practices. One example was given by *Teacher 8*; he mentioned his application of another resource book and its success in preparing his students for the exams. *Teachers 6 and 10*; however, highlighted the point that the teachers need guidance on how to deal with reading:

The problem is that providing the students with different reading texts is not enough to motivate them and to make them skillful readers, it is not that easy. This kind of guidance on how to do good reading lessons is not offered by the programme (*Teacher 10*).

The fifth and the final theme under institutional factors was the *classroom atmosphere*. In this respect, it was argued that there is a reciprocal relationship in that if the students are demotivated, the teacher and the other students become demotivated too. In such a situation, *Teacher 13* said she prevents the demotivated students from using negative statements.

4.7.1.2 Educational Background

Under this theme, students' university entrance grades were mentioned in that they are really low. This indicates, according to the teachers, that the students'

cultural background is not good enough. *Teacher 13* also brings up the effect of education policies in Turkey:

In Turkey, students' ability to answer questions without understanding the question thoroughly is tested in high stakes exams. Since students are expected to answer questions this way and to be successful, they are not used to expressing their opinions or write something on what they read. This affects their motivation to read.

4.7.1.3 Environmental Factors

Regarding the environmental factors, first, the teachers mentioned the *physical environment* of the classrooms. The classrooms lack the technological devices. The teachers tended to believe that they needed to have technological support in the classroom while doing reading lessons.

It was also mentioned that the weekly schedules the *institution* offers are too loaded and six classes every day are too much for the students. This causes the students to feel tired and fed up. Since the students are already demotivated and tired, they refuse to be involved in the reading lessons.

The students' reading motivations and habits are acquired before university years, mostly because of the *high schools they finish and their family* they came from, students lack regular reading habits and the habit of doing homework. However, it was repeatedly argued that better high schools, especially private high schools and Anatolian high schools, provide the students with better cultural backgrounds. In addition to the role of high schools, the family members play a crucial role in forming reading habits. Regarding the role of families, *Teacher 2* and *Teacher 4* attracted the attention to the regional differences in Turkey; the students who come from families from the east part of Turkey are reported to have serious difficulties in reading lessons.

4.7.2 Personal Factors

Under the global theme *personal factors* two organizing themes were identified: (a) personal characteristics and (b) personal needs of the students.

4.7.2.1 Personal Characteristics of the Students

To begin with, the students who have extensive reading habits that they formed in their families and high school years express high levels of motivation, not only to read but also to learn English.

The most commonly mentioned characteristic of the students was their *curiosity*. Curious students are better readers. Their curiosity comes from their interest in learning English. However, the teachers are concerned that the lessons they do do not cultivate the curiosity of the students. Neither the course book nor the additional materials provided by the institution are interesting enough to involve the students in reading tasks done in class.

In addition to the course book and the materials' inefficiency in motivating the students, most of the students come with an *attitude* that reading is meaningless, there is no need to read but looking at the vocabulary in it is enough.

Similar to their negative attitude to reading in the classroom, the teachers reflected on their students' out of school habits in that outside the school they spend their time on the Internet, chatting with their friends rather than reading.

4.7.2.2 Personal Needs of the Students

The teachers argue that they have to spend extra time and effort to attract the attention of demotivated students who generally do not complete the tasks or openly

state that they do not understand anyway. On the other hand, the motivated students are disciplined to do all of the tasks and they try to do them on time. After they finish their tasks, they seem more willing to participate and interact in the class.

Regarding the needs of the students, most of the teachers mentioned that long reading texts cause *anxiety*. Another cause of anxiety was the unknown vocabulary in a given text. The teachers tended to think that the students need strategies to deal with reading tasks, especially in lower levels. In addition, the teachers believe that the students need *higher order reading strategies* to evaluate and synthesize the information in a given text, especially considering their needs in their departments.

Another need mentioned was the use of *technology* in classrooms. To this end, *Teacher 3* suggests:

...from time to time something from BBC webpage could be opened and projected on the wall. Students could have a discussion about it. This will definitely attract their attention. Or the students could be assigned a book then in the class the film of the book could be watched and they could be compared. These kids are technology kids; they are not interested in paper-based things any more.

As seen there are several factors affecting the students' motivation to read both in and outside the class from the teachers' point of view. The next section will focus on the students' point of view.

4.8 Students' Perceptions of Reading Motivation

A total of eight students (four pre-intermediate and four upper-intermediate) were interviewed in face-to-face fashion. Similar to the teacher interviews, the transcribed interviews were first coded and then basic themes were identified. These basic themes were organized into organizing themes (e.g. syllabus implemented) and

then two global themes: (a) personal factors affect their motivation to read; (b) institutional factors affect their motivation to read.

4.8.1 Personal Factors

Three organizing themes were identified under this theme: (a) *value* students put on reading; (b) the effect of their *interests* on their reading practices and (c) the *background* they bring from the families or previous education.

4.8.1.1 Value Students Put on Reading

Students, both in pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, consider reading an important means to explore the foreign culture, to learn vocabulary (Turkish and English), to gather information, and to socialize. Doing more reading tasks enables them to get better in reading tasks:

When you read, you develop. I see that my friends who read a lot can do reading tasks more easily, they understand what the teacher says and answer questions more easily (*Student 5*).

It was also suggested that reading in English is more important in that the students are aware of the importance of English as a global language. On the other hand, the students who were not interested in learning English think that they benefit from reading in Turkish. One such benefit was that if someone reads in Turkish, his/her memory gets better (*Student 7*).

4.8.1.2 Interest and Its Relationship to Reading

Two of the students interviewed reported that they are interested in politics and psychology and in order to learn about these topics, they started to read. However, they stated that the topics that they read about in class are not interesting. Regarding the concept *interest*, the students' reaction to learn English as foreign

language was also influential. Both of the students who claimed to be uninterested in learning English considered reading practical in that it helped them to get higher grades and thus feel better.

The students also mentioned the role of technology in finding the resources for the topics they want to read about. To this end, *Student 4* reported that he visits English websites, reads online newspapers and plays games.

4.8.1.3 Students' Background

As for the formation of reading habits, six of the interviewees said that this happened thanks to their high school or primary school teachers and only two of them mentioned that they got this habit from their mothers or siblings.

4.8.2 Institutional Factors

Under this theme four organizing themes were identified: (a) the syllabus implemented, (b) materials provided, (c) the role teachers play and (d) the role exams have.

4.8.2.1 The Syllabus

Student 2 believes that reading is not an aspect of the programme that is focused on. The pre-intermediate students argued that they needed strategy training:

I think instead of directly starting to read strategies and techniques to teach strategies would be a better approach. It is known that most of the students have difficulty in reading skill. I think B course was insufficient (*Student 1*).

As a part of the syllabus, the course book requires the students to read between the lines, or the teachers ask the students to justify their answers; however, the students report that they have difficulty in doing these. A difference between instruction levels was not observed with regard to difficulties students face.

4.8.2.2 The Course Book and the Materials

The most striking criticism that came from the students was that the topics materials were much too focused on current events and they did not focus on academic reading skills. Indicating an indirect criticism about the teachers' attitudes towards reading lessons, students mentioned that reading lessons did not last even one class hour.

On the other hand, a positive side of the materials mentioned by Student 6 was that the materials are varied enough to do the daily reading at school.

4.8.2.3 The Teacher

It was reported both by the pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate level students that their teachers has to take responsibility to help them when they have difficulties in reading; however; it is a weakness of the curriculum in that it does not provide equal chances for every student but the teacher has to take the initiative, if he or she wants to.

4.8.2.4 The Exams

The exams were considered both negative and positive by the students. The weekly quizzes were regarded to be beneficial in that they help the students to form regular study habits. However, the mid-term exams create pressure on the students.

Exam anxiety is another point made by the students in that in the exams they cannot perform as well as they can do in the class. On the other hand, there is a reciprocal relationship between exams and student motivation; when the students get good grades, they feel good and gain confidence in themselves.

The anxiety caused by the exams was reported to be related to grammar and vocabulary. Unknown vocabulary and structures were obstacles considered by the pre-intermediate students in particular.

To summarize the qualitative data analysis, the thematic analysis of the interviews helped create the following subcategories that influence the students' motivations to read. (Figure 1).

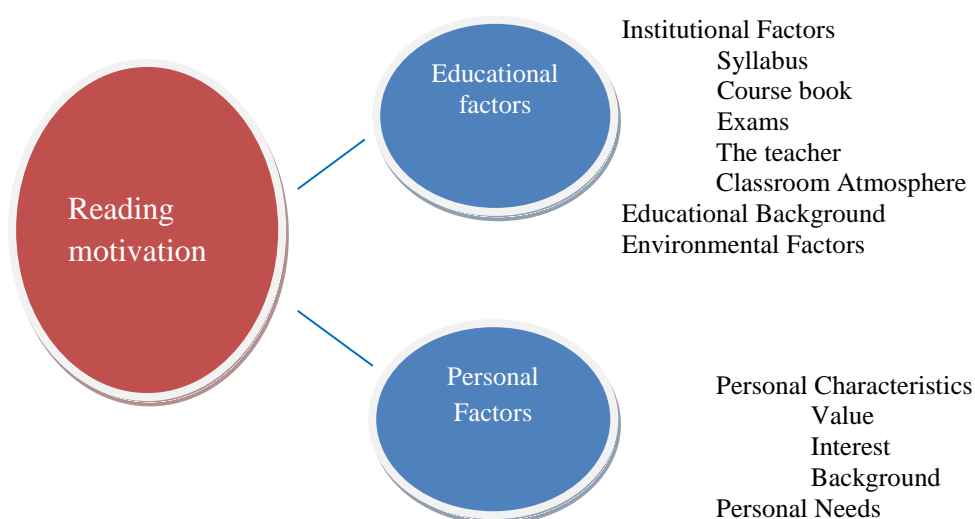


Figure 1. Reading Motivation Themes Identified in the Interviews

4.9 Summary of the Chapter

As it was stated in the first section of this chapter, as an answer to the first research question, there were found to be small or moderate significant correlations between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading motivation sub-constructs.

Regarding the second research question, that is the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading achievement, none of the regression analyses,

both in pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, showed significant contribution to L2 reading achievement.

The third research question was to explore the contribution of L2 motivation and the students' L2 reading achievement. The analysis revealed that the period students have been exposed to English was a significant predictor of their achievement. Among the L2 reading motivation factors extracted from the questionnaire, *anxiety* and *comfort* significantly predicted reading achievement. With regard to the reading habits and behaviors of the students, it was found that *time* spent reading in English was a significant predictor of reading achievement.

Finally, qualitative analysis revealed that students' motivation to read is influenced by external factors such as the syllabus, course book, exams, the teacher, the classroom environment, and their educational backgrounds. Internal factors such as their curiosity levels, their attitudes to learn English as a foreign language, their anxiety levels, and their interests also contribute to their motivation and achievement in reading.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the results of the data presented in the previous chapter are interpreted. Possible educational implications are presented so as to define more successful reading lessons within the context of this study. The Chapter ends with limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Overview of the Results

Table 30 summarizes the results of the quantitative analysis, and the results of the interviews will be analyzed within the quantitative data.

Table 30. Summary of the Results

| Research Question | Method | Result |
|---|-------------------------|---|
| 1. What is the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation? | Pearson correlations | Small or moderate correlations were observed. |
| 2. What is the relationship between L1 Reading motivation and L2 reading achievement? | Hierarchical Regression | No significant contribution was observed. |
| 3. What is the relationship between L2 Reading motivation and L2 reading achievement? | Hierarchical Regression | L2 reading motivation factors significantly predicted 8.1 % of reading achievement. |
| Pre-intermediate | Hierarchical Regression | Reading <i>anxiety</i> is a significant predictor. |

Table 30. Continued

| | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Upper-intermediate | Hierarchical Regression | <i>Comfort</i> is a significant predictor. |
| Reading habits and behaviors in L1 | Hierarchical Regression | No significant contribution was observed |
| Reading habits and behaviors in L2 | Hierarchical Regression | <i>Time</i> spent reading in English is a significant predictor. |

5.3. The Relationship between L1 and L2 Reading Motivation Aspects

5.3.1 *Motivation for Reading in L1 is Multi-dimensional*

Before discussing the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation components, it should be noted that motivation for reading is a multi-dimensional construct. In the current study, six different reading motivation factors were extracted from the questionnaire. This multidimensionality is in line with the previous studies (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; Yamashita, 2007; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Mori, 2002, Takase, 2007; Kim, 2010).

One of the *few* studies that investigated motivation to read in L2 context was conducted by Mori (2002). She developed a questionnaire depending on Wigfield & Guthrie's (1997b) traits; however, she did not replicate the same traits. The factors she identified were *intrinsic value of reading*, *extrinsic utility value of reading*, *importance of reading*, and *reading efficacy*. Similarly in the current study, two components (*curiosity* and *recognition*) from the 2004 version of MRQ (Wang & Guthrie, 2004) were included in the questionnaire. All of the *recognition* items loaded on the same trait; however, *curiosity* items loaded on the factor named as *reasons to read* together with the items expressing the students' *practical*,

intellectual or *linguistic* value put on reading. This different cluster could be attributed to translation effect on the items, as suggested by Oppenheim (2000) in that translation can subtly change the meanings and overtones of an attitude statement, or the same statement might have a changed significance in a different social context.

5.3.2 Relationship between L1 and L2 Reading Motivation Constructs

As for the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation components, first, it is plausible to assume that they are related to some extent. Measurement of psychological constructs such as motivation, attitudes, and anxiety suggests a theoretical basis to assume that these constructs are correlated to each other (Kim, 2010).

Secondly, the aspect of *attitude transfer* from L1 reading to L2 reading is generally supported (Yamashita, 2004, 2007; Kamhi-Stein, 2003; Camiciottoli, 2001; Jimenez et al., 1995). Camiciottoli (2001) explored reading attitudes of Italian college students who were learning English as a foreign language. Her study revealed that the amount of L1 reading was one of the significant predictors of L2 reading attitudes. Kamhi-Stein (2003) explored if ESL students' attitudes toward their home language and beliefs about reading influence L2 reading behavior. The study showed that attitudes toward L1 and beliefs about reading influenced reading processes in both L1 and L2 languages. Jimenez et al. (1995) argue that reading is basically the same activity in L1 and L2, knowledge of L1 helps L2 reading, and reading is a process of constructing meaning in both L1 and L2. Yamashita (2004, 2007) examined the transfer of reading attitudes from L1 to L2 with Japanese college

students. The sub-components of reading attitudes were *comfort*, *anxiety*, *value* ascribed to reading, and *self-perception* as a reader. Significant contributions of L1 reading attitudes in explaining L2 reading attitudes were identified, though with different degrees of transferability.

The most important results of the present study relating to the *research question 1* are the correlations between the *same* L1 and L2 motivation variables. Regarding the whole questionnaire population (N = 273), moderate but significant correlations were obtained for some of the variables: .203 between L1 and L2 reading *anxiety*; .206 between L1 and L2 reading *reasons* to read; .368 between *value* ascribed to L1 and L2 reading and .655 between *recognition* students get from L1 and L2 reading. The results, therefore, suggest that L1 and L2 reading attitudes are *related*. Since the students are all EFL learners who had acquired L1 literacy before they started learning English and their exposure to L1 texts is much greater than L2 texts in their daily life, this correlational relationship can be interpreted as transfer of reading attitudes from L1 to L2 reading. This result also suggests that different types of reading attitudes tend to transfer to a different degree. The correlation coefficient of *recognition* was the highest. Therefore, the social *recognition* students achieve from their friends, teachers or from the society for their reading ability or habits is the one most likely to be transferred and shared in both languages of all six variables investigated. This suggests that students are motivated to read because reading attracts the attention of others. Reading a book in English or Turkish was an activity that made them feel cool. This is what Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) defined as a performance goal (e.g., *Will I look smart?*), which leads learners to “seek to maximize favorable evaluation of their ability” (p. 421).

The correlations for pre-intermediate level students (N = 172) showed a similar pattern to the whole questionnaire population in that small or moderate but significant correlations were obtained for some of the variables: .199 between L1 and L2 reading *anxiety*; .203 between L1 and L2 reading *reasons* to read; .446 between *value* ascribed to L1 and L2 reading and .633 between *recognition* students get from L1 and L2 reading. Similar to the whole questionnaire population, the construct *recognition* had the highest correlation, and the correlation between *value* ascribed to L1 and L2 reading was slightly higher than the whole questionnaire population. Considering the fact that this factor included items relating to the students' future careers, job opportunities, and better grades in exams in particular, this higher correlation could suggest that reading carries a greater importance for the students with lower proficiency level. This is also related to the *institution* the study was conducted at in that if the students fail in one course, they have to repeat it and if they cannot reach upper-intermediate level, they cannot take the Proficiency Exam. Thus, especially to be successful in exams is a major goal for the lower level students. It should be noted that since the students do not take any Turkish exams, in the questionnaire the *indirect* support of reading was emphasized.

As for the upper-intermediate group (N= 101), similar to the pre-intermediate group, the factor *recognition* was found to have the highest correlation between L1 and L2 reading. However, the factor *value* put on L1 and L2 reading had a lower correlation ($r = .284$). Similarly, this could be attributed to the institutional organization in that the upper-intermediate students already have the right to take Proficiency Exam unless they fail the mid-term exams; in other words, they are more flexible in terms of time, which means if they fail once, they have another chance to

take the Proficiency Exam without extending their Preparatory School education.

Thus the *value* ascribed to reading by upper-intermediate students had a lower correlation than pre-intermediate level students.

A very important difference between the upper-intermediate and pre-intermediate level groups was that in pre-intermediate group a significant positive but small correlation ($r = .199$) between L1 and L2 reading *anxiety* was observed. However, in the upper-intermediate group, no significant correlation was found. This could be attributed to the upper-intermediate students' proficiency levels, in that the factor anxiety included items like "I feel anxious if I do not know all the words when I read something in English". On the other hand, the anxiety students feel when reading in Turkish cannot be explained because in the scope of the present study the students' Turkish proficiency levels were not determined. As for the factor *comfort*, in the upper-intermediate group, a significant positive correlation ($r = .200$) was observed between the comfort felt when reading in L1 and L2. Similar to the factor anxiety, it is plausible to expect that English proficiency level could help the upper-intermediate students read in English without problems. As in the case of *anxiety*, what helps the students with reading in Turkish is *not* known. As Yamashita (2007) suggested, in order to investigate this issue more thoroughly more data such as learners' L1 linguistic ability is needed.

Two important interpretations of the correlational analysis are that, first, for the *linguistic threshold hypothesis* to be supported in terms of motivation transfer, higher correlations should be observed for the upper-intermediate group than the pre-intermediate group. However, such a pattern was not observed; both in the pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, small or moderate but significant

correlations were observed. In the scope of this study, the threshold level cannot be determined in absolute terms.

Secondly, as it was found by Kim (2010) and Yamashita (2007), the relationship between L1 and L2 reading motivation must be *tentative*. Both of the studies report low or moderate correlations between the reading motivation in L1 and L2. In line with these studies, in the current study low and moderate correlations were observed, and in the light of these correlations, it could be said that L1 reading motivation factors are similar to those of L2. These low correlations could be attributed to the fact that the study was conducted in EFL environment; reading in English is largely restricted to class work.

5.4 Contribution of L1 Reading Motivation to L2 Reading Achievement

In order to investigate the contribution of L1 reading motivation to L2 reading achievement, hierarchical regression analyses were applied. In addition to the L1 reading motivation factors, the period students have been exposed to English was also entered into the model. There were three reasons for this: first, it is repeatedly reported in the literature that an overall decline appears in students' motivations and attitudes in their independent reading of books as they progress into their education in secondary schools (Guthrie & Greaney, 1991; McKenna et al., 1995; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Secondly, reading comprehension and achievement increases as the print exposure increases (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997, as cited in Wang & Guthrie, 2004). This exposure is predicted from the frequency and amount of reading done by the students. Since the current study was conducted in an EFL environment, English is restricted to educational settings.

Third, as Karahan (2007) suggested, the students who started to learn English earlier have more positive attitudes than the ones who started to learn English later. Thus, it was assumed that a large variance of reading achievement would be covered by entering the exposure period in the regression analyses together with the motivation constructs.

In order to assess the contribution of independent variables, Cohen's (1977) criteria were used. In multiple regression models, squared partial correlation values between 2 % and 12.99 % suggest *small* effect sizes; values between 13 % and 25.99 % indicate *medium* effect sizes; and values greater than 26 % suggest *large* effect sizes. The same criteria were used to assess whether R^2 suggested small, medium or large effect.

As seen in Table 31, L1 reading motivation had *no* significant contribution to L2 reading achievement *at all*. In addition to the L1 reading motivation factors, the students reading habits and behaviors (*how often, how long, how many* pages they read) did not predict the reading achievement in English. However, similar to the relationship or transfer between motivational constructs of reading in L1 and L2, not much is known about the effect of students' reading motivation and habits in L1 on their success in L2 reading.

On the other hand, the exposure period predicted students' reading achievement in English even though the effect size was *small*: for the pre-intermediate students it was 2.3 % and for the upper-intermediate students it was 11.2 %. Similarly, among the behavior variables, exposure period did predict L2 reading achievement (2.7 % of the pre-intermediate students' and 9.3 % of the upper-intermediate students' reading achievement), but behavior variables did not. In

addition, among students' reading material selections, only the pleasure reading materials such as novels or short stories correlated with L1 reading motivation variables (except *anxiety*) and they did not correlate with reading grades of the students.

The lack of L1 reading motivation's contribution to L2 reading achievement, first, could be attributed to the methodology of the current study. A questionnaire was used to explore the motivation to read in L1, and the students might have responded to make themselves look good, which indicates the phenomenon *social desirability*. In other words, the students may not be as motivated to read as they claimed to be.

5.4.1 Reading is a Language Problem

The interpretation of the relationship between L1 reading motivation and L2 reading achievement requires the discussion that reading is *a language problem*. As Alderson (1984; cited in Lee & Schallert, 1997) suggested reading is both a *language* and a *reading* problem; however, there is strong evidence that it is a language problem. In their study, Lee & Schallert (1997) tried to find out whether L1 reading ability or second language proficiency would predict L2 reading performance better. The greater contribution to L2 reading scores was derived from L2 proficiency than from L1 reading scores. Carrell (1991), Yamashita (2002b) and Bernhardt & Kamil (1995) report similar relationship between L2 language proficiency and reading scores of EFL students. In the current study, L2 reading scores of the students were not predicted by the students' motivations to read in Turkish or the materials they read in Turkish. Then their reading achievement depends on something else, and

naturally it should be their English proficiency levels. This result, partially though, was expected in that the exposure period, as an *indirect* indicator, accounted for the reading achievement in L2, although the effect size was small.

5.4.2 Transfer from L1 Reading to L2 Reading

It should be kept in mind that there is transfer from L1 reading motivation to corresponding L2 reading motivation constructs; however, as mentioned earlier, this transfer is *tentative* and apparently it is not enough to account for reading achievement in the target language.

Although the transfer of motivation constructs is in small sizes, it is proved that L1 reading strategies transfer even at lower levels of L2 proficiency. When L2 readers with low proficiency levels have difficulty, L1 reading strategies play a facilitative role. Despite the facilitative role, use of these strategies does not guarantee text comprehension (Yamashita, 2002a). Regarding the current study, the students may have made use of their L1 reading strategies; however, this cannot go beyond an interpretation.

5.4.3 Effect of Material Selection

Baker & Wigfield (1999) found weaker relationship between reading motivation and achievement. They interpreted this weak relationship by looking at the materials students might choose to read. If the students read below their instruction levels, they may not show gains in achievement. The current study is in line with this interpretation considering the fact that students' material selection for *pleasure reading* did not correlate with their reading achievement. In other words, students may prefer to read materials that do not help them in language exams.

5.4.4 The Role of L1 Reading in Classroom Practices

On the other hand, in the interviews it was consistently argued by the teachers that students' negative attitudes towards reading in Turkish, pedagogically speaking, has a negative effect on classroom practices. One of the teachers argued that when reading in English, the students try to do the same the same things as they do in Turkish in that they cannot go beyond comprehension but just answer questions from the text by copying and pasting (*Teacher 13*). In addition, reading provides the students with background knowledge; "reading serves multiple roles in school; it is a subject in itself, and a tool for learning in all other subjects" (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; p. 429). It was suggested by some of the teachers that when the students are familiar with the topic, they can easily compare and contrast what they read with their lives or the situation in Turkey. However, when the students lack this background knowledge, even though the teacher tries to activate their existing schemata, this attempt may not be successful (*Teacher 15*).

Likewise, students see reading in Turkish as a way to learn about new things, to have insight into important issues, and to learn new words. Thus, students' reading habits in Turkish and their motivations to read do not contribute *directly* to their achievement levels in L2 reading; however, it has a significant role in classroom practices, in an *indirect* way.

5.5 Contribution of L2 Reading Motivation to L2 Reading Achievement

The results of the present study revealed that L2 reading motivation constructs (*reasons to read, recognition, value, anxiety, comfort, and career*) significantly predicted L2 reading achievement. The effect size was small: 8.1 %. In

both pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, there was observed a significant contribution of L2 reading motivation aspects; *anxiety* and *comfort* respectively.

Among the behavioral constructs, *time* spent reading in English was also a significant predictor. Finally, students' preferences for *online materials* significantly correlated with their reading grades.

Motivation in L2 reading is a relatively unexplored area (Grabe, 2009); nevertheless, it is clear from the corresponding literature that L2 readers often engage in L2 reading with *different motivations* for reading and very *different expectations* in terms of long-term outcomes. Conforming with this, the present study revealed that L2 reading motivation had a significant effect on the students' reading achievement in exams, while motivation to read in Turkish did *not*.

The effect size of L2 reading motivation constructs was small; 8.1 % (8.4 % for pre-intermediate level and 12.3 % for upper-intermediate level). Together with the exposure period with a small effect size (8.5 %) 16.6 % of the variance could be explained for the whole questionnaire population. On the other hand, this *exposure period* was not determined in absolute terms; however, in the present study it was anticipated that this exposure period could refer to the students' repertoires of grammatical structures and vocabulary. The discussion here will focus on the reasons that could be addressed for this effect size and the attempt to explain the rest of the variance that could not be accounted for.

5.5.1 Reading is a Language and a Reading Problem

L1 and L2 reading are, naturally, different from one another. The difference is based on the limited exposure to L2 print, most of which comes from classroom practices. However, when reading in L2, readers are supported by a range of supporting resources unique to the L2 reading situation such as cognates, dictionaries, grammar textbooks, word glosses. These resources used to support L2 reading are not commonly used in L1 settings. The fact that L1 and L2 reading are different is clear, but how the L2 reading resources affect L2 reading development is less clear.

Even though reading in L1 and L2 require different skills to implement, it was proven that together with the language proficiency, L1 reading ability does contribute to L2 reading (Carrell, 1991; Lee & Schallert, 1997; Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995). Similarly, Perkins et al. (1989) found support for the idea that poor first language readers will read poorly in the foreign language and that poor reading in a foreign language is due to inadequate knowledge of the target language.

When looked at the reading process from the *language problem* perspective, the role of grammar and vocabulary should be noted since reading enjoyment can come only when the reading is reasonably fluent and effortless. When students have difficulty in extracting print information, they become increasingly frustrated (Koda, 2004 as cited in Strauss, 2008).

In the scope of the present study, the students' knowledge of grammar or vocabulary was not specifically determined but the instruction levels were made use of; however, how and to what extent the instruction level illuminates the exact level of grammar and vocabulary is debatable.

Taken as an *indirect* indicator of grammar and vocabulary, the period students have been learning English had both *indirect* and *direct* effects on reading performance. The effect is *direct* in that 8.5 % of the reading performances of the whole population, 2.3 % of the pre-intermediate level students' reading performances, and 11.2 % of the upper-intermediate students' reading performances were significantly predicted by the exposure period.

On the other hand, in the pre-intermediate level, the factor *anxiety* was found to be a significant predictor. *Comfort* is the significant predictor in the upper-intermediate level. These factors were closely associated with the proficiency levels of the students, and this suggests grammar and vocabulary knowledge of the students. To exemplify, the pre-intermediate level students' reading performances were affected by the anxiety they feel about the unknown *vocabulary* or the *content* of the material they read.

This significant prediction of grammar and vocabulary is consistent with the results of the study conducted by Zhang (2004). The study revealed that neither test taking strategies nor metacognitive awareness made a significant contribution to reading performance but grammar and vocabulary did. This result suggests that the students should be *competent in grammar* before they are given strategy training.

The small effect size of the L2 reading motivation constructs could also be attributed to the phenomenon *reading is a reading comprehension problem*. According to Coady (1979 as cited in Perkins et al., 1989) reading is an interactive complex of abilities and knowledge, some of which has the linguistic nature. He goes on to argue that students' store of textually relevant background knowledge and attained reading comprehension proficiency in L1 plays a crucial role in L2 reading.

Another point he makes is that students have poor reading habits in their first language so the teachers have to teach reading skills which *should have been* learned in L1 instruction. Consistent with this idea, the interview data revealed that due to the educational policies in Turkey, students lack higher order reading skills such as, analyzing or synthesizing the information in a given text. The problem mentioned both by the teachers and the students was that strategy instruction, neither L1 nor L2 related, is not given as a part of the reading programme of the institution. This lack of strategy instruction is a problem mentioned by the pre-intermediate students in that when they cannot deal with the reading tasks, they feel anxious. Upper-intermediate students, on the other hand, mentioned a reciprocal relationship in that when they see that they do reading tasks, which indicates some kind of *autonomy*, they get more motivated to read.

The role of L1 and transfer between the L1 and L2 is not simple. In the current study, direct and indirect indication of effect of the students' language proficiency on their reading comprehension has been revealed: the exposure period was found to be a significant predictor of their reading comprehension, among L2 reading motivation constructs *anxiety* and *comfort* which are related to language proficiency were significant predictors of reading comprehension. These are all in line with the literature that reading in L2 is more likely a *language problem*. In addition, in the higher instruction level, the contribution of reading motivation variables (12.3 %) is higher than it is in the pre-intermediate level (8.4 %). This again indicates that after the students become *fluent* readers, their motivations and attitudes become more influential in their reading comprehension.

5.5.2 *The Effect of Cognitive Abilities*

The data of the present study revealed that L2 reading motivation factors and the students' language proficiency levels significantly predict their reading grades. However, there is a large portion of variance (greater than 75 per cent) that could not be explained. Cognitive abilities such as *working memory*, which refers to a type of short-term memory including both storage and processing functions, were also reported to contribute to reading comprehension by helping to execute different cognitive processes (Çankaya, 2007; Daneman, 1991) and in the word-identification process (Ruggiero, 1998).

In the interviews held with the teachers it was indicated that students do not have study habits, and they claimed that this affects the reading practices in the class in that it is impossible for the teacher to expect the students to do homework or do research in advance. Most of the students simply refuse to do so (*Teacher 7*). As mentioned earlier, strategic readers are regarded as competent readers (Paries et al., 1991) and since learning strategy use is a component of study habits, the students' study habits were considered to be related to foreign language achievement (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). Jones and Slate (1992, cited in Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000) reported that approximately 15 per cent of undergraduate students' grades was accounted by their study habits. Keeping this effect in mind and depending on the data coming from the teachers, it was seen plausible by the researcher that students' reading comprehension, especially in the class, is affected by their study habits.

5.5.3 Personality Traits of the Students

Foreign language is a subject that requires continual evaluation by the instructor (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). Regarding the observations and evaluation of the instructors interviewed, an important factor was identified: *personal factors*. Cole (2003) identified four literacy personalities: students with a *natural desire* to read, students with *reserved enthusiasm*, *discouraged* readers, *avid* readers. Partially in line with this grouping, in the current study, only two groups were highlighted by the teachers. These were *completely demotivated* students and students *with reserved motivation* to read. None of the teachers mentioned having a student who constantly read both in Turkish and English and showing his/her enthusiasm openly in the class. The completely demotivated students were generally reported to be distracted by other things, speak with other students about other topics and generally be off-task, and ask the teacher each and every unknown word in the text. For them receiving the definitions of the unknown words is the most important part of the reading lessons.

5.5.4 Anxiety and Comfort as Factors in L2 Reading

The current study revealed that pre-intermediate students' anxiety levels are a significant predictor of their reading comprehension. Saito et al. (1999) suggested that reading in a foreign language is anxiety provoking. In addition, foreign language reading anxiety is distinguishable from general foreign language anxiety. To clarify the reasons for the anxiety caused, unfamiliar words or grammar, and cultural topics were identified as aspects that provoke anxiety. Consistent with this, the items loaded on the factor named as *anxiety*, suggested the same concepts: unfamiliar *content* and *vocabulary*. In addition to the unfamiliar content and vocabulary, it was reported by

the teachers that *the length of the texts* provokes anxiety, and in such a situation, they divide the text into clusters or have the student read the text paragraph by paragraph.

Onwuegbuzie et al (1999) suggested that older students experience anxiety more often, and interestingly enough, students' high school experiences with foreign language and anxiety are two related aspects. Consistent with this, maybe partially, the period students have been learning English also includes anxiety, together with grammar and vocabulary repertoires, brought from their high school years.

Another reason provoking anxiety mentioned by the teachers and by some of the students was *tests*. According to teachers, since the exam tasks are not similar to what is done in class, students feel anxious in exams. Another anxiety provoking aspect mentioned by *Teacher 10* was that inconsistencies in school policies regarding pass-fail decisions made by the administration create anxiety on the part of the students.

As a counterpart predictor, the factor *comfort* was found to be a significant predictor of reading achievement in the upper-intermediate level. The questionnaire items loaded on this factor were related to how they feel when reading in English: reading is *dull, troublesome, tiring* and the students *do not mind* if they cannot understand the content entirely (probably as a strategy). In the upper-intermediate level, it is plausible to expect that proficiency level of the students is a facilitative factor; however, it is possible that students may *still* feel bored and tired when reading and find it troublesome. Having positive attitudes and motivations to read is somehow students' *choice*; however, taking the test is something they *had to do*. This difference in choice versus required activity in a test could explain why the factor *comfort* was a significant predictor of achievement, despite higher proficiency

level. This finding also highlights complex nature of *individual differences* and its effect on achievement.

5.5.5 The Contribution of the Amount of Reading to L2 Achievement

The present study revealed that the contribution of students' behaviors (*how often* they read, *how long* they read and *how many pages* they read) was very close to significance ($p = .065$). Among these variables, time spent reading in English was a significant predictor for the whole questionnaire population and upper-intermediate students.

The variance accounted by the variable *time* spent reading, is partially consistent with the results of the studies conducted by Taylor et al. (1990). They found out that the minutes of reading per day *during reading class* contributed significantly to students' reading achievement. However, minutes of reading per day *at home*, did not contribute significantly to students' reading achievement, but did approach significance. The results support the idea that it is valuable for students to actually read during reading class. In the current study; however, time spent was *not* explored *separately* as leisure reading or school reading. The contribution is also consistent with what Greaney (1980) found out: positive but small correlation between reading achievement and time-spent reading at home, specifically reading books and comics.

The *frequency* and *amount* of reading did not significantly predict reading achievement, though very close to significance. This finding is in line with what Wang & Guthrie (2004) found in their study. However, it should be noted that measuring amount and breadth of reading amount is not easy. In the present study,

this was explored through a questionnaire and the phenomenon *social desirability* may have played a role in the relationship between achievement and the amount of reading.

On the other hand, the contribution of *time* spent reading is significant for the upper-intermediate level students but *not* for pre-intermediate students. This indicates what the students learn during the period they are exposed to English could be transferred in higher proficiency level. This again suggests that *fluency* in reading is a prerequisite for this type of a transfer.

5.5.6 Contribution of Text Type Preferred to L2 Reading Achievement

Regarding the relationship between students' *text preferences* and their reading achievement, it was observed that the preference for online texts such as online newspapers, texts on the Internet, computer games, e-mails, and electronic references significantly correlated with the reading grade. Interestingly, reading online texts and pleasure reading materials correlated with the factors *value* and *recognition*; however, informative materials did not correlate with these factors. This indicates that reading online texts or personally selected pleasure reading materials such as short stories or song lyrics is considered to achieve *recognition* from the society or friends, and it is more *valuable* intellectually, practically and linguistically.

Regarding the relationship between text type preferred and reading achievement, a small correlation was observed. This *small* correlation could be attributed to the fact that online reading is different from printed materials, and has yet to be researched thoroughly. Reading something online is more like “navigating”

(Topping, 1997). Birkerts (1994 as cited in Liu, 2005) notes that the younger generation growing up in the digital environment lacks the ability to read deeply and to sustain a prolonged engagement in reading. Liu (2005) attracts the attention to the features of online reading: first of all, the percentage of time devoted to reading electronically is increasing. Secondly, a great percentage of time spent is browsing and scanning. Third, the arrival of hypertext enables more non-linear reading (e.g. jump). The non-linear nature of hyper-reading (jumping, for example) may also affect sustained attention and contributes to more fragmented reading, since each page has to compete with many other pages for the user's attention. Finally, as Birkerts (1994, cited in Liu, 2005) note, the digital environment tends to encourage people to explore many topics extensively, but at a more superficial level. The *small* correlation found between students' online reading materials could be attributed to the mentioned nature of hyper-reading in that it is plausible to expect that the students' gains from the online materials take time to transfer to classroom practices and exams.

5.6 Classroom Conditions and their Role in Facilitating Reading Motivation

The teacher and student interviews revealed several *other* factors influencing student motivation to read such as the materials provided by the institution including the teacher, the course book, the physical environment of the classrooms, the personal characteristics students bring to the classroom.

5.6.1 The Teacher

As a part of the classroom practices, the teacher plays a crucial role. The analysis of the teacher interviews revealed that the teacher is the *only motivator* in

the class. Students also mentioned that when they see their teacher deals with them in the class, they feel safe. Interestingly, this appreciation came from the pre-intermediate students. Quite possibly, this was because pre-intermediate students have difficulty in doing the reading tasks. The facilitative role of the teacher is in line with what Wentzel (1997) suggested in that students reported higher levels of motivation when they saw that the teacher cared about their progress. In a similar vein, Ryan & Deci (2000) suggested in classrooms students' feeling of being respected and cared for by the teacher is vital for their eagerness to accept the classroom practices.

Research related to students' comprehension skills prior to university suggests that many enter university with weak metacognitive skills related to reading comprehension (Özdemir, 2006). Similarly, Bintz (1997) reports that high school students have difficulty with tasks that required them to interpret what they had read. It was observed by the researcher that most of the teachers interviewed are very much aware of the need for motivating their students to read both outside the class and during the reading lessons. However, it was repeatedly argued by the teachers that they cannot receive positive responses from their students when they openly discuss the importance of reading in their future academic lives, or when they suggest books to read. The response from the students is generally negative in that the students claimed that *they do not have time to read, or simply there is no need to read (Teacher 2)*.

One serious problem observed by the researcher was that the teachers were aware of the fact that the students needed to be motivated to read; however, they did not seem so willing to take responsibility to do this in that for the teachers, first of

all, reading habits of the students were already formed and they could not do much to change the situation. Secondly, they pointed their fingers at the reading programme of the institution in that they are stuck with a book which is inherently not interesting and they do the reading lessons not to read but because they have to be done as a part of the course book or to teach a grammar point or some vocabulary. However, it was sensed by the researcher that the teachers generally do not take responsibility to make their reading lessons enjoyable: some of the teachers used statements like “*I cannot do it all the time* but when I take pictures to class, even the least interested student at the back may get involved in the lesson” (*Teacher 15*). Here it is plausible to think that reading lessons are seen as a lesson that could be neglected by at least some of the teachers, at least sometimes. Similar to this lack of enthusiasm, Bintz (1997) suggested that *few* of the teachers he studied believe that all teachers are ultimately teachers of reading. A parallel view come from Heathington and Alexander (1984) in that they suggest that teachers may not spend much time on attitudes because they focus attention on skills. Some teachers may think that skill development will increase reading attitudes automatically.

Contrary to the teachers’ beliefs, Applegate & Applegate (2004) suggest that college level instruction could provide powerful experiences that can affect a student’s perspectives on reading. In other words, preparatory school is *not late* to develop positive attitudes to reading.

5.6.2 Institutional Organization as a Factor Affecting Reading Motivation

The larger organizations play a vital role by influencing the conditions under which teachers operate (Barr & Dreeben, 1983 cited in Hoffman, 1996). In this

regard, the term *instructional efficiency* which indicates the utilization of *resources* to achieve maximum student outcomes and these resources are *time, materials, personnel* and *money*.

When the *perceived* inefficiency of the reading programme of the preparatory school data collected from the teachers is considered, factors such as time spared for reading in the general curriculum, materials provided, and the physical environment of the classrooms emerged as major themes from the teacher interviews.

5.6.2.1 Reading Motivation is a Syllabus Thing

The basic criticism that came from the teachers was that there is *no systematic reading syllabus* determined according to the needs and expectations of the students. Karahan (2007) suggests that students are exposed to heavy loaded programs in Turkey and this might be boring for the students. The situation in the institution in which the study was conducted was not so much different. However, the program focuses too much on grammar and vocabulary. This innately calls for the chicken egg dilemma in that the syllabus is in this way because the exam is grammar-oriented and vice versa. In such a situation, teachers reported that they feel the necessity to do the reading tasks quickly, and sometimes superficially.

The reading syllabus is based on the reading programme of the course book which is determined by the curriculum developer; however, to the best knowledge of the researcher, this selection was not based on a needs analysis. Harsh criticisms came from some of the teachers regarding this issue: it is the course book that causes problems in the first place since it is not suitable for a preparatory school that is

supposed to prepare the students for their departments. It leaves both the teachers and the students on their own (*Teacher 5, Teacher 6, and Teacher 14*).

5.6.2.2 Reading Motivation is a Course Book Thing

To begin with the discussion here overlaps with the previous section due to the fact that the course book constitutes *the* reading syllabus. The effect of one single course book on the classroom practices was also pointed out by Bintz (1997). Very similar views to the views of the present study were reported in his study:

Teachers believe that the use of a single textbook is driven by a “one size fits all mentality”. The assumption is that one book can accommodate different personal interests and varied reading abilities. Teachers across the curriculum know firsthand that students bring with them into the classroom different histories of reading, and therefore different values about reading and the role it plays in their lives. They also know that a single textbook cannot and does not accommodate the students' wide range of reading abilities. A more powerful assumption is that varied reading materials can better accommodate varied reading abilities (Bintz, 1997).

In almost the same situation, the participant teachers indicated that they feel caught between the curricular demands and dealing with the students' demotivated behaviors in the class. The students, on the other hand, mentioned that the reading texts in the course book are alright in that they are not too long and they are easy. This view of the students could be attributed to the students' difficulty in dealing with higher-order analyses and work avoidance in that the teachers claimed to observe that due to the education system in Turkey, students cannot deal with long texts and cognitively demanding tasks.

5.6.2.3 Reading Motivation is a Classroom Thing

Two important aspects related to the physical environment of the classroom identified from the interviews were availability of alternative reading materials and the lack of technological devices available in the classrooms. In McKool's (2007) study, avid readers suggested that it was important to be allowed to read what they wanted to read; in other words, choice over the materials to read should be provided. Likewise, Strauss (2008) suggested students respond positively to autonomy: having the freedom to choose motivates students to become engaged in their reading. However, to do this a library is needed which is not available in the immediate environment of the participant students.

Especially when the result of the current study showing that students' online text preferences' significantly affect their reading achievement is taken into account, the availability of technological devices in the classroom or in the close environment has a more important significance. It was suggested by one of the teachers that she feels the need to use technological devices in her classes; however, her classrooms are not equipped with the necessary devices. She also mentioned that her students are more interested in *soft* texts than pen-and-paper texts. A similar suggestion comes from Topping (1997) in that such texts can indeed extend the student's zone of proximal development. The students also lend themselves to repeated readings, and metacognitive instruction and comprehension monitoring can be arranged in parallel as the teacher sees fit.

A key point should be made here in that data of the current study did not discriminate between school reading and extensive reading at home or outside the classroom. Thus it has been speculated that the small correlation between students'

transactional text selections and their reading grades could be attributed to the slow transfer of their gains from the online texts to their reading exams. The importance of the actual classroom practices was emphasized by Taylor et al. (1990); it is valuable for students to actually read during reading class. Considering these two points, use of technology in class and helping the students to transfer the information from navigation-like texts to the real life should be a part of the reading lessons. However, how this should be done calls for future research.

5.6.3 Interest as a Factor in Reading Motivation

The teacher interviews revealed that the perceived problem with reading motivation is very closely related to the students' *interest* levels. Most of the teachers pointed out that if the reading text students are required to read is interesting, students tend to do all of the tasks successfully. However, in an opposite situation, as Hidi & Harackiewicz (2000) pointed out, the absence of academic motivation and lack of interest is mostly reflected in students' neglect of their studies.

More specifically on the issue of interest, Hidi & Harackiewicz (2000) suggested that *situational interest*, which is positive but temporary affective response to an activity, may expand into *individual interest*, which refers to a personal disposition and permanent strong tendency to participate in activities to achieve certain goals. They go on to argue that

situational interest might provide an effective alternative for teachers who wish to optimize interest in their classrooms. Although individual interests have been shown to have a strong impact on learning, their utilization in educational settings may be problematic (p. 156).

Regarding the situational interests of the participant students in the present study, the teacher interviews revealed some *text characteristics* such as length and ease of comprehension without many unknown words influence the situational interest that the students experience. In addition, when the teacher makes some modifications (most of the teachers claimed they do) such as creating contexts, using discussion activities before starting to read the text, the students seem to be more interested.

As Hidi (2001) and Hidi & Harackiewicz (2000) argued it is not always possible to utilize individual interest in the classrooms, so the role of situational interest becomes more important. A related concept extracted from the teacher interviews was the students' interest in certain topics, or the observation that students are more eager to read in the class when the topic is interesting to them.

Topic interest is the "interest triggered when a specific topic of theme is presented" (Hidi, 2001; p. 194). Ainley et al. (2002) explored the relationship among situational, individual and topic interest and found out that a strong existing *individual* interest contributes to *topic* interest. A weak or nonexistent individual interest will increase the likelihood that *situational* factors are dominant. Topic interest was found to influence persistence and in return persistence was associated with learning.

Regarding the role interest types mentioned plays in reading comprehension, and the fact that students' academic motivation decreases, Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000) argued that in order to help academically unmotivated children, the multidimensional nature of motivational forces that impact on individuals' academic performance must be taken into account. More specifically, they argued that the

polarization of more extrinsic motivational factors such as situational interest and the more intrinsic factors such as individual interest need to be reconsidered. In addition, they suggest that educators and researchers should recognize the potential benefits of externally triggered motivation such as situational interest.

5.7 Effect of Culture on Reading Motivation

The effect culture has on the relationship between the students' reading motivation and their reading achievement could be speculated in two ways: first as observed from the student and teacher interviews, some students have political reactions to learn English (for example *Student 4* and *Student 7*) or as a mere speculation, students may have negative attitudes towards English-speaking countries.

Secondly, Wang & Guthrie (2004) and Unrau & Schlackman (2006) specifically explore the effect of culture on reading achievement. While Wang & Guthrie found no difference between U.S. and Chinese students in terms of the effect of reading motivation on reading achievement, suggesting that “there is social and educational commonality shared with the cultural contexts” (p.181). In contrast to Wang & Guthrie, Unrau and Schlackman (2006) found out that neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation aspects had significant contribution to Hispanic students' reading achievement while they had for Asian students. This was attributed to the different orientations that these two cultures have towards school. Considering the fact that it has been spotted by international studies such as PISA and PIRLS, Turkey is in the groups with the lowest reading attitudes and habits, it could be easily speculated that it is plausible to expect that L1 reading motivation had no

contribution to L2 reading achievement and there is a weak transfer from L1 reading motivation to L2.

5.8 A Comparison of the *Factors* and *Themes* Identified

In order to strengthen and validate the data collected, it would be beneficial to compare the quantitative and qualitative data collected. The interview data provided support for the factors *comfort*, *anxiety*, *career* and *value*. Firstly, the factor *comfort* included items that were basically negative (Reading in English is dull / troublesome). In line with this negativity, the theme *educational background* and *personal characteristics of the students* from the teacher interviews revealed that students have a negative attitude towards reading in English and some students have negative attitudes towards learning English.

In addition, the factor *anxiety* is supported by the data from the interviews in that long texts, inconsistencies and exams cause anxiety on the part of the students. Similarly, the interview data supported the factor *career*: the students who are aware of their needs regarding their future academic lives are aware of the importance of learning English or reading in English. Finally, the student interviews revealed supporting data in that students put varying types and degrees of value on reading in Turkish and English. Students attach importance to reading English to do better in reading tasks in the class and in the exams (*practical value*). Students who are not interested in learning English or who have some kind of a negative attitude or reaction to English find reading in Turkish more valuable *intellectually* (for example, *Student 7*).

5.9 Pedagogical Implications

As the results of the current study indicated, the curriculum and the reading syllabus do not include motivational components. At least, the motivational components of the course book, which constitutes the reading syllabus, are just the hidden assumptions. Since the teachers do not get support in this regard, curricular changes should be made to ease the burden on the teachers' shoulders and help them to uncover these assumptions. As evident from the teacher and student interviews, the time spared for reading in the general curriculum is insufficient: specifically the pre-intermediate students need strategy training, which requires more time spent on reading tasks in the classroom. Pre-intermediate students and most of the teachers who teach in that level *openly suggested* that there should be a separate reading session in the weekly schedule.

When the teachers were told that the interviews would focus on reading motivation, they mainly talked about what they already knew about the backgrounds of the students or more *tangible* aspects, such as the course book or the classroom environment. A similar view comes from van Lier (1996) in that earlier motivation research mostly investigated *future* sources of motivation, such as getting a better job (instrumental orientation), or integrating with the target culture (integrative orientation), but ignored *present* sources; namely, those sources that exist in the classroom environment. Since most of the curriculum aspects, namely the course book, the materials, time available, and the tests, are considered *somehow inadequate* by one fourth of the teachers, it is plausible to expect a curriculum renewal with regard to the development of the reading skill.

Moreover, *anxiety* was found to be significant predictor of L2 reading achievement. Regarding this, Saito et al. (1999) suggest preparing the students for the possibility of difficulties and possible anxiety they may experience when introducing reading tasks. They suggest knowing that anxiety is possible is something that reassures the student. In addition, strategy instruction could be integrated into the curriculum considering the fact that it helps the learners to “overcome unrealistic expectations for understanding everything they read and develop reading practices that are more effective than translation” (Saito et al., 1999; p. 216). Positive effects of strategy training on motivation and comprehension are reported in Turkish contexts as well, such as Arpacioğlu (2007), Sadık (2005) and Kantarcı (2006). Next suggestion would be related to the curricular aspects in that the *authentic materials* at an appropriate level of difficulty and extended *time* should be provided to help with the *anxiety* the students experience.

Another result that calls for implementation in class is the use of *technology* in reading lessons. The current study revealed that students’ interaction with online texts have a statistically significant effect on their reading grades. Considering this, some laboratory hours could be organized in which the students have the opportunity to read online, search on the Internet and report what they learned in written or spoken form.

Similarly, the study revealed that the more time the students spend reading, the better grades they get. In line with Taylor et al. (1990), more time should be spared for the students so that they are exposed to the language under the supervision of the teacher.

One final recommendation could be related to the realization that reading motivation is multi-faceted and the teachers should be aware of this fact. The students should not be characterized as either motivated or demotivated but it should be recognized that they are motivated to read for different reasons or purposes. It is crucial then to provide the students with different reasons and purposes that are meaningful for them so that they have the drive to read in the form they want. In this respect, as *Teacher 10* suggested, there is no guidance to help the teachers with the affective side of the reading lessons. Thus, a kind of in service training or a general teacher training programme should be provided to clarify these affective aspects of the language lessons.

5.10 Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this study should be noted. The methodology implemented in this research study had limitations resulting from the innate nature of the data collection methods. It should be noted here that each survey has its own problems or disadvantages. Regarding the *questionnaire*, even though the researcher was available and students had the opportunity to ask questions, it was impossible to correct to each and every misunderstanding. In addition, there was no control over the *incomplete* responses and incomplete questionnaires (Oppenheim, 2000). *Nineteen* (6 % of the total questionnaires collected) questionnaires were not included in the analysis because they were incomplete.

However, with the help of the mixed-methods approach the disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative methods were overcome. As the questionnaire was adapted and translated into Turkish by the researcher, some valuable data may have

slipped through, as the related questions were not included in the questionnaire.

However, the fact that the data was gathered from a large sample helped increase the generalizability of the results. In addition, the measures of all variables except the reading grades were self-reported. Students are often disposed toward socially desirable responses on questionnaires, which could reduce variance and consequently produce an underestimate of the observed associations (Cox & Guthrie, 2001).

Third, the study did not distinguish different types of reading, for example, study reading versus recreational reading. Learners might possess different attitudes toward different types of reading, and this is also an area for investigation.

Fourth, as Yamashita (2007) suggested it should be that another methodological factor could have induced the relationship between L1 and L2 reading attitudes: *use of the same questionnaire format between the L1 and L2 sections* adopted in the factor analyses of L1 and L2 questionnaire responses. Future studies should consider this issue carefully.

Another limitation of the study concerns the particular set of items that were included in the questionnaire administrated. It has been argued in the current study that the results of this study can be interpreted as indicating motivation is multifaceted. However, this does not suggest that the motivation dimensions identified in this study are *the only* ones. Questionnaires containing other kinds of items could potentially uncover other aspects of reading motivation. The researcher believes it is important for researchers to extend the search for additional dimensions of reading motivation.

Next, methodologically speaking, in this study L2 language proficiency levels could not actually be measured but were only estimated from class level.

The final limitation concerns the *generalizability of the results*. The study was conducted in an EFL country, where learners' exposure to English is limited basically because of the restricted need for L2 in daily life. Learners' reading attitudes and patterns of transfer might be different in, for example, second language or bilingual contexts. Studies in different sociocultural contexts may produce different results.

5.11 Suggestions for Further Study

As this study's population was limited to only one private institution, further studies could be conducted in which data from state and/or private universities in other parts of Turkey could be collected to see the overall situation in Turkey.

As indicated before, the exams were reported to have both negative and positive effects on motivation levels of the students to read but it is not known how facilitative or detrimental they are. Some teachers make use of the exams as a motivator to have the students read in the class; however, they were not so sure about the dose or the way to do this. The effect of tests on reading motivation levels of the students in different institutions with different curriculum and reading programs could constitute a basis for the future research.

Third, a *tentative* relationship was found between L1 and L2 reading motivations; however, the same questionnaire was used as the instrument. Obviously and quite naturally students have different reasons to read in English and Turkish. Future research should consider this carefully. In addition, reading motivations and habits of different student groups, not only preparatory school students but also students from departments, could be explored.

Next, the effect of technology or more specifically the effect of students' motivations and preferences of online reading on their achievement levels could be explored in a longitudinal study in that this would also help a researcher to explore the information transfer from the navigation-like texts to real life situations or academic lives of the students.

Finally, observations could be done to explore the effect of classroom-specific motivational variables so that more reliable and richer data could be collected, which could be considered a methodological shortcoming of the current study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Reading Motivation in L1 and Reading Motivation in L2 Questionnaire

PART I. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

- 1. Name:** _____ (for coding purposes only.)
- 2. Age:** ☐ 19 and younger ☐ 20-23 ☐ 24-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40 and older
- 3. Gender:** ☐ Female ☐ Male
- 4. Faculty:** ☐ Engineering ☐ Arts & Sciences ☐ Management
☐ Law ☐ Other, please specify _____
- 5. High school finished:** ☐ Anatolian high school ☐ Science high school
☐ Teacher training high school ☐ Private high school ☐ State high School
☐ Vocational high school ☐ Foreign language intensive high school
☐ Other, please specify _____
- 6. How long have you been learning English?** ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 3-4 years ☐ 5 years and more

PART II. READING MOTIVATION IN L1⁶

All the items below refer to your reading materials in **Turkish** (books, textbooks, newspapers, magazines and on the Internet). Please circle the number which applies to you. Note that there are no right or wrong responses.

| Items | I strongly disagree | I disagree | I neither agree nor disagree | I agree | I strongly agree |
|--|---------------------|------------|------------------------------|---------|------------------|
| 1. I can become more sophisticated if I read materials (books, magazines, newspapers, textbooks, the Internet etc) in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I can get various types of information if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Reading materials in Turkish is troublesome. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Reading materials in Turkish is useful for my future career | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I feel anxious if I don't know all the words when I read something in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I like to get compliments for my reading ability in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

⁶ Adapted from Wang, J. H. & Guthrie, J. T. (2004) Modeling the Effects of Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, Amount of Reading, and Past Reading Achievement on Text Comprehension between U.S. and Chinese students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 39, (2) pp. 162-186 and Yamashita, J. (2007). The relationship of reading attitudes between L1 and L2: An investigation of adult EFL learners in Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41 (1), 81-105.

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|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. I can acquire vocabulary and knowledge about Turkish if I read materials in Turkish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Reading Turkish materials is useful to get good grades in my courses. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I can acquire broad knowledge if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I like having the teacher say I read well in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I feel relaxed if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. When I read something in Turkish , sometimes feel anxious that I may not understand even if I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I like having my friends sometimes tell me I am good at reading in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. I can develop reading ability if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I am happy when someone recognizes my reading ability in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Reading Turkish materials is useful is express myself better in exams. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Reading materials in Turkish is dull. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I get to know about new ways of thinking if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. I can improve my sensitivity to the Turkish language if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I feel tired if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I like having my parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I feel anxious when I'm not sure whether I understood the content of the Turkish material I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. I like to read in Turkish because I always feel happy when I read things that are of interest to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I feel refreshed and rested if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. If the teacher or a friend discusses something interesting I might read more about it from Turkish materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Reading materials in Turkish is useful to get a job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I have favourite subjects that I like to read about in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. I don't mind even if I cannot understand the content entirely when I read something in Turkish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them from Turkish materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Reading materials in Turkish is enjoyable. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. I like to read about new things (different cultures, traditions, sports etc) from Turkish materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 32. I get to know about different values if I read materials in Turkish . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. I enjoy reading about different countries and learning about them (people, culture, food, traditions etc of those countries) from Turkish materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

L1 Reading Habits

1. Please check which of the following types of reading selections you like to read in TURKISH (You can pick more than one):

1. _____ Daily newspaper(s) (such as Milliyet, Hürriyet)
2. _____ Online newspapers (such as www.milliyet.com.tr, www.haberturk.com.tr)
3. _____ Weekly/Monthly magazines (such as *Newsweek Türkiye* or *Atlas*)
4. _____ Comics (such as *Penguen*)
5. _____ How-to books (such as auto repair manuals and cookbooks)
6. _____ Reference books (such as an encyclopaedia or dictionary)
7. _____ Electronic references such as wikipedia
8. _____ Textbooks
9. _____ Collections of short stories
10. _____ Novels
11. _____ Collections of essays (such as *Montaigne*)
12. _____ Collections of poetry
13. _____ Games
14. _____ Classical works of literature
15. _____ Internet (such as www.facebook.com)
16. _____ email, text messages (sms)
17. _____ song lyrics
18. _____ other, please specify _____.

Check one:

2. I read Turkish materials _____.

- ☐ once a month
- ☐ twice-three times a month
- ☐ once a week
- ☐ twice-three times a week
- ☐ everyday
- ☐ other, please specify _____

3. Every time I read Turkish materials, I read for _____.

- ☐ less than 15 minutes
- ☐ 15-30 minutes
- ☐ 30-45 minutes
- ☐ 45-60 minutes
- ☐ more than 60 minutes
- ☐ other, please specify _____

4. (Please consider your reading on the Internet. 200 words = 1 page)

Every time I read Turkish materials, I read _____

- ☐ fewer than 5 pages
- ☐ 5-10 pages
- ☐ 10-30 pages
- ☐ 30-70 page
- ☐ more than 70 pages
- ☐ other, please specify _____

PART III. L2 READING MOTIVATION

All the items below refer to your reading materials in **English** (books, textbooks, newspapers, magazines and on the Internet).

Please circle the number which applies to you. Note that there are no right or wrong responses.

| | I strongly disagree | I disagree | I neither agree nor disagree | I agree | I strongly agree |
|--|---------------------|------------|------------------------------|---------|------------------|
| 1. I can become more sophisticated if I read materials (books, magazines, newspapers, textbooks, the Internet etc) in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I can get various types of information if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Reading materials in English is troublesome. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Reading materials in English is useful for my future career | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I feel anxious if I don't know all the words when I read something in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I like to get compliments for my reading ability in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I can acquire vocabulary and knowledge about English if I read materials in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Reading English materials is useful to get good grades in the quizzes and mid-term exams. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I can acquire broad knowledge if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I like having the teacher say I read well in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I feel relaxed if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. When I read something in English , sometimes feel anxious that I may not understand even if I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I like having my friends sometimes tell me I am good at reading in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. I can develop reading ability if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. I am happy when someone recognizes my reading ability in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Reading English materials is useful is pass the Proficiency Exam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Reading materials in English is dull. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I get to know about new ways of thinking if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. I can improve my sensitivity to the English language if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I feel tired if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I like having my parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I feel anxious when I'm not sure whether I understood the content of the English material I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. I like to read in English because I always feel happy when I read things that are of interest to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I feel refreshed and rested if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. If the teacher or a friend discusses something interesting I might read more about it from English materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Reading materials in English is useful to get a job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I have favourite subjects that I like to read about in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. I don't mind even if I cannot understand the content entirely when I read something in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them from English materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Reading materials in English is enjoyable. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. I like to read about new things (different cultures, traditions, sports etc) from English materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. I get to know about different values if I read materials in English . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. I enjoy reading about different countries and learning about them (people, culture, food, traditions etc of those countries) from English materials. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

L2 Reading Habits

1. Please check which of the following types of reading selections you like to read in **ENGLISH** (You can pick more than one):

1. _____ Daily newspaper(s) (such as Turkish Daily News)
2. _____ Online newspapers (such as www.times.com , www.hurriyetdailynews.com)
3. _____ Weekly/Monthly magazines (such as *Newsweek* or *National Geographic*)
4. _____ Comics
5. _____ How-to books (such as auto repair manuals and cookbooks)
6. _____ Reference books (such as an encyclopaedia or dictionary)
7. _____ Electronic references such as wikipedia
8. _____ Textbooks
9. _____ Collections of short stories
10. _____ Novels
11. _____ Collections of essays (such as *Montaigne*)
12. _____ Collections of poetry
13. _____ Games
14. _____ Classical works of literature
15. _____ Internet (such as www.facebook.com)
16. _____ email, text messages (sms)
17. _____ song lyrics
18. _____ other, please specify _____.

Check one:

2. I read English materials _____.

- ☐ once a month
- ☐ twice-three times a month
- ☐ once a week
- ☐ twice-three times a week
- ☐ everyday
- ☐ other, please specify _____

3. Every time I read English materials, I read for _____.

- ☐ less than 15 minutes
- ☐ 15-30 minutes
- ☐ 30-45 minutes
- ☐ 45-60 minutes
- ☐ more than 60 minutes
- ☐ other, please specify _____

4. (Please consider your reading on the Internet. 200 words = 1 page))

Every time I read English materials, I read _____

- ☐ fewer than 5 pages
- ☐ 5-10 pages
- ☐ 10-30 pages
- ☐ 30-70 page
- ☐ more than 70 pages
- ☐ other, please specify _____

Thank you for your time.
Good luck with your studies.

APPENDIX 2

Reading Motivation in L1 and Reading Motivation in L2 Questionnaire – Turkish Version

BÖLÜM I. GENEL BİLGİLER

1. Adınız: _____ (Sadece kodlama amaçlı kullanılacaktır.)

2. Yaşınız: ☐ 19 ve altı ☐ 20-23 ☐ 24-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40 ve üstü

3. Cinsiyetiniz: ☐ Kadın ☐ Erkek

4. Fakülteniz: ☐ Mühendislik Fakültesi ☐ Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi

☐ İşletme Fakültesi ☐ Hukuk Fakültesi ☐ Diğer, belirtiniz _____

5. Bitirdiğiniz Lise: ☐ Anadolu Lisesi ☐ Fen Lisesi

☐ Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi ☐ Özel Lise (Kolej) ☐ Genel Lise ☐ Meslek Lisesi

☐ Yabancı Dil Ağırlıklı Lise ☐ Diğer, belirtiniz _____

6. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz? ☐ 1-2 yıldır ☐ 3-4 yıldır ☐ 5 yıl ve üzeri

BÖLÜM II. ANA DİLDE OKUMA MOTİVASYONU

Aşağıdaki tüm maddeler **TÜRKÇE** okuduğunuz kaynaklar (kitaplar, ders kitapları, gazeteler, dergiler ve internet üzerinden okuduklarınız) ile ilgilidir. Sizi en iyi ifade eden seçeneği işaretleyiniz. **Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur.**

| Maddeler | Kesinlikle katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Ne katılıyorum ne atılmıyorum | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle katılıyorum |
|--|-------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| 1. Türkçe kaynaklar (kitaplar, ders kitapları, gazeteler, dergiler ve internet üzerinden okuduklarınız) okursam daha bilgili olabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Türkçe kaynaklar okursam değişik türlerde bilgi edinebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Türkçe kaynaklar okumak zahmetlidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Türkçe kaynaklar okumak gelecek kariyerim için faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Türkçe bir şey okurken bütün kelimeleri bilmiyorsa endişelenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Türkçe okuma becerim ile ilgili övgü almak hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Türkçe kaynaklar okursam Türkçe kelime dağarcığım ve Türkçe ifade gücüm gelişir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Türkçe kaynaklar okumak derslerimde iyi notlar almak için faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Türkçe kaynaklar okursam kapsamlı bilgi edinebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Öğretmenimin iyi bir okuyucu (Türkçe’de) olduğumu söylemesi hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Türkçe kaynaklar okuduğumda kendimi rahat hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Türkçe bir şey okurken okuduğumu anlamayacağımı düşünerek bazen endişelenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Bazen arkadaşlarımın iyi bir okuyucu (Türkçe’de) olduğumu söylemesi hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Türkçe kaynaklar okursam okuma yeteneğimi geliştirebilirim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Birisi Türkçe okuma becerimin farkına vardığında mutlu olurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Türkçe kaynaklar okumak sınavlarda kendimi daha iyi ifade etmek için faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Türkçe kaynak okumak sıkıcıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Türkçe kaynaklar okursam yeni düşünce yöntemleri öğrenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Türk diline olan duyarlılığımı Türkçe kaynaklar okursam geliştirebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Türkçe kaynaklar okuduğumda kendimi yorgun hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Anne babamın sık sık Türkçe okumada ne kadar iyi bir iş çıkardığımı söylemesi hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Okuduğum Türkçe kaynağın içeriğini anladığımdan emin değilsem endişelenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. İlgiyi çeken konular hakkında Türkçe kaynaklar okuduğumda mutlu hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Türkçe kaynaklar okuduğumda kendimi yenilenmiş ve dinlenmiş hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Öğretmen ya da bir arkadaş ilginç bir şeyden bahsederse bu konu ile ilgili daha fazla Türkçe kaynak okuyabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. İş bulmak için Türkçe kaynak okumak faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Hakkında Türkçe okumaktan hoşlandığım favori konularım var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Türkçe bir şey okurken içeriği tam olarak anlayamazsam bile umursamam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Hobilerim hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek için Türkçe kaynaklar okurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Türkçe kaynaklar okumak eğlencelidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Yeni şeyler (değişik kültürler, gelenekler, spor dalları vb) hakkında Türkçe kaynaklar okumayı severim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Türkçe kaynaklar okursam farklı değer yargıları öğrenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Türkçe kaynaklardan farklı ülkeler hakkında okumak ve onlarla ilgili (halk, kültür, yiyecek, gelenek vb) bilgi edinmek hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Ana Dilde Okuma Alışkanlıkları

1. Lütfen aşağıdaki kaynaklardan hangilerini **TÜRKÇE** okumayı sevdiğinizi belirtiniz. (Birden fazla seçebilirsiniz)

1. _____ Günlük gazeteler (Milliyet, Hürriyet gibi)
2. _____ Online gazeteler / haber portalları (www.milliyet.com.tr, www.haberturk.com.tr gibi)
3. _____ Haftalık /Aylık dergiler (*Newsweek Türkiye* ya da *Atlas* gibi)
4. _____ Mizah dergileri (*Penguen* gibi)
5. _____ El kitapları (oto tamiri el kitabı ya da yemek kitapları gibi)
6. _____ Referans kaynakları (ansiklopedi ya da sözlük gibi)
7. _____ Elektronik referanslar (www.wikipedia.org gibi)
8. _____ Ders kitapları
9. _____ Kısa hikaye derlemeleri
10. _____ Romanlar
11. _____ Deneme derlemeleri (Montaigne gibi)
12. _____ Şiir derlemeleri
13. _____ Oyunlar
14. _____ Edebiyat klasikleri
15. _____ İnternet (www.facebook.com gibi)
16. _____ Elektronik posta ve mesajlar (sms)
17. _____ Şarkı sözleri
18. _____ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____.

Birini seçiniz:

2. Türkçe kaynakları _____ okurum.

- ☐ ayda bir
- ☐ ayda iki üç kez
- ☐ haftada bir
- ☐ haftada iki üç kez
- ☐ hergün
- ☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

3. Türkçe kaynakları **her okuduğumda** _____ süre ile okurum.

- ☐ 15 dakikadan az
- ☐ 15-30 dakika
- ☐ 30-45 dakika
- ☐ 45-60 dakika
- ☐ 60 dakikadan fazla
- ☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

4. (Lütfen bu soruyu internet üzerinden yaptığınız okumaları da düşünerek cevaplayın; 200 kelime = 1 sayfa)

Türkçe kaynakları **her okuduğumda** _____ okurum.

- ☐ 5 sayfadan az
- ☐ 5-10 sayfa
- ☐ 10-30 sayfa
- ☐ 30-70 sayfa
- ☐ 70 sayfadan fazla
- ☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

BÖLÜM III. İKİNCİ DİLDE OKUMA MOTİVASYONU

Aşağıdaki tüm maddeler **İNGİLİZCE** okuduğunuz kaynaklar (kitaplar, ders kitapları, gazeteler, dergiler ve internet üzerinden okuduklarınız) ile ilgilidir. Sizi en iyi ifade eden seçeneği işaretleyiniz. **Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur.**

| Maddeler | Kesinlikle katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Ne katılıyorum ne atılmıyorum | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle katılıyorum |
|---|-------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| 1. İngilizce kaynaklar (kitaplar, ders kitapları, gazeteler, dergiler ve internet üzerinden okuduklarınız) okursam daha bilgili olabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. İngilizce kaynaklar okursam değişik türlerde bilgi edinebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. İngilizce kaynaklar okumak zahmetlidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. İngilizce kaynaklar okumak gelecek kariyerim için faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. İngilizce bir şey okurken bütün kelimeleri bilmiyorsam endişelenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. İngilizce okuma becerim ile ilgili övgü almak hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. İngilizce kaynaklar okursam İngilizce kelime dağarcığım ve İngilizce ifade gücüm gelişir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. İngilizce kaynaklar okumak “quiz” ve “mid-term” sınavlarında iyi not almak için faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. İngilizce kaynaklar okursam kapsamlı bilgi edinebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Öğretmenin iyi bir okuyucu (İngilizce’de) olduğumu söylemesi hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. İngilizce kaynaklar okuduğumda kendimi rahat hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. İngilizce bir şey okurken okuduğumu anlamayacağımı düşünerek bazen endişelenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Bazen arkadaşlarımdan iyi bir okuyucu (İngilizce’de) olduğumu söylemesi hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. İngilizce kaynaklar okursam okuma yeteneğimi geliştirebilirim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Birisi İngilizce okuma becerimin farkına vardığında mutlu olurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. İngilizce kaynaklar okumak Yeterlik Sınavı’nı (Proficiency Exam) geçmek için faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. İngilizce kaynak okumak sıkıcıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. İngilizce kaynaklar okursam yeni düşünce yöntemleri öğrenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. İngilizce diline olan duyarlılığımı İngilizce kaynaklar okursam geliştirebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. İngilizce kaynaklar okuduğumda kendimi yorgun hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Anne babamın sık sık İngilizce okumada ne kadar iyi bir iş çıkardığını söylemesi hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Okuduğum İngilizce kaynağın içeriğini anladığımdan emin değilsem endişelenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. İlgiyi çeken konular hakkında İngilizce kaynaklar okuduğumda mutlu hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. İngilizce kaynaklar okuduğumda kendimi yenilenmiş ve dinlenmiş hissedirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Öğretmen ya da bir arkadaş ilginç bir şeyden bahsederse bu konu ile ilgili daha fazla İngilizce kaynak okuyabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. İş bulmak için İngilizce kaynak okumak faydalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Hakkında İngilizce okumaktan hoşlandığım favori konularım var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. İngilizce bir şey okurken içeriği tam olarak anlayamazsam bile umursamam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Hobilerim hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek için İngilizce kaynaklar okurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. İngilizce kaynaklar okumak eğlencelidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Yeni şeyler (değişik kültürler, gelenekler, spor dalları vb) hakkında İngilizce kaynaklar okumayı severim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. İngilizce kaynaklar okursam farklı değer yargıları öğrenirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. İngilizce kaynaklardan farklı ülkeler hakkında okumak ve onlarla ilgili (halk, kültür, yiyecek, gelenek vb) bilgi edinmek hoşuma gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

İkinci Dilde Okuma Alışkanlıkları

1. Lütfen aşağıdaki kaynaklardan hangilerini **İNGİLİZCE** okumayı sevdiğinizi belirtiniz. (Birden fazla seçebilirsiniz)

1. _____ Günlük gazeteler (Turkish Daily News gibi)
2. _____ Online gazeteler (www.times.com, www.hurriyetdailynews.com gibi)
3. _____ Haftalık /Aylık dergiler (Newsweek ya da National Geographic gibi)
4. _____ Mizah dergileri
5. _____ El kitapları (oto tamiri el kitabı ya da yemek kitapları gibi)
6. _____ Referans kaynakları (ansiklopedi ya da sözlük gibi)
7. _____ Elektronik referanslar (www.wikipedia.org gibi)
8. _____ Ders kitapları
9. _____ Kısa hikaye derlemeleri
10. _____ Romanlar
11. _____ Deneme derlemeleri (Montaigne gibi)
12. _____ Şiir derlemeleri
13. _____ Oyunlar
14. _____ Edebiyat klasikleri
15. _____ İnternet (www.facebook.com gibi)
16. _____ Elektronik posta ve mesajlar (sms)
17. _____ Şarkı sözleri
18. _____ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____.

Birini seçiniz:

2. İngilizce kaynakları _____ okurum.

- ☐ ayda bir
- ☐ ayda iki üç kez
- ☐ haftada bir
- ☐ haftada iki üç kez
- ☐ hergün
- ☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

3. İngilizce kaynakları *her okuduğumda* _____ süre ile okurum.

- ☐ 15 dakikadan az
- ☐ 15-30 dakika
- ☐ 30-45 dakika
- ☐ 45-60 dakika
- ☐ 60 dakikadan fazla
- ☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

4. (Lütfen bu soruyu internet üzerinden yaptığınız okumaları da düşünerek cevaplayın;
200 kelime = 1 sayfa)

İngilizce kaynakları *her okuduğumda* _____ okurum.

- ☐ 5 sayfadan az
- ☐ 5-10 sayfa
- ☐ 10-30 sayfa
- ☐ 30-70 sayfa
- ☐ 70 sayfadan fazla
- ☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

ZAMANINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜRLER ☺☺
Derslerinizde başarılar diliyorum.

APPENDIX 3

Teacher Interview Questions

Part A. Student Factors

1. What personal factors of the students affect their motivation to read in Turkish and English?
2. In what ways does student motivation to read emerge in your lessons?
3. In what ways does student motivation to read affect your classroom practices?

Part B. Possible Institutional Factors

1. In what ways does the reading program affect the students' L2 reading motivation?
2. In what ways do the *materials/course books* affect the students' L2 reading motivation?
3. What types of *tasks* does the reading program require the students to do?
4. How does the testing system affect the students' L2 reading motivation?

Part C. Other Factors

1. What other factors do you think affect students' reading motivation in L1, positively or negatively?
2. What other factors do you think affect students' reading motivation in L2, positively or negatively? (attitude towards the target culture, people etc)

APPENDIX 4

Student Interview Questions

A. Background Questions

1. How important is reading for you, both in Turkish and English? And why?
2. How were your reading habits shaped?

B. L2 Reading Motivation --- Reading Program Related Questions

3. In what ways does the reading program (the coursebooks, passages, techniques etc.) affect your L2 reading motivation?

3a. In what ways do the *materials/course books* affect your L2 reading motivation?

- a. Do you generally like the topics? Do you find them *interesting*?
- b. Can you understand the texts provided easily?
- c. Do you feel *anxious* when reading in English? When do you particularly get anxious?

3b. What types of *tasks* does the reading program require you to do? Are they varied and useful enough?

- a. Can you do all of the tasks *easily*, or do you have *problems* with certain types of tasks?
- a. Does your teacher spend *enough time* for the reading tasks?
- b. Does she/he deal with your problems with the tasks, if you have any? Can you give examples?

3c. How does the testing system affect your L2 reading motivation?

4. As you learn English, do you feel comfortable enough to *read more in English*?

- a. What skills/guidance have you been getting from the reading program here?

APPENDIX 5

SAMPLE INTERVIEW ANALYSIS

| | CODING |
|--|--|
| <p>Interviewer: <i>What personal factors of the students affect their motivation to read in Turkish and English?</i></p> <p>Teacher: bazı öğrenciler kendiliğinden okuma yapmayı seviyorlar yani bunu İngilizce Türkçe diye ayırmaya gerek yok. Çocukluğundan itibaren okuma sevdirelmiş ailelerinde belki anne baba tarafından gelen bir şey ev ortamından ya da ailenin ekonomik durumundan. Bazıları okumayı seviyor bunu gözlemliyorum eline gecen her şeyi okuyor. En önemli etken bazı çocukların ilkokuldan getirdikleri alışkanlıkları. İkincisi, bazıları öğrenmeye meraklı, çok ilgili mesela sen daha talimatı vermeden okumaya başlıyor. Evde okumuş gelmiş olanlar oluyor çok şaşıyorum. Bunlar merak edenler küçücük bir şeyi bile normal hayatla bağdaştıran çocuklar. Bunlar olumlu. Biraz dil seviyeleri Türkçede de İngilizcede de. Dil yetenekleri gelişmiş olan öğrencilerin okuma motivasyonunun yüksek olduğunu görüyorum. Ne okuduğunu anlıyor çocuk. Bu onun için bir sıkıntı, endişe sebebi olmuyor. O yüzden bu çocukların motivasyonları daha iyi diğerlerine göre. Ama bazıları Türkçe bile okuduklarını anlamadıklarını ifade ediyorlar. İngilizcede ne olduğunu ne geçtiğini olayı anlamadığı için bu şeye sebep oluyor; motivasyon düşüklüğüne. Bunun dışında bölümle alakası olduğunu düşünmüyorum. Sınıfta gözlemliyorum çok alakasız bölümler mühendislik öğrencilerinden çok ilgili olanlar var her şeyi okuyanlar var sadece kitap değil internetten orda burada her şeyi okuyanlar var. Sosyal bölümlerin daha çok okumasını bekliyoruz ama öyle olmayabiliyor.</p> <p>I: <i>In what ways does student motivation to read emerge in your lessons?</i></p> <p>T: İlk o psikolojik bir tepki var reading dediğimizde. Bazılarının hemen yüzü gülüyor hemen okumaya başlıyor</p> | <p>background</p> <p>curiosity</p> <p>language</p> <p>anxiety</p> <p>reaction</p> |

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| <p>sen daha bir şey demeden. Motivasyon olmayanlarda daha çok su tepki gözlemlenebiliyor: sıkıldıklarını, okumak istemediklerini anlamsız bulduklarını söylüyorlar. Ne gerek var, çok uzun diyorlar. Bunılıyorlar daha en başında yapmak istemiyor. Genelde de tamamını okumadan daha cevapları verip kurtulmak derdinde oluyorlar. Okumak isteyenler de bir ilgi: orda bir şey okuyor “aa hocam duydunuz mu böyle böyleymiş” diyor mesela. Ya da gülüyor, tepkiler veriyor anladığı için ya da üzülüyor.</p> <p>Bazıları daha okumaya başlamadan anlamayacağını düşünerek okumaya başlıyor. Nasıl olsa anlamayacağım dediği için de okumaya değer görmüyor. Kaygıya da sebep oluyor çünkü başarı seviyesi düşük olanlar, İngilizce seviyesi düşük olanlar diğerleri anlayacak ben anlamayacağım korkusuyla o stresle okumaya başlıyorlar. Rahat rahat okusa yapabilecek belki ama ... Sınavlarda da görüyoruz bunu. Daha readinge başlamadan ter boşaldığını titrediğini görüyoruz. Sınıfta da aynı. Bir sıkıntı...</p> <p>I: <i>In what ways does student motivation to read affect your classroom practices?</i></p> <p>T: Motivasyonu yüksek olanlarla ilgili sorun yok zaten ama motivasyonu düşük olanlar çoğunlukta zaten. Biraz daha yapacağın şeyi basite indirgemene sebep oluyor, bu çok kötü bir şey ama. Aktiviteyi hayal ettiğin gibi, o düzeyde yapamıyorsun. Hayal ettiğin soruları soramıyorsun çünkü biliyorsun cevap alamayacaksın. Daha basit sorularla onların seviyelerine inerek soru sormaya çalışıyorum. Biraz daha, bu da kotu bir şey aslında ama, sınavla sınavda hani karşılına daha sonra nasıl çıkacağını söyleyerek, bak bu sınavda da karşına çıkacak, okumak ve buna alışmak zorundasın diyerek motive ediyoruz. O zaman da kitaptaki aktiviteleri değiştirerek sınavda çıkacak şekilde hazırlayarak yapıyoruz. Öyle olunca daha çok yapıyorlar. Başarısız öğrenciler de bir şekilde yapmaya çalışıyor. Ama sen o readingin hakkını vererek yapmış olmuyorsun. Sınava yönelik yapıyorsun. Belki benim orada öğretmek istediğim stratejiler var, bir analiz etmek istiyorum ama bunu</p> | <p>interest</p> <p>anxiety</p> <p>language</p> <p>way to deal with problems</p> <p>exams / washback</p> |
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| <p>yapamıyorsun.</p> <p>I: <i>In what ways does the reading program affect the students' L2 reading motivation?</i></p> <p>T: Hocanın derste yaptıkları .. Reading programı yok çünkü: şöyle yeterli değil, şey yok hani çocuklara reading stratejisi, skill öğretecek somut bir program yok elimizde yani alabildiğine okusun iste comprehension soruları çözsün True/ False yapsın. Reading bu değil aslında. En baştan çocuklara bu reading stratejileri vermediğimiz için readinglerle nasıl başa çıkacaklarını bilemiyorlar. C kurunda yaptığımız readingde de aynı şeyi uyguluyoruz A kurunda yaptığımız readinglerde de aynı şeyi uyguluyoruz. Bu çocuklara readingi nasıl okuyacaklar, nasıl inceleyecekler, nasıl oradaki bilgileri toparlayıp sentez edecekler onu öğretmediğimiz için hocalar belki şahsen öğretiyordur ama standart bir program olmadığı için çok yetersiz buluyorum o anlamda. Çocuklara readingle nasıl başa çıkacaklarını, nasıl kullanacaklarını, neresini okuyacak, cevabı nasıl bulacak bunu hiçbir zaman öğretmiyor. Bunun bir sebebi de çok fazla sınava dayalı olması bence, ilerisini düşünerek bu çocukların akademik anlamda readingi nasıl yapacakları, yarın öbür gün değil de sınavda nasıl bir şekilde kendilerini kurtaracaklarını düşünerek hareket ettiğimiz için bu çok büyük bir eksiklik. Daha sistemli yapılabilse reading programı, sistemli bir reading programı oluşturulsa en azından bu motivasyonu düşük öğrencilerin yarısını kazanmış oluruz çünkü onlara bununla nasıl başa çıkacaklarını öğretmiş oluruz.</p> <p>I: <i>In what ways do the materials/course books affect the students' L2 reading motivation?</i></p> <p>T: Course booku başarılı bulmuyorum sonuçta bizim reading programımız coursebookun reading programı gibi. Zaten bizi buna iten coursebook bence. Okusun diyor</p> | <p>lack of systematic programme</p> <p>exams / washback</p> <p>strategy</p> <p>coursebook</p> |
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| <p>okutuyoruz. Şunları cevaplasın diyor cevaplatıyoruz. Ama herkes kendince bir şey kullanarak, işte biri atarak öbürü yanındakine sorarak yapıyor oburu başka bilgisini kullanarak yapıyor, hani şey yok sistemli bir şekilde belli stratejiler uygulayarak kimse yapmıyor bunu coursebook da bu anlamda pek şey değil, başarılı.</p> | <p>strategy training</p> |
| <p>I: <i>What types of tasks does the reading program require the students to do?</i></p> <p>T: hepsi birbirine bağlı aslında, zincirleme. Bir kere adam gibi bir reading programının olmayışı herkesi kendi haline bırakıyor. Herkes de kendi bildiğini yapıyor. Sonuçta tasklarda da en başta öğretmen gereken şeyleri öğretmezsen yine aynı şey. Şöyle kendilerinin anlayıp yorumlayıp cevap verecek şeyleri mesela çok atıyorum direk cevap varsa reading içinde onu yapıyorlar ama dolaylı olarak anlamaları gereken şeylerde çok zorlanıyor benim sınıfım mesela. Yorum yaparak, tahminde bulunarak bir cevap vermelerini beklediğimde hiç kimseden cevap yok. Ya da yorumlayamıyorlar, okuduklarını sadece okuduğunu anlıyor hani orda mesaj ne onu şey yapamıyor. Ya da özetletmeye çalışıyorum, bazen yaptırıyorum ben bunu, hani olayın can alıcı noktalarını değil de daha çok factleri veriyorlar. Orda şeyi anlamıyor hani o gist dediğimiz özünü anlamadığı için daha çok bunlarda zorlanıyorlar. Hani daha çok bunları şey yapacak pekiştirecek bir program olmalı.</p> | <p>higher order skills</p> |
| <p>I: <i>How does the testing system affect the students' L2 reading motivation?</i></p> <p>T: Negatif tabi ki. Ama amaca yönelik düşünmek lazım bizim amacımız sınavlarda başarılı olmalarını sağlamak ve bölüme göndermek öğrenciler bu bakımdan bakarsak doğruymuş gibi geliyor. Ama hazırlık okulunun amacı, reading sonuçta çok önemli bir skill, bölümleri için sınavlarda başarılı olsun diye reading öğretmiyoruz biz sonuçta, bölüm için, bölümde okuduklarını anlamaları için, sonuçta meslekleri olacak yani o anlamda bence negatif. Çok sınırlı öğretiyoruz yani readingi biz readingi sadece okuyup 3/ 5 soruyu cevaplamakmış gibi bir izlenim</p> | <p>negative washback</p> |

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| <p>yaratıyoruz ama biz ama bunun böyle olmadığı çok açık yani bölümüne gidecek kalın kalın kitapları, makaleleri nasıl anlayacak, nasıl yorumlayacak, analiz, sentez edecek, bu çok büyük bir problem.</p> <p>I: <i>What other factors do you think affect students' reading motivation in L1, positively or negatively? (parents, home environment, education policies in Turkey etc)</i></p> <p>T: Ailenin eğitim seviyesi, ekonomik durumla da alakalı bu bazılarının anne babaları daha eğitilmiş, evlerinde kitapları çok anlatışlarından anlıyorsun yani anne baba kendisi okuyor çocuğu da itmiş yıllarca. Öyleleri okumayı zahmet olarak görmüyor çünkü zaten yaptıkları bir şey. Bazıları mesela Türkçe roman, kitap okumayı daha çok seviyor ve anlatıyorlar hocam şunu okudum, şunun yeni kitabı çıkmış diye. Böyle çocuklar İngilizce okumak konusunda da şey değiller, okumayı zahmet olarak görmüyorlar ya da yabancı müzik seven, internetle çok haşır neşir olan, sürekli yabancı film izleyen İngilizce alt yazılı izleyen bu çocuklar için okumakta üşense bile anlamak çok problem değil. Ekstra çaba göstermediğini biliyorsun diğerleri kadar çalışmadığını da biliyorsun ama bu çocuklar daha başarılı. Bunun çalışmakla açıklanacak bir tarafı yok bence. Ailenin kültürel sosyal düzeyine gidiyor yine. Bazılarının mesela evlerinde kitap yok öyle söylüyorlar, bu çocuk tabi ki okumayı sevmiş olamaz.</p> <p>I: <i>What other factors do you think affect students' reading motivation in L2, positively or negatively? (attitude towards the target culture, people etc)</i></p> <p>T: Bazılarında mesela bir tavır var. Derste mecbur kaldığı için okuması gerektiğini düşünüyor mesela hatta okumuyor bile ama onun dışında İngilizce öğrenmeye inanmadığı için İngilizce eğitime de inanmadığı için bazıları hatta bunu</p> | <p>higher order skills</p> <p>background</p> <p>technology</p> <p>background</p> <p>reaction / background</p> |
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| <p>politik görüşlerle de bağdaştırıyor. Neden okuyayım diyor mesela, İngilizlerin şununu öğrenmeme ne gerek var diyor mesela. Buradaki bilgi benim ne isime yarayacak diyor mesela, ona reading öğrenmek olarak bakmıyor da o readingin içindeki konuları empose etmek olarak görüyor. Mesela Christmas ile ilgili bir konu vardı mesela hatırlıyorum ben bunu okumam demişti. Bizim kültürümüzde bunlar yok niye okuyayım diyor. Bu daha çok şey daha böyle Anadolu'dan gelen çocuklarda eğitim seviyesi çok genelleme yapmamak lazım ama daha böyle alt ve orta seviyeden gelen ailelerin çocuklarında böyle bir bakış açısı var. Biraz daha kolejlerden gelenlerde böyle bir tavır yok onlar daha evrensel düşünüyor, lazım olduğunu düşünüyor. Ama diğerlerinde şey var benim dilim değil ben İngiliz kölesi olamam, bu okuduğum benim hiçbir işime yaramayacak, okumam gibi bir tavır var. Bir şekilde zorla okusa bile kimliğinden taviz vermiş gibi düşünüyor.</p> <p>Çok nadir ama geleceğe dair planları olan bazı öğrenciler var mesela bölümü bitirdiğinde akademik kariyer yapmayı düşünen, gerçekten alanında iyi olmaya çalışan öğrenciler var bunu daha çok mühendislik öğrencilerinde gözlemliyorum ben. Bu öğrenciler zorlansa da sevmese de okumayı, onu yapması gerektiğini biliyor. Gelecekte bunun lazım olacağını rakipleri ile yarışırken lazım olacağını biliyor. Bir şekilde kendini geliştirmek için o zahmete katlanıyor adam. Bütün taskları zorlanmadan reddetmeden götürüyor. Bazıları da zaten zorla gelmiş bir şekilde üniversiteyi bitirip hemen işine gücüne gitmek amacıyla. Böyleleri çok uzun vadeli düşünmüyor yaptığı işi bu ders bitsin öbür ders bakarım. Geleceğe yönelik planlarının farklı olmasıyla alakalı sanırım. Daha başarılı olmaya kanalize olmuş öğrenciler daha sorumluluk sahibi. Yaptığı şeyi daha anlamlı buluyor.</p> | <p>background</p> <p>personal needs</p> |
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APPENDIX 6

FROM CODES TO THEMES – Teacher Interviews

| <i>Codes (Step 1)</i> | <i>Themes Identified (Step 2)</i> | <i>Organizing Themes</i> | <i>Global Themes</i> |
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| <p>program syllabus objectives strategies</p> <p>course book materials</p> <p>exams feedback</p> | <p>There is no systematic reading <i>syllabus</i></p> <p>The preparatory school program lacks the aim of preparing the Ss for their departments</p> <p>There is no extensive reading focus in the syllabus.</p> <p>Reading is done just because it is its turn among other things</p> <p>Teacher is limited to the <i>course book</i>.</p> <p>Course book is monotonous</p> <p>Course book is not challenging</p> <p>Course book's reading syllabus is our reading syllabus</p> <p>Skills are integrated / same characters in each unit, thus coherent.</p> <p>A good reading lesson cannot be implemented from the course book, you have to leave it aside</p> <p>Our course book is the international version, so some contexts may not be suitable.</p> <p>Course book does not teach vocabulary well.</p> <p><i>Exams</i> are grammar and vocabulary oriented</p> <p>Ss do not need to study to succeed</p> | <p><i>Institutional Factors</i></p> | <p><i>Educational Factors</i></p> |

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| teacher | <p>in the reading part, it is easy.</p> <p>Exam is a way used to motivate Ss.</p> <p>Exams are not consistent with course book tasks.</p> <p>Ss are not tested on what they learn</p> <p>Ss see exams as their most important aim, it motivates them.</p> <p>Ss do not get feedback after the exam results are announced.</p> <p>Teacher is responsible for motivating Ss, not the book</p> <p>If Ss are demotivated they become demotivated too.</p> <p>T is free what to do and not to do T does not get guidance how to deal with reading.</p> <p>T is limited to the course book.</p> | | |
| education policies | <p>Our students' university entry grades are very low.</p> <p>Students are not knowledgeable about effective learning strategies due to educational policies.</p> | <i>Educational background</i> | |
| Technology | <p>School should have technologic devices ready in classrooms to be made use of by the teachers.</p> <p>There are a lot of reading texts provided in a week's time.</p> <p>6 classes every day are too much.</p> | <i>Environmental factors</i> | |
| habit acquisition background high school economic | <p>Reading habits lead to high motivation</p> <p>Reading motivation is acquired before coming to our school</p> <p>Ss lack the habit of doing</p> | | |

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| curiosity interest | <p>homework, everything should be done in class.</p> <p>Ss with reading habits speak a lot in class.</p> <p>Our Ss have insufficient cultural background</p> <p>High schools provide cultural and educational background</p> <p>Better high schools, better reading habits.</p> <p>curiosity</p> <p>Curious Ss want to read more and curious readers are better readers.</p> <p>The texts provided are not good enough to cultivate curiosity.</p> <p>It is assumed that if T is curious about sth, Ss are too.</p> <p>If Ss are interested in learning or English, they are more motivated to read.</p> | <i>Personal Characteristics</i> | <i>Personal Factors</i> |
| reaction need | <p>Reading is meaningless.</p> <p>Ss think that there is no need to learn English.</p> <p>Internet / movies etc facilitate reading motivation.</p> <p>TV/ internet / MSN take up students' time, no time to read outside school</p> | | |
| family habit formation | <p><i>Family</i> is the source of reading habit</p> <p>Family creates curiosity.</p> <p>Ss get studying habits from their families.</p> | | |
| motivated Ss | <p>punctual / finish the task on time</p> <p>good at understanding instructions</p> | <i>Personal Needs</i> | |

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| | <p>have a strategy repertoire</p> <p>interact in class</p> <p>are more interested in global issues</p> <p>are disciplined to study regularly</p> <p>interested in language learning</p> <p>interested in reading in L1 too</p> | | |
| demotivated Ss | <p>do not complete their tasks</p> <p>prefer to be silent</p> <p>vocabulary of the text is more important, vocabulary is enough.</p> <p>have the prejudice that they cannot understand anyway.</p> | | |
| anxiety | <p>Tests cause anxiety</p> <p>Low language proficiency causes anxiety</p> <p>Inconsistencies in the school cause anxiety</p> <p>Long texts cause anxiety</p> <p>Unknown words cause anxiety</p> <p>As students continue in higher levels, their anxiety decreases</p> | | |
| higher order thinking | <p>Ss lack inferencing skills, we do not teach either.</p> <p>Ss only understand what they read, not able to evaluate the text.</p> <p>Usual tasks (MC or T/F) are not good enough to prepare the students for the exams, more importantly for their departments.</p> | | |