# HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
# EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Foreign Languages Education

English Language Teaching Program

TURKISH ADULT EFL LEARNERS' MOTIVATION, PARTICIPATION AND PERFORMANCE IN COLLABORATIVE STRATEGIC READING CLASSES

Sinem BALYALI YILMAZ

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2019

With leadership, research, innovation, high quality education and change,

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TÜRK YETİŞKİN DİL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İŞBİRLİKÇİ STRATEJİK OKUMA DERSLERİNDE MOTİVASYONU, KATILIMI VE PERFORMANSI

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**Abstract**

The present study aims to explore the effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) on Turkish university prep-school students' reading motivation, engagement, and performance. The study was conducted in the 2017-2018 academic year with 39 prep-class B1 level students, who had eight hours of reading classes every week at Yalova University School of Foreign Languages. The participants were allocated to experimental and control groups. The learners in the experimental group had reading classes with CSR for seven weeks while the learners in the control group received no CSR treatment, yet reading instruction was given with the traditional whole class approach. This study adopted a quasi-experimental design, and multiple types of data were gathered through the instruments comprising pre and post reading tests, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ), participation rubrics, self-assessment rubrics, and CSR implementation questionnaire. The statistical results obtained from paired sampled t-test analysis demonstrated that CSR significantly affects the development of motivation towards reading. The pre-test - post-test comparison was also statistically significant in overall reading performance and summary skills. Furthermore, the findings revealed that students' participation significantly differed among groups in six weeks out of seven weeks. According to CSR questionnaire results, the students found CSR more effective on reading comprehension than the traditional approach. Overall, the results verify the assumption that CSR implementation in university-level language classes is worthwhile to cultivate students' motivation, engagement, and performance.

**Keywords**: EFL / L2 reading, reading strategies, collaborative strategic reading, reading motivation, reading engagement, reading performance

# Öz

Bu çalışma, İşbirlikçi Stratejik Okuma (CSR) eğitim metodunun Türkiye'deki üniversite öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama motivasyonu, katılımı ve okuduğunu anlama konusundaki performansları üzerinde etkinliğini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılında, Yalova Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda haftalık sekiz saatlik okuma dersi alan 39 hazırlık sınıfı B1 seviyesi üniversite öğrencisi ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcılar, deney ve kontrol grupları olarak iki gruba ayrılmıştır. Deney grubundaki öğrenciler, yedi hafta boyunca CSR uygulamasıyla okuma dersleri işlerken, kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler CSR ile ilgili bir çalışmada bulunmamış, ancak geleneksel öğretmen tarafından yönetilen tüm sınıf okuma eğitimi ile ders işlemişlerdir. Çalışmada yarı deneysel araştırma modeli benimsemiş ve öntest-sontestler, Okumaya Yönelik Motivasyon Ölçeği (MRQ), öğrenci katılım ölçekleri, öğrencilerin öz değerlendirme notları ile öğrencilerin İşbirlikçi Stratejik Okuma öğretimine ilişkin algıları hakkında bir anketi içeren enstrümanlar aracılığıyla çok sayıda veri toplanmıştır. Eşleştirilmiş örneklem t-testi analizinden elde edilen istatistiksel sonuçlar, CSR'ın okumaya yönelik motivasyon gelişimini önemli ölçüde etkilediğini göstermiştir. T-test sonuçları ayrıca CSR öğretiminin okuma performansı üzerinde önemli etkisinin olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ön test ve son test karşılaştırması, okuduğunu anlama ve özetleme boyutlarında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmuştur. Ayrıca bulgular, öğrencilerin katılımının yedi haftanın altısında gruplar arasında önemli ölçüde farklı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Aynı zamanda, CSR uygulama anketi sonuçlarına göre, öğrenciler CSR'ı okuduğunu anlama aktivitelerinde geleneksel yöntemlere göre daha etkili bulmuştur. Sonuçlar, üniversite düzeyinde dil sınıflarında CSR uygulamasının öğrencilerin motivasyonunu, katılımını ve performansını geliştirmede yardımcı olduğu varsayımını doğrulamaktadır.


**Anahtar sözcükler:** yabancı dil / ikinci dil olarak okuma, okuma stratejileri, işbirlikçi stratejik okuma, okuma motivasyonu, okuma katılımı, okuma performansı

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# Symbols and Abbreviations

**CEFR**: The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

**CSR**: Collaborative Strategic Reading

**EFL**: English as a Foreign Language

**ESL**: English as a Second Language

**L2**: Second Language and/or Foreign Language

**MRQ:** The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

**SLA**: Second Language Acquisition

**Chapter 1**

**Introduction**

The present chapter sets forth background information about the significance of reading in EFL/ESL academic settings along with some surveys about teaching reading in the Turkish context. The need for strategy training, the usefulness of collaborative learning in reading instruction and Collaborative Strategic Reading are also addressed. Afterwards, the chapter explains the problem and purpose of the study. Subsequently, it presents the research questions, describes the significance of the study and displays assumptions and limitations. Finally, it defines the key terms and definitions that are recurrently used throughout the study.

**Background of the Study**

Reading is a purposeful and interactive comprehending process, and mainly a learning process since the most common way to learn new information in academic contexts depends on reading (Grabe, 2013). Accordingly, reading has been recognized as a prerequisite skill for ESL/EFL learners in every academic setting.  Reading is not exclusively an essential skill for academicians and educators, learners also consider reading as an indispensable element in the process of English language learning for the reason that the mastery in reading comprehension gives learners the opportunity of accomplishing their objectives in many aspects such as reading foreign textbooks and academic journals, passing exams, and finding a job (Yılmaz, 2012). However, the development of the comprehension skills in a foreign language is a painstaking procedure because reading is a multifaceted cognitive process, and ESL/ EFL students need to develop both fluency and competency in reading along with its indivisible sub-skills, which are background knowledge, lexical knowledge, grammatical and discourse awareness, metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness, world knowledge and cultural understanding (Grabe, 1991).

The importance of acquiring reading proficiency in English is also evident in Turkey. As stated by the Council of Higher Education (2014), there are over 175 universities in Turkey, and most of them use English as a medium of instruction. The students majoring in these universities are supposed to read academic texts, comprehend these complex texts independently, synthesize information for different

purposes and take exams based on reading and answering the questions. In British Council's baseline study about the state of English in Higher Education in Turkey (2015), the needs analysis carried out about students' academic task requirements uncovers that reading various texts is recognized as a major skill by Turkish preparatory school students since it is ranked number five task to be intensively addressed at school (Kırkgöz, 2009, cited in Council, B., 2015). Moreover, the directors of these preparatory schools admit that the exit tests at these schools weight heavily on reading skills, which demonstrates the paramount significance of reading comprehension for academic success in Turkish preparatory schools.

As reading in English is an integral part of higher education in Turkey, it has long been the primary research subject matter of a substantial number of studies in the field. As Alptekin and Tatar (2011) indicate in their overview of research topics between 2005-2009, reading strategies, reading instruction methods, learner's attitudes towards reading and the effect of vocabulary in comprehension are the central themes of Turkish research on EFL reading.

Nevertheless, the results of these studies done about EFL university level learners' reading skills are not promising. According to the survey results of various academic work, Turkish EFL students do not receive adequate reading instruction; consequently, they do not know how to deal with reading texts, and they do not feel comfortable and confident enough about reading. Students also find reading as a monotonous activity, and therefore they do not invest much effort into completing reading tasks and they do not develop sufficient reading habits. All in all, these reasons portrait the contributing factors which lead to Turkish students' failure in ESL reading (Akbulut, 2016; Dinçer, 2010; İçmez, 2009; Kaya, 1995; Kaya, 2015; Odabaş, Odabaş,& Polat, 2008; Şentürk, 2015; Yılmaz, 2012). To address the needs and problems of English language learners in reading, and to promote more effective reading instruction, researchers have proposed some alternative practices and approaches, which can also be applicable to EFL reading classes in Turkey.

The most prominent proposal to deal with ESL reading problems is to teach reading skills within the context of content-centered, integrated skills syllabus equipped with strategy training. The quality of reading instruction can be significantly enhanced via reading strategy training. Carrell (1985) states that competent readers are aware of how to apply the reading strategies while working with the text since

these strategies improve the understanding of the text organization and help students recall information. In consonance with this view, a great number of studies carried out in the field show the effectiveness of the reading strategy training on ESL reading success. In Khalaji and Vafaeeseresht's (2012) study about the impact of reading strategy training on university level EFL learners, it was reported that readers who participate in strategy training courses are notably more successful than the ones who do not. In addition, Phakiti (2003) carried out a study with 384 participants in English course at a Thai University, and the results demonstrated that the reading test performance is directly linked to effective employment of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in due course of reading. Successful test-takers are also stated to use higher metacognitive strategies compared with low achievers. Additionally, Rıza (2014) investigated metacognitive reading strategy use in a Turkish context, and the results show that students got higher scores from reading comprehension texts and they benefited from strategy training.

Along with reading strategy training, providing meaningful contents, interactive reading techniques and the integration of language skills are other ways to foster learning and learner motivation in reading classes (Grabe, 1991). As a matter of fact, in British Council's baseline study about the state of English in Higher Education in Turkey (2015), the major problem in Turkish language classes is reported to be the lack of student interaction. As a solution, student-student interaction, active student contribution in class, and the integration of speaking and writing with reading are proposed in order to achieve desirable reading instruction outcomes in Turkey. (Council, B., 2015).

Although reading strategy training and integrated use of skills are suggested as the most effective methods for reading comprehension, they remain insufficient unless they are reinforced with collaborative work because collaborative work in reading instruction changes not only participation, and motivation, but also the attitudes of students. Grabe (1991) states that collaborative learning and group work activities should be adopted consistently in reading so as to develop discussions, make use of the information gained from the readings and create unique solutions to the problems which may arise during complex reading activities. This collaborative group work, which is also defined as reciprocal teaching, helps students to be responsible for their comprehension in all stages of their reading

routine (Duke & Pearson, 2002). According to the results of sixteen research studies reviewed by Rosenshine and Meister (1994), it is revealed that reciprocal teaching evidently boosts text comprehension. Suwantharathip's study (2015) also shows that the students which followed collaborative learning approach and reading strategy use during reading comprehension outperformed the students which had reading lessons in a traditional learning environment.

In line with the findings of the given research and literature, a supportive classroom context accompanied by collaborative, interactive and strategic techniques should be pursued in order to maintain and flourish an excellent and successful reading instruction. Covering all these features, Collaborative Strategic Reading, which is a research-based instructional practice in teaching reading comprehension, has a potential to improve the quality of reading instruction.

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was originally designed by Klingner and Vaughn (1996) who were inspired by studies on cooperative learning principles (Cohen, 1986; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Kagan, 1986) and reading strategy instruction (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). In CSR, students with diverse reading proficiency levels study in small heterogeneous cooperative groups so as to help each other to employ four reading comprehension strategies to enhance their reading comprehension. These reading strategies are (a) preview strategy (to activate prior knowledge and allow students make predictions before reading), (b) click and clunk (used as a fix-up method to find out unknown vocabulary, to monitor reading comprehension, and to negotiate meaning with others while reading), (c) get the gist, (to discover the main ideas while reading), and (d) the wrap-up, (to summarize what has been learned and to generate follow-up questions after reading) (Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998; Zoghi, Mustapha, & Maasum, 2010). To teach CSR instruction to the learners, at first, the teacher demonstrates the procedures to the entire class utilizing modeling and think-alouds. During CSR, learners need to use some cue cards to apply the strategies appropriately, and learning logs to record and monitor their learning. These tools are also presented and practiced before students start the actual use of CSR. When students have developed capability applying the strategies, they are assigned some roles that they follow in their small group work. They may get the roles of leader, clunk expert, gist expert, encourager and timekeeper.

After being studied for more than 15 years, CSR has proposed favorable outcomes for learners at diverse proficiency levels, even for learners recognized as poor readers (Moore, Boardman, & Scornavacco, 2015). It has also been validated by numerous studies that Collaborative Strategic Reading has the potential to improve reading comprehension of English language learners (Al Safadi, 2017; Ambarwati, 2017; Bang, 2002; Cahyawati, 2016; Fan, 2009; Klingner, & Vaughn, 2004; Nosratinia, & Fateh, 2017; Zoghi, Mustapha, & Maasum, 2010). Other than its effectiveness on reading comprehension, many research studies also show that Collaborative Strategic Reading is efficacious regarding student achievement, participation, and motivation (Fan, 2009; Klingner & Vaughn, 2000; Mendieta et al. 2015).

Overall, peer interaction during reading has been associated closely with learners' high motivation and active participation. Therefore, the teaching methods including collaboration and cooperation have been found valuable for reading comprehension (Bang, 2002; Grabe, 1991; Klingner & Vaughn, 1996). Additionally, instruction which enables learners use reading strategies has been widely suggested (Barnett, 1988; Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Fuchs et al., 2001; Kern, 1989; Phakiti, 2003; Yang, 2006). Amalgamating these two elements, Collaborative Strategic Reading has been assumed to be a valuable approach that can be implemented in the Turkish context, where language learners are said to have low levels of classroom interaction and reading motivation.

Considering the discussions above, the present study attempts to find out the possible effects of the Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) training on university-level adult EFL students' motivation, reading engagement, and performance in foreign language reading comprehension.

**Statement of the Problem**

As Guthrie, Klauda, and Ho (2013) state, instructional methods which support peer dialogue during reading have been closely associated with students' active involvement, intrinsic motivation and achievement in reading tasks. Basically, Collaborative Strategic Reading, which constitutes vital elements such as making reading instruction explicit, using reading strategies and interactive study groups to facilitate learning, and providing opportunities for interactive dialogue, has widely

been reported to be influential on the reading performance of students (Vaughn et al., 2011).

However, there have been few researchers who have studied the efficiency of reading strategy training on reading comprehension in L2, although many authors repeatedly emphasize the significance of reading strategy instruction (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). Besides, in the field of foreign language teaching, research on CSR is limited. Heretofore, there have been fifteen research studies on CSR conducted with EFL university learners. (Abbasnezhad & Zoghi, 2016; Al Mashrafi, 2012; Dharmayanti, Tantra, & Artini, 2013; Fan, 2009; Gani, Yusuf, & Susiani, 2016; Kabir & Kiasi, 2018; Karabuga & Kaya, 2013; Karimi & Baradaran, 2017; Kassem, 2013; Klingner & Vaughn, 2000; Nosratinia, Mirzakhani, & Zaker, 2013; Nosratinia & Mohammadi, 2017; Novita, 2012; Zoghi, Mustapha, & Maasum, 2010). Among these studies, only one research study was carried out in Turkish setting. In Karabuğra's (2012) study, CSR instructions' effect on adult EFL learners' comprehension problems connected to reading and attitude towards reading were investigated. However, the present research study has been carried out to reveal the different features and impact of CSR in Turkish EFL context. CSR instructions' contribution to students' motivation, participation and performance levels were not reported in the previous research in Turkey.

In addition, the findings of the previous research on EFL reading in Turkey point out that a lot of Turkish University students do not perceive themselves competent enough in reading comprehension skills (Yılmaz, 2012), a lot of learners consider reading as the least proficient language skill (Yılmaz, 2012), learners do not show effort in reading and they do not have positive attitudes about reading (Şentürk, 2015), which lead them to have low levels of engagement, interest and performance. These results indicate that researching different teaching techniques that might be motivating and interactive are crucial.

In this respect, this study attempts to demonstrate more specific findings about Turkish university preparatory school students' motivation, engagement and achievement during Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction.

**Purpose of the Study**

My primary concern in embarking on this study is to find out whether Collaborative Strategic Reading is effective on Turkish university preparatory school students' motivation and engagement during reading activities. Additionally, the study aims to uncover if Collaborative Strategic Reading, which is an instructional approach, has an impact on Turkish adult learners' reading performance in comparison to traditional teacher-led reading instruction.

**Research Questions**

Depending on the purposes of this research study, the subsequent research questions are formulated;

1. What is the impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading on EFL learners' motivation in reading activities?

   1.1. Is Collaborative Strategic Reading more motivating than traditional teacher-centered reading approaches?

2. What is the impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading on EFL learners' engagement in reading activities?

   2.1. Is learner engagement different in the class which Collaborative Strategic Reading is applied from the class which traditional teacher-centered reading approaches are applied?

3. What is the impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading on EFL learners' performance in reading activities?

   3.1. Is learner performance different in the class which Collaborative Strategic Reading is applied from the class which traditional teacher-centered reading approaches are applied?

4. What are the EFL learners' perceptions of the use of Collaborative Strategic Reading?

**Significance of the Study**

The present study attempts to improve the field of teaching reading in foreign language education in three ways. Initially, it explains the implementation of a

different reading instruction that might enhance students' reading performance. Secondly, it explores to what degree EFL readers benefit from CSR instruction. Third of all, it provides insights about how CSR instruction affect students' motivation and in-class participation. I hope the findings of the present research will offer ideas that may enhance language teachers' classroom practices by providing students a more engaging, supportive, active and interactive academic settings.

**Assumptions and Limitations**

Even though the present study is conducted to reveal the results of Collaborative Strategic Reading application and bring out beneficial practices on reading instruction, it has some limitations. To begin with, the study and its findings are limited to 39 university students in Yalova University School of Foreign Languages. The number of the participants is not adequate enough to generalize the effects of this study. Therefore, further studies with a greater population are needed so as to develop insights on the correlations between Collaborative Strategic Reading and motivation, participation and achievement on reading. In addition to this, the students who participate in the study are at B1 level according to The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The language proficiency level of the students may demonstrate different findings in terms of application of Collaborative Strategic Reading and students' perceptions about the instruction. As a result, future investigations could also consider studying the impact of CSR on students reading performance at different language levels and comparisons can be made within and between the levels. Another drawback of the study is that reading materials used in the study are made up of the texts from student books. Further studies can make use of more authentic texts with different genres. Besides, the texts chosen according to the interests of the students can present more realistic results. Lastly, the present study was conducted in 8 weeks, which is not really sufficient enough to bring out a dramatic change in students reading comprehension and develop a motivating and supportive reading instruction environment. Consequently, longitudinal studies can provide precise findings about the effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading.

**Keywords**

**English as a foreign language (EFL).** EFL is specified by Gebhard (2006) as "the study of English by people who live in places where English is not used as a way of communication." EFL is also defined by Harmer (2007) as the teaching of English language where the learners study English in their native countries or take courses carried out in other English-speaking countries.

**English as a second language (ESL).** English is the second language of people who learn it after learning their first language in a country which English has a vital role in education, business and government (Richards & Schmidt, 2013).

**Reading comprehension.** Wigfield (2004) defines reading comprehension as the mental process of understanding conceptual knowledge from a written material by means of cognitive and motivational engagement. Grabe (2013) also points out that "reading comprehension is the ability to understand information in a text and interpret it appropriately."

**Collaborative learning.** Collaborative Learning is a general term for an educational approach that makes use of learners working together in groups. Cooperative Learning is also a form of Collaborative Learning that includes particular roles and responsibilities for group members in group-based activities (Richards & Schmidt, 2013).

**Reading instruction.** Reading instruction is a framework which includes meaningfully designed lessons or teaching materials appropriate for students' and institutions' needs.  The objective of reading instruction is to raise students' awareness of reading, develop necessary reading skills and attain mastery in reading comprehension (Grabe, 2013). According to The United States National Reading Panel (NRP) report (2000), phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension are the important constituents of practical reading instruction.

**Motivation.** Wentzel and Miele (2009) define motivation as "the energy which students use during the tasks, the beliefs, values, and aims that determine which tasks they pursue and their persistence in achieving them, and the standards they set to determine when a task has been accomplished." According to Cole, Feild,

and Harris (2004, p. 67), motivation to learn is "the willingness to attend and learn the material in a development program."

**Reading Motivation.** Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) describes reading motivation as "the individual's goals and beliefs regarding reading."

**Reading Strategies.** Barnett (1988) defines reading strategies as the deliberate cognitive processes used by readers when they attempt to understand a text.

**Collaborative Strategic Reading.** Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) is an instructional approach which incorporates reading comprehension strategy instruction and cooperative learning. In CSR, students work in small groups to assist each other to comprehend reading texts by applying reading strategies.

**Engagement.** The Australian Council for Educational Research expresses engagement as students' involvement in activities and conditions that are associated with high-quality learning (as cited in Baron & Corbin, 2012).

**Participation.** According to Dancer and Kamvounias (2005) (as cited in Rocca, 2010) participation is an active engagement process which includes five subcategories, which are preparation, involvement in the discussion, group skills, communication ability, and attendance.

**Performance.** Performance is defined as the person's actual use of language by Richards and Schmidt (2013). According to The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (2017), reading performance determines the ability to comprehend, use and reflect on written materials to reach a certain target and improve knowledge.

**Traditional teacher-led reading approaches.** The approach in which the learning procedure is fundamentally reliant on the teacher. Teaching vocabulary and grammar along with the students' scores in reading tasks are the primary objectives of traditional teacher-led reading approaches (Karabuğa, 2012).

**Conclusion**

The background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the problem and critical terminology are clarified in this chapter. The

following chapter covers the literature review of the components of effective reading comprehension, cognitive and metacognitive aspects of reading comprehension, reading strategy training, Collaborative Learning, Collaborative Strategic Reading, and motivation and engagement theories. The third chapter presents the methodology of the present research. The participants, materials, data collection and data analysis procedures of the study are covered in this section. The data analysis is introduced in the fourth chapter, in which the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data and their results are reviewed. Lastly, in the fifth chapter, the summary of the findings, pedagogical implications, and recommendations for further studies are put forth.

**Chapter 2**

**Literature Review**

**Introduction**

In the present chapter, the main units of reading, the importance of teaching reading strategies, and the effects of reading education on reading performance are described. In addition, both theories of motivation and motivation theories in foreign language teaching are covered in detail. Following these, engagement and reading engagement are explained. Finally, the characteristics of Collaborative Learning and the application of Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction are presented. Additionally, previous studies conducted on all these subjects are mentioned in their relevant sections.

**Models of Reading Process**

As Samuels and Kamil (1984) state, although reading comprehension is almost as old as human history, the attempts of building up explicit models to explain what underlies reading comprehension and the way in which the written message is perceived and decoded in mind have begun within the last century. In the last fifty years, there have been many researchers trying to explain the process and aspects of reading comprehension. Various models, ranging from the simple view of decoding and encoding meaning to high-order thinking skills based cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational models, have been developed to explain the process underlying reading comprehension.

The simple view explains reading as decoding and linguistic comprehension; both are necessary for skilled reading. Perfetti (1977, cited in Hoover & Tunmer, 1993) states that reading is similar to the outcome of decoding and language comprehension. However, according to Eskey (1973), decoding model does not bring a full understanding on reading process since it undermines the contribution of readers. Goodman (1988) later proposes that reading is a psycholinguistic process which begins with a writer's linguistic surface representations and ends with a reader's construction of meaning. He also defined reading as "a psycholinguistic guessing game". As he expressed (1967); "Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the

fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time." In addition, according to Carroll (1977), "Whatever is read is intended to be comprehended, and comprehension is a problem that goes beyond decoding." Besides, reading comprehension includes cognition processes of knowing, reasoning, and inferencing as well as affective elements (Carroll, 1977). On the other hand, it has recently been proposed that comprehending texts requires the adaptable use of various sources of information and the integration of linguistic knowledge with graphic information, so individual differences in reading comprehension have been emphasized by some other researchers (Verhoeven & Perfetti, 2008). Based on the above mentioned views, reading models are classified as bottom-up, top-down and interactive models.

In bottom-up reading models, as Brown (2001) expresses, readers should first perceive an assortment of linguistic signs (letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammar, and discourse markers) and utilize their semantic information to order these small units and get the meaning from the text. In these models, reading is examined as a procedure wherein small units of text, particularly phonemes, graphemes, and words, are grasped, examined, and eventually adjoined to the subsequent units until they are meaningful (Barnett, 1989). As Ahmadi et al. (2013) point out that the bottom-up models have some downsides. In these models, success in reading is bound to only accurate decoding of the linguistic units and recognition of the relationship between words. Along with this, readers should relate every word that they come across while reading with the other words to construct meaning, which is almost impossible since readers cannot store the meaning of every word in their minds.

In EFL / ESL reading instruction, the bottom-up models can be found in classes which are following traditional teacher-centered teaching models. This instruction focuses on linguistic accuracy and rote learning, and incorporates explanation of the reading material, vocabulary teaching, grammar guidance, and drills (Wei, 1996; Jin & Cortazzi, 2004, cited in Pan & Wu, 2013). This sort of instruction method may lead students to feel bored and inattentive in EFL / ESL reading classes (Gomleksiz, 2007).

On the other hand, bottom-up models can be helpful in explaining the significance of readers' background knowledge about linguistic units. Without the understanding of sound-symbol correspondence, morphemes, grammar markers, words and phrases, less proficient language learners cannot master the reading comprehension skills.

In contrast, in top-down models, the reading process is explained from top, which is used to describe high order cognitive processes, to bottom which is the physical text. Top-down model is interpreted as a psycholinguistic guessing game instead of decoding meaning. Readers receive input from the text and use their general world knowledge or textual schemata to make intelligent guesses to relate this knowledge to the new information in the text (Barnett, 1989). Readers may begin from the title which allows them make predictions about the content; then they may go on reading by forming hypotheses based on the textual clues to understand the intended message (Ahmadi et al., 2013). In other words, readers do not have to focus on each expression in the text. Instead, they should concentrate anticipating the upcoming words during reading.

In EFL / ESL reading classes, top-down reading models enable students to activate background knowledge, do pre-reading activities and make guesses with exercises such as cloze tests, reordering paragraphs, unscrambling sentences, predicting the following or end of a text.

Interactive model, as Aebersold and Field (1997) defines, has been emerged from the researchers' discussions about reading processes which they believe they depend on both top-down and bottom-up procedures interchangeably and concurrently. It has been stated that based upon the text type, the reader's general world knowledge, achievement and motivation levels, strategy skills, and culturally shaped attitudes to reading are effective on deciding whether bottom-up or top-down models should be utilized (Aebersold & Field, 1997). When reading, the bottom-up and top-down processes are used to support each other (Ahmadi et al., 2013). If readers have difficulty in comprehending meaning while reading word-by-word, they may get help from their background knowledge to understand the meaning, or they may attempt to focus on certain grammatical patterns even if they comprehend the text. As an example of an interactive model, Anderson and Pearson's (1984) schema theory stands out (Elsäcker-Bok, 2002). Readers' schemata refer to the

abstract knowledge structures which are already stored in memory, and they are activated with the ideas given in the particular reading text (Barnett, 1989). The schema is developed and shaped by experiences, and readers use their schema to create meaning during reading (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). According to schema theory, activating an appropriate schema supports the consistent interpretation of the texts (Carrell, 1984). As specified by this theory, three sorts of schemata can be utilized during reading (Carrell, 1988). Content schema is the prior knowledge regarding the content of the reading material. It involves prior experience of the readers, topic familiarity, cultural and cross-cultural and knowledge. Linguistic schema refers to readers' prior linguistic knowledge. It includes the knowledge about phonetics, grammar, syntax and vocabulary. Formal schema comprises previous knowledge of discourse forms, organizational patterns of different types of texts, and level of formality. During making use of formal schema, readers need to know the differences between different organizational models (e.g., time order, cause-effect, and comparison-contrast) as well as genre and the language used for the intended audience.

Reading comprehension skills are not naturally learned. Thus, they need to be introduced to learners to become proficient readers (Seacrist, 2012). In conventional EFL / ESL reading classes, reading comprehension is taught in big classes through teacher-focused teaching depending basically on students' answers to teacher directed questions. (Pan & Wu, 2013; Seacrist, 2012). Nevertheless, over the past decades, a great deal of research supported the overt teaching of reading comprehension methods. As Richards (as cited in Aebersold & Field, 1997) states EFL / ESL reading is an active and interactive process, and so as to attain an understanding of a written text, learners need to employ background information, textual content schema, linguistic awareness, L1-associated knowledge, general world knowledge, along with their individual motivations and learning objectives. The objective of teaching reading skills is to train individuals to learn from a text to anticipate the essential information, incorporate this information with what is already acknowledged, and make accurate deductions (Hitchcock, Dimino, Kurki, Wilkins, & Gersten, 2011). Suh (2009, cited in Pan & Wu, 2013) also expressed that L2 reading instruction needs to become an autonomous meaning-making task, and it needs to take advantage of particular strategies and

communicative approaches. Moreover, learning reading in L2 calls for more cooperation and interaction in the classes (Pan & Wu, 2013).

**Reading Instruction and Reading Performance**

The primary objective of reading instruction is to develop independent, strategic, motivated readers who actively take part in reading for various reasons for lifelong learning. It is undeniable that the instruction method to be followed is vital to improve students' achievement and reading performance. The researches conducted in the field have revealed that L1 and L2 reading comprehension processes have great differences in regard of linguistic, experiential and sociocultural elements, so there is no definitive reading instruction model for teachers to follow (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). However, as Koda (1992) asserts, reading comprehension instruction should address linguistic knowledge, cognitive skills, background knowledge and metacognitive skills to assist students improve their reading performance. In the following subsections, the components which maximize reading performance, scientific research examples grounded on these components and instructional practices expected to be utilized in reading classes are discussed.

**Word recognition.** Koda (1992) indicates that good readers recognize words effortlessly and they have the capability to comprehend the meanings of the words by means of the phonological and morphological information they receive from the written word. On the other hand, inefficient orthographic processing results in inaccurate lexical recall in addition to deficient comprehension (Koda et al., 1997). Since oral language competence develops before reading skills, accurate phonological interpretation of written words becomes vital within the early phases of learning how to read. This interpretation facilitates learners' access to the stored linguistic knowledge gathered via verbal communication before they receive any formal reading instruction (Koda, 2007). Many research supported that in the preliminary stages readers need to broaden phonological awareness to achieve success. Koda et al. (1997) state that poor readers struggle more in phonological processing. Han (2015) additionally asserts when L2 readers' language proficiency level increases, readers' L2 word recognition speed increases, consequently their error rate decreases. Grabe (2014) states that learners having trouble with letter-

sound correspondences need to receive additional instruction on coherent associations between letters and sounds via vocabulary development, extensive reading, and fluency exercises.

**Vocabulary knowledge**. Barnett (1989) indicated that second or foreign language students continuously express the difficulties they encounter due to lack of vocabulary while reading a text. According to Sternberg, (1987, cited in Carver & Leibert, 1995) "one's level of vocabulary is highly predictive of one's level of reading comprehension." Similarly, Koda (2007) expresses that word meanings are closely related to successful comprehension. As Nation (1993, cited in Nation & Waring, 1997) states, "Vocabulary knowledge enables language use, language use enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of the world enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge and language use and so on."

There is a vast amount of empirical evidence that lexical knowledge is significant in L2 reading comprehension. For instance, Hirsh and Nation (1992) claim that in a text at least 98% of the words are required to be known by a reader in order not to have comprehension problems without getting any outside help. They explain that if a reader knows 90% of vocabulary in a text in every 100 words, the reader encounters 10 unknown words, which means there will be one unknown word for each line. As a result, reading comprehension may not occur. Additionally, Nation (2006) states that at least 8,000 to 9,000 word-family vocabulary should be known for the understanding of a written text because comprehension is only established when 98% of a text is understood without assistance. Carver (1994) also found out that when readers find a reading material quite easy, there are almost no unknown words for them in the material. However, when the content is hard, there are 2% or more of unknown necessary words in the texts. Besides, when the difficulty level of the text is relatively close to the reader's ability, 1% of unknown vocabulary still remains. Another study which presents the relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and L2 reading comprehension was conducted by Qian (1999). In the study, a group of young adult ESL learners' performance was assessed according to the depth and breadth of their vocabulary knowledge. Findings demonstrated that there is a positive correlation between learners' scores on extent and depth of vocabulary, and reading comprehension. In addition, the depth of vocabulary knowledge was found as an indicator of reading comprehension

levels of the learners. In addition to the previous study, Şen and Kuleli (2015) investigated the efficacy of vocabulary size and depth in comprehension, too. Their study results put forth that vocabulary size and vocabulary depth have a positive effect on reading performance. However, it was found out that vocabulary depth predicted the learners' reading performance better.

In accordance with the above mentioned studies, students need to have an explicit vocabulary instruction to achieve the expected development in reading performance. It has been stated that direct instruction of vocabulary increases students' comprehension level by 33 percent, which is higher than no vocabulary instruction and high-frequency vocabulary presentation (Sthal & Fairbanks, 1986, cited in Marzano, 2004). As Paribakht and Wesche (1997) hypothesized, vocabulary enhancement activities including selective attention (e.g. boldfaced or underlined word presentation), recognition (e.g. matching words with their synonyms), word formation (e.g. prefix or suffix exercises),  interpretation (e.g. guessing the meaning from context), and production (e.g. cloze tests) activities with targeted words in meaningful contexts produce greater gains in L2 reading instruction. Also, Nation (1990, cited in Nation & Waring, 1997) suggests that guessing the meaning from texts, using mnemonic techniques for vocabulary retrieval and using vocabulary cue cards are beneficial strategies that can be used during class time.

**Syntactic awareness.** When grammar knowledge is entirely developed, it allows learners to break down and combine syntactic information on the word, clause, and sentence levels and helps readers to accomplish reading comprehension (Jeon & Yamashita, 2014). Barnett (1986) states that knowledge of syntax allows readers predict and read more quickly. Barnett (1990, cited in Zarei & Neya, 2014) also believes that working on vocabulary building or inference skills are not effective if learners do not have sufficient knowledge about syntax. In reading English, which is a morphemic language, gaining morphological understanding can allow the reader perceive words that are partially recognized and increase the scope of recognizable words (Jeon & Yamashita, 2014).

Numerous scholars have pointed out that text syntax and semantics (the relationships between words and how we construct meaning) have a significant relation to reading comprehension. In Shiotsu and Weir's (2007) study, the relation of syntax and vocabulary knowledge to L2 reading was examined in two groups; a

heterogeneous population studying in Britain and a homogenous undergraduate group in Japan. It was discovered that syntactic expertise brings out advantages in anticipating learners' performance on reading comprehension tests. Mokhtari and Niederhauser (2013) additionally examined learners' degrees of vocabulary knowledge and syntactic awareness regarding their reading comprehension performance. The participants were 32, 5th-grade students in upper-intermediate grades and two units of tests were utilized to assess students' vocabulary, reading comprehension, and syntactic recognition. The findings of the study indicates that both vocabulary expertise and syntactic awareness contributed efficiently to learners' reading performance. Besides, students who did not have adequate knowledge in vocabulary or syntax had unsatisfactory comprehension performance. Jeon and Yamashita's (2014) study also attempted to examine the overall correlation between decoding, vocabulary knowledge, grammar knowledge, phonological awareness, orthographic knowledge, morphological knowledge, listening comprehension, working memory, metacognition, and first language reading comprehension. The findings of the research put forth that grammar and vocabulary knowledge and decoding were the most influential elements in comprehension in L2. Also, Nation and Snowling (2000) studied the children with different reading comprehension abilities and their syntactic awareness. It was found out that reading skills of the children are strongly linked to their syntactic awareness. They concluded that even though poor readers are at the same phonological skill level as successful readers, they have language processing weakness in grammatical and semantic aspects.

Akbari (2014) suggests some instructional techniques which may help to develop readers' syntactic knowledge during reading comprehension. Some of these techniques are; asking Wh- questions, explicit practice about punctuation marks in reading texts, exercises that include putting the omitted parts back to their original place, analyzing complex-compound sentences, determining the reference of the pronouns and conjunctions, paraphrasing sentences, and asking students to look for the learned grammatical points in reading texts.

**Discourse awareness.** Reviews on discourse analysis and language comprehension have proposed that text structure and discourse awareness surely affect reading comprehension (Davis, Lange, & Samuels, 1988; Grabe, 1997; Jiang

& Grabe, 2007). Researchers have basically studied discourse awareness in terms of cohesion and coherence, discourse markers, and genre.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) explain cohesion as the meaning relations which connects the parts of the texts such as the sentences, paragraphs or turn-takings. In the textual content, if a formerly stated point is mentioned again, it is regarded as a tie. Without semantic ties, sentences or phrases would seem no longer have any sort of link to one another, and there will not have a unified idea flow. However, they would appear like scattered thoughts. Halliday and Hasan (1976) point out that there are five primary cohesive ties found in a text: reference (words like pronouns), repetition (such as using "the" for the second mentioning), substitution (using a single word in the place of a longer phrase), ellipsis (omission of a word or words), and conjunction (words like and, but, or etc.). Since almost all written texts include cohesive ties to deliver specific messages to the readers, it is undoubtedly crucial for readers to develop awareness of these cohesive ties.

Considerable number of studies on first and second language acquisition have proposed that cohesion and reading comprehension are interdependent. For example, Hinkel (2001) addressed the need of the cohesive device instruction in L2 classes. In her study (2001), the median frequency rates of cohesive device use of L1 speakers of English and L2 learners of English (Japanese, Korean, Indonesian, and Arabic) were examined. The objective of the study was to make a contrastive analysis between native and nonnative speakers' use of coordinators, transitions, conjunctions, demonstrative pronouns, and nouns in English academic passages. The findings of the study uncovered that Japanese, Korean, Indonesian, and Arabic language speakers could use cohesive ties more skillfully than L1 English speakers. However, they were not able to construct a meaningful idea flow with cohesive devices in L2. In another study, Geva and Ryan (1985) conducted a study to focus on the troubles that good and poor readers have about conjunctions while understanding expository texts. The findings confirmed that not only successful readers, but poor readers also experience difficulties with the understanding of conjunctions in addition to control over their use in comprehending expository textual content. Aidinlou, Khodamard and Azami (2012) also discussed the function of explicit textual cohesive reference instruction in reading comprehension. It was found out that EFL learners can understand reading passages and cohesive ties

better when textual cohesive instruction is embedded in a communicative task. The results of the study underlines that comprehensive cohesive reference exercises are critical in reading classes, even with advanced students. In Bridge and Winograd's (1982) research, a cloze test, in which cohesive ties were deleted systematically, was used to find out how ninth grade students complete a cloze passage. While the participants were completing the cloze test, they thought aloud to give the reason of their cohesive device selections. The obtained results indicated that participants were familiar with the cohesive ties in texts and that they usually made use of these ties to deliver the missing parts. What is more, participants adapted their use of information within and between the sentences depending on the kind of cohesion involved within the cloze. All these studies, taken together, show that cohesive ties are an integral part of reading comprehension and their practical use need to be explicitly presented in reading classes.

Discourse markers, the words like 'in addition,' 'even though,' 'however,' are called as 'linking words' and 'linking phrases,' or 'sentence connectors.' Discourse markers, the 'glue' which binds the exclusive elements of the text 'stick together,' are essential elements of reading comprehension. Without enough and appropriate discourse markers, a written text does not seem logical, and the relations between sentences and paragraphs are not apparent. Considering this, discourse markers are believed to give readers additional guidance within the construction of the text; therefore, learners, especially of a new language, need to take advantage of linguistic marking of a text structure during comprehension (Degand & Sanders, 2002). As a matter of fact, there have been many academic studies built on the topic of discourse markers and their impact on students' comprehension. In one of the academic studies, Degand and Sanders (2002) examined the effect of discourse markers on comprehension of short expository texts in L1 and L2 Dutch and French languages. The results demonstrated that discourse markers had a meaningful effect on both L1 and L2 reading comprehension. L1 use, discourse markers, and metalanguage for regulatory functions were studied by Gánem-Gutiérrez and Roehr (2011). How the university level of Spanish learners of English employ these three linguistic tools whilst completing a task was investigated by think aloud techniques. The results of the study pointed out that discourse markers are precious devices to shape and organize ideas.

Finally, genre-based instruction has been pointed out as another critical aspect of text structure awareness. Johns (1997, cited in Hyon, 2001) asserts that genre, which involves communicative purposes of the texts, content, context and to whom the text has been written, is requisite for reading. The genre also closely relates to schema theory. Once readers are aware of the formal text features, it is easy to activate their background knowledge. It has been reported that learners prior knowledge about the genre and explicit genre practice within reading instruction support comprehension (Grabe, 1997; Hyon, 2001; Marzban & Seifi, 2013; Qi & Rui-ying, 2004; Rozimela, 2014). Rozimela's (2014) research on the relations between genre awareness and reading comprehension in an Indonesian university context pointed out that there is a direct relationship between the success rate and the genre knowledge. When students' genre knowledge is low, their comprehension is low as well. Conversely, better genre awareness indicates better understanding of the texts. In another study, Marzban and Seifi (2013) analyzed the effectiveness of genre instruction on narrative and expository text comprehension. The findings of the research highlighted that narrative structure instruction positively affects learners' reading comprehension ability. However, the expository text structure instruction was found ineffective on reading comprehension ability as this kind of texts include a lot of content specific vocabulary and abstract notions. Qi and Rui-ying (2004) also investigated the effects of genre-based reading instruction on English language learners in China. In an experimental design, one group of students took genre-based reading instruction while the other group had traditional reading course without explicit genre-based training. Analyses of pre-test and post-test scores indicated that the group which had genre-based training outperformed regarding reading speed and understanding of the structure, style and communicative purpose of the genres.

Instructional treatments providing concept maps, relating texts to personal life, presenting background information, giving direct instruction on components of texts are found beneficial to enhance students reading comprehension in elementary levels (Grabe, 1997). Graphic organizers are particularly suggested as a valuable tool for L2 readers since "a good graphic representation can show at a glance the key parts of a whole and their relations, thereby allowing a holistic understanding that words alone cannot convey" (Jones, Pierce, & Hunter, 1988–

1989, p. 21; cited in Jiang & Grabe, 2007). Furthermore, for more advanced levels, expository texts require more abstract elements of discourse and understanding of multiplex information, so teaching text organization skills, using semantic maps or outlines, explicit teaching of reading strategies about cohesion, main idea, and summarization constitute the vital elements of reading instruction about discourse (Grabe,1997; Jiang & Grabe, 2007).

**Reading fluency.** Fluency comprises of accuracy, automaticity in recognizing words, and the proper application of prosodic and syntactic knowledge which is necessary to reach a better understanding of reading materials (Grabe, 2004; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; national reading Panel, 2000; cited in Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004). Features of fluent reading are the demonstrations of cognitive abilities of visual and semantic information processing, automatic and attentional competencies (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). Fluent readers can identify words in a textual content quickly with a little attention, recognize words effortlessly, and read with speed and good comprehension both silently and orally. Also, reading aloud with suitable wording and articulation is not hard for fluent readers (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010). It has been noted that great numbers of L2 learners have problems about fluency owing to their lack of word recognition skills (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010). To resolve these difficulties, repeated reading, assisted reading, timed reading, and word recognition exercises are seem to be some instructional practices which may facilitate L2 reading fluency development (Nassaji, 2011).

Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass and Gorsuch (2004) evaluated the effectiveness of assisted repeated reading in EFL readers' fluency. The analyses of students' reading behaviors revealed that assisted repeated reading is influential as much as extensive reading in enhancing EFL readers' silent reading rate. Additionally, it was also found out that assisted repeated reading facilitated comprehension by means of repetition and listening components. Assisted repeated reading was also reported to encourage poor EFL readers to develop fluency and competence. In their subsequent study (2010), they presented more evidence with an open-ended, post-reading student report design. The analyses of student reports demonstrated that repeated reading has positive impacts on L2 reading fluency, comprehension, and language development. The learners' comments made it clear that experience with

repeated reading help them increase metacognition while using reading strategies, and foster their awareness on the link between fluency and comprehension.

**Background knowledge.** Research in L1 and L2 reading comprehension has strongly supported that the capacity to comprehend texts essentially depends on the readers' linguistic knowledge as well as general world knowledge and the amount of this knowledge is activated during processing reading (Carrell, 1983). Background knowledge refers to what a person already knows about a subject matter (Marzano, 2004). According to Marzano (2004), "What students already know about the content is one of the strongest indicators of how well they will learn new information relative to the content." For this reason, learners need to be proficient at activating previous knowledge, amalgamating this information with the new one, and building new understandings to be able to read effectively. When learners do not have adequate background knowledge or cannot activate that knowledge, there may have issues about achieving progress in reading comprehension. While a learner is reading a text, the learner's background knowledge, which has been comprised of the individual's personal experiences, provides scaffolding for the text comprehension. A reading text cannot be completely comprehended unless the reader activates the background knowledge since the gaps in the reading procedure are filled by associating the information inside the written text with the learner's existing knowledge (Lin & Chern, 2014).

The function of background knowledge in reading comprehension is frequently expressed by means of schema theory, a conceptualization of how background knowledge works in a vast group of cognitive processes (Nassaji, 2007; Richgels, 1982, cited in Jung, 2009). Anderson and Pearson (1984) specify schema as an abstract knowledge system which determines how much and what sort of knowledge should be abstracted and how much ought to remain while a learner is reading in text. Rumelhart (2017) also expresses that schemata, which are the knowledge packaged into units, are the building blocks of cognition that represent our understanding of all concepts including objects, situations, events, and actions. Readers have schemata for every concept; from types of food to visiting doctor's office (Carrell, 1983). According to Rumelhart (1977, cited in Carrell, 1983), schema theory joins bottom-up and top-down processing together. Thus, the interactive model of reading emerged. The interactive model of reading, as stated before, is a

cooperative processing that knowledge at all levels of abstraction emerges during reading (McClelland & Rumelhart, 2017). Consequently, learners' schemata activation, relating the information in their existing background knowledge with the text, is widely considered to facilitate their understanding of the reading material.

In L2 reading research, background knowledge has proven to have an essential role in comprehension. For example, Lee (1986) investigated the impact of background knowledge on recalling texts with Native (English) and nonnative (L2) participants. Three components of background knowledge were examined, which are contextual knowledge, lexical items within the text, and prior knowledge or experience of the content. The results of the study demonstrated that all these three components of background knowledge are vital for reading, comprehending, and recalling texts. Additionally, providing title and pictures on the page was suggested as it was found out that the topic which students had familiarity was recalled more easily when title and pictures were given. In another study, Lin and Chern (2014) explored the influence of background knowledge and L2 reading proficiency on content specific reading. Results of the study displayed that when learners acquire strong background knowledge in the basic areas of the discipline, their reading comprehension are profoundly improved. It was pointed out in the study that L2 learners can comprehend better when they are equipped with appropriate background knowledge. Moreover, background knowledge was found to be a powerful indicator of summary performance. Jamalipour and Farahani (2015) also looked into Iranian EFL learners' L2 reading comprehension ability after taking vocabulary and background knowledge instruction. During the experiment process, while traditional methods of language teaching were utilized with the control group, pre-reading activities about vocabulary or background knowledge were provided to the treatment group. The findings revealed that the students in the treatment group outperformed their peers in the control group in terms of reading performance.

As a cognitive framework in reading, recognizing message by the graphic processing of words and activating the appropriate schemata about this message is followed by joining these two processes so as to comprehend the message quickly and properly. That is why reading comprehension is defined as an interactive process which occurs between the physical text and the reader's mind. Exercises such as brainstorming, displaying visuals related to the topic, or discussing new

cultural information need to be embedded in reading classes to enable learners to activate their schemata.

**Metacognition**. Metacognition is defined as "deliberate, conscious control of one's own cognitive actions." (Brown, 1980) Metacognition is "the knowledge of one's own cognitive processes (e.g., how one learns or how one reads) and a learner's self-regulation of those processes" (Barnett, 1989). Flavell, who is one of the first developers of metacognition term, (1976, cited in Brown, 1980) also refers to metacognition as "the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective." Flavell (1978) emphasizes that the learner's metacognitive knowledge comprises of beliefs about elements or variables act and cooperate that influence the outcomes of cognitive enterprises. These variables are categorized in three, which are person (the beliefs about your cognitive processors), task (the beliefs about the nature of the task; e.g. familiar or unfamiliar, interesting or boring, etc.) and strategy (how the cognitive enterprise can be best managed to achieve a certain goal). He later describes that metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experiences, goals, and strategies are needed for the cognitive enterprises.  Thus, metacognition is closely attached to higher-order skills, comprehension monitoring, learning strategies, and self-regulation (Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters, & Afflerbach, 2006).

In reading, Mokhtari and Reichard defines (2002) metacognition as "the knowledge of the readers' cognition about reading and the self-control mechanisms they exercise when monitoring and regulating text comprehension." Paris and Jacobs (1984) emphasize that metacognition in comprehension is a vital component because research indicated that skilled readers are the ones who use effective strategies while reading, and poor readers are generally confused about which technique they should apply during reading. It is advocated by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) that metacognitive knowledge in reading comprehension incorporates the awareness of various reading strategies, and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies have an impact on the cognitive enterprise of reading. They also believe that developing awareness of strategic reading process and working with reading strategies support learners to be skilled readers.

The claim that metacognition is a critical component of successful reading comprehension has been generally agreed upon by many researchers (Batang, 2015; Carrell,1989; Maasum & Maaruf,2012; Palinskar & Brown, 1984; Phakiti, 2003; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2002; Zhang & Wu, 2009; Zhang, 2010). It is worth noting that the readers who use metacognitive strategies during reading comprehension outperform than the readers who do not benefit from these strategies. To support this hypothesis, Batang (2015) worked on a study about the relationship between the awareness of metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension levels. It was found that there is an essential relationship between metacognitive strategy use and achieving mastery in reading comprehension. Phakiti (2003) also surveyed 384 university-level ESL students to find out the correlation between the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and reading test performance. Students' reading test performance level significantly increased due to the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Successful test-takers were also found to make use of metacognitive strategies more than the moderately successful ones who also use these strategies more effectively than the unsuccessful test-takers. In another study, the differences between L1 and L2 English speakers' reported use of reading strategies were examined by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001). The findings demonstrated that both native and ESL students use cognitive strategies which are followed by metacognitive strategies and support strategies. Also, students with good reading skills reported higher levels of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategy use than the ones with poor reading skills.

To foster metacognitive strategy use in language classes, task awareness (including activities brainstorming, categorizing, selective attention etc.) strategy awareness ( e.g. topic sentences are in the first sentences of the paragraphs, or main ideas can be found in headings etc.) and performance awareness (e.g. self-assessment and self-questioning) need to be included in reading comprehension instruction (Wade & Raynolds, 1989). Defining learning goals with learners, increasing learners' awareness of reading strategies, helping monitor and evaluate themselves, supporting their autonomy, encouraging cooperative group work and using self-assessment are some of the techniques that teachers may use while developing metacognitive awareness in comprehension.

**Reading strategies.** Recent research on reading has long supported the idea that using reading strategies bring about remarkable effects on reading comprehension both in L1 and L2 (Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Mc Namara, 2012; Pressley, 2002; Wallace, 1992). Mc Namara (2012) defines reading comprehension strategies as cognitive or behavioral actions which are activated under certain contextual conditions with the aim of developing comprehension. Mokhtari and Sheory (2001) refer to reading strategies as readers' deliberate actions that learners utilize for monitoring, applying, facilitating and promoting their reading comprehension. Paris and Jacobs (1984) also assert that talented readers show intentional efforts for activities which require purposeful thinking, strategies, and self-monitoring as well as thinking about the topic, looking for details in texts, and checking their own understanding. To be able to comprehend the reading texts appropriately, learners need to get help from various reading strategies. Wallace (1992) emphasizes that "Good learners tend to use the same strategies as good, experienced readers, drawing on as much of the surrounding text as possible, being prepared to tolerate uncertainty, using a wide range of textual cues in predicting what comes next, and generally being flexible in their response to the texts. The teacher, by watching the various ways in which his or her learners process texts, can encourage the use of those strategies which are observed to be most effective" (p.59). Thus, a lot of research done in the field apparently demonstrated that reading comprehension strategies are needed in order to improve good reading skills, and they should be explicitly taught so that these strategies can improve students' performance in reading comprehension (Brown & Palincsar, 1989; Carrell, 1985; Grabe & Stoller, 2013).

Numerous researchers have done a considerable number of research studies about L2 reading strategies, yet still there is not a definite framework for the reading strategy application which is commonly accepted by researchers. Some researchers explain reading strategies as predicting, skimming, scanning, understanding main ideas, inferring, guessing the meaning of the unknown words, determining the text organization, finding out a writer's purpose, evaluating a writer's point of view, self-monitoring, and summarizing (Khalaji & Vafaeeseresht, 2012; Li & Munby 1996; Souhila, 2014). Some other researchers give more extended or detailed set of strategies that are effective for reading instruction. One broad

categorization is made by Anderson (1991). Supervising, supporting, paraphrasing, establishing text coherence, and test taking strategies constitute the main areas that reading strategies should be employed. In addition, Varaprasad (2006) designed a list of categories adapted from Block's (1986), Haas and Flower's (1988) and Oxford's (1990) lists of reading comprehension classifications. Content/local, global/metacognitive, and genre-specific /discourse strategies are proposed as the subcategories of the reading strategies.

Along with a great number of authors in literature, Grabe and Stoller (2013) point out that reading comprehension strategies are needed to be presented as an integral part of L2 reading instruction, which can be successfully accomplished by means of instructions which incorporates consistent modeling, scaffolding, and long-term practice. Thus, a lot of researchers have categorized these strategies regarding the tasks that they are employed with. These tasks which relate to specific reading comprehension strategies are divided in three distinct instructional stages in order to devote class time according to the learning goals or teaching purposes (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). These stages are called as pre-reading, while (during) - reading, after (post) reading (Laverick, 2002; Paris et al.,1991; Pressley, 2002). The activities used in these stages are considered to contribute to the adoption of reading strategies and help readers comprehend the passages.

The objectives of the pre-reading stage are to activate students' background knowledge about the topic, to present any necessary vocabulary which may be needed in order to deal with the text, and to motivate the learners (Alemi & Ebadi, 2010). Pre-viewing is an important strategy that is presented in the pre-reading stage. Pre-viewing strategy develops students' text awareness and gives them clues about the purpose of the text. By looking at the titles, headings or format, learners can guess the discourse organization. In addition, predicting is another vital reading strategy which enables readers to anticipate the content of the text by using the titles, headings, pictures, and illustrations. Other than these, there are some reasons to use pre-reading strategies during reading instruction (Spangler & Mazzante, 2015);

• Evaluate students' prior knowledge about the text

• Activate students' background knowledge

- Maintain the background knowledge that is crucial to understand the text

- Discuss the author or content

- Think about visuals, illustrations, drawings, graphs, or pictures

- Stimulate students' desire to learn and to motivate students to read the text

- Provide any cultural information to assist students for comprehension

- Support students to think about the purpose of reading

- Assist students to find out the genre

- Create opportunities for group or collaborative study

- Open up class discussions about the text

- Explain skimming and scanning techniques

- Give relevant language preparation

- Present new vocabulary

While- or during-reading strategies embody activating previous knowledge, creating connections among necessary concepts, dealing with comprehension difficulties, monitoring comprehension process, and taking marginal notes or underlining vital parts of the text (Qanwal & Karim, 2014). While reading strategies facilitate students reading comprehension, they also enhance their management of the second language and decipher problematic parts in the texts (Barnett, 1988). During while-reading activities, students practice some strategies such as scanning, skimming, finding the main idea, guessing the meanings of the unfamiliar words, and inferencing, and teachers have opportunities to observe, guide and direct students' attention to the strategies which can be applied desirably for a specific paragraph. If students have troubles in employing these strategies, the teachers may have a chance to explain and provide more concrete exercises during this stage of reading. These exercises constitute guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words by making use of the contextual cues, adopting word formation tactics, practicing cognates; thinking about syntax and phrase structure by checking the grammatical functions of new words, focusing on referential words, and learning to use the dictionary purposefully (Barnett, 1988). While-reading strategies may be used in class in order to (Spangler & Mazzante, 2015);

- Attract students' attention to word formation hints

- Read for particular information

- Point out the differences between cognates and false cognates

- Create summaries

- Grasp the text content

- Provide visual reading aids

- Figure out the sequencing of events and ideas in the text

- Rephrase the main ideas in the text

- Address to the text questions

- Recognize the author's purpose

- Understand the organization of the text

- Uncover the cultural differences in the text

- Checking the answers given to the questions in pre-reading activities

In a while reading activity, teachers can ask students to complete an outline of the text, using diagrams or graphics to explain the text organization, underline the discourse markers, highlight the key words, use marginal notes for main ideas of the paragraphs (Grabe & Stoller,2013).

Post-reading strategies and exercises might encompass assessing the text, reflecting on the meaning of the content, giving individual responses to comprehension questions and summarizing the text. Students can review the information that they learned from the text, and they can evaluate whether they comprehend the text correctly. If they face any comprehension problems, they may reread or apply fix-up strategies. In real-world, people also read to understand and use similar strategies when they get stuck. To be autonomous readers, learners need to adopt the post-reading strategies of which people make use in their everyday lives. Some post-reading strategies include;

- Reviewing the content

- Transferring the text content to different styles of written or spoken work

- Creating associations

- Extending the reading expertise

- Linking the information gained from the pre and while-reading stages

- Analyzing the text deeper

- Reviewing key the vocabulary, essential questions, and content

Some of the exercises that can be done in post-reading phase are reorganizing the scrambled text, writing a good summary, and discussing the text as a class (Grabe & Stoller, 2013).

Reading in L2 can be very daunting for learners especially when they lack reading comprehension strategies that may guide them throughout the reading process. In the field of reading comprehension research, it has been emphasized by many researchers that skilled and successful readers are the ones who have the ability to use multiple reading strategies effectively (Grabe & Stoller, 2013; Lau & Chan, 2003; Paris & Myers, 1981; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Skilled L2 readers are seen to use background knowledge, guess the meaning of unfamiliar words, reread the sentences, use textual clues, skim or scan while reading, monitor their own reading and use fix up strategies. Conversely, poor readers use less cognitive and metacognitive strategies, lack self-monitoring, and they focus more on decoding rather than meaning comprehension goals. For this reason, researchers agree on the importance of being a strategic reader in order to become a skilled reader (Carrell, 1998; Paris, Lipson, & Wixson,1983), and teachers need to strive for developing strategic readers who are able to adapt the strategies in their independent learning processes (Grabe, 2004).

Teachers can promote effective reading comprehension by explicitly teaching reading strategies to readers. Even less-skilled readers can enhance their reading comprehension when they receive ongoing training about effective reading comprehension strategies. The fact that teaching reading strategies explicitly has a significant influence on the success of the students has been validated by a lot of studies (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Farrel, 2001; Hosenfeld, Arnold, Kirchofer, Laciura, & Wilson, 1981; Short & Ryan, 1984; Song, 1998; Taylor, Stevens, & Asher, 2006). Thus, teachers should present students how to benefit from reading strategies effectively, provide students opportunities to practice these strategies with various text and genre types, and give constructive feedback. Grabe and Stoller (2013) also

state that students ought to be encouraged to share their use of reading strategies so that they can explore the new ways of implementing them.

**Motivation, Reading Motivation and Reading Instruction**

**Motivation.** Motivation is a theoretical construct which signifies a desire or energy to initiate, direct, and sustain any kind of human behaviour. Lai (2011) defines motivation as "the underlying behavior that is characterized by willingness and volition." Motivation clarifies the reason why people intend to do something, how hard they will maintain it, and how long they are ambitious to continue (Dörnyei, 2001).

Motivation is also referred to goal-directed activities since long-term persistence can signal that an action is done in a motivated way. According to Schunk, Pintrich, and Meece (2008), motivation is the process that goal-oriented activities are empowered, guided, and maintained (as cited in Christenson, Reschly, & Wylie, 2012). Motivation is also expounded as "a psychological process that causes arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal-related" (Michell, 1982, cited in Lee, 2012).

In addition to volition and goal-orientation, motivation includes a plethora of complex domains. For example, Linnenbrink (2002) refers to the term as a multifaceted and complex process comprised of self-efficacy, attributions, intrinsic motivation, and achievement goals. For Gardner (2001), learning strategies, self-regulation, learner autonomy, task motivation, learners' cognition, willingness to communicate are some other factors that contribute motivation.

Even though researchers and educators entirely concur that motivation is a process which facilitates learning and student achievement, there is no exact definition which fully describes motivation due to its complexity (Dörnyei, 1998).

A lot of research has been done for decades to discover what motivational factors and drives are in language classes, and different theories and approaches have been proposed. In order to broaden the understanding of motivational factors in second language acquisition, an overview of theories in the field of motivation should be noted.

**Theories of motivation.** The earlier views of motivation emerged from Behaviorism. Behavioristic perspective is based on the conditioning theories. B.F. Skinner and Pavlov see motivation as the primary drive of human behavior. In the behavioral framework, forming habits is synonymous with learning. In this sense, the emergence of expected behavior and achievement is bound to reinforcement circumstances (Stipek, 1996). Experiences of praise or punishment determine our behavior, and learners display a particular behavior depending on their past reinforcement patterns related to that behavior; whether the learners got rewards or punishments repeatedly for that behavior before. In this way, the behavior becomes mechanical, and learners perform that behavior to receive praise or rewards, which helps them to be motivated by that behavior. By the same token, our acts are determined by external forces; consequently, motivation is maintained extrinsically (Brown, 2000). However, rewards and punishments are not similarly successful for every student, and positive behaviors (such as paying attention) are hard to strengthen (Stipek, 1996). As a result, in the long run, the advantages of extrinsic rewards tend to deteriorate (Stipek, 1996). Moreover, human memory has been overlooked in the learning process, which shows that stimuli-response scheme is linked more to cognition rather than behavior.

In the 1960s, as a reaction to automatic assumptions of behaviorism, humanistic views were proposed by Carl Rodgers and Abraham Maslov (Brophy, 2010; Dörnyei, 2001). In this view, human behavior is determined by the needs, and humans are motivated by a desire to satisfy these needs. On this basis, Maslov suggested that people have a hierarchy of needs that should be fulfilled and presented a hierarchy pyramid of needs in a paper in 1943. Beginning with the basic physiological needs, the needs pyramid continues with maintaining safety, working on emotional needs, fulfilling self-esteem and achieving our potential. Once people satisfy their requirements in the order given, people can reach self-actualization (Brophy, 2010). This self-actualizing tendency is the primary motivating force in people's lives (Dörnyei, 2001). Since people are motivated to achieve "self-actualization" with their inner powers, Maslow (as cited in Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015) asserts that intrinsic motivation is evidently superior to extrinsic. People should try hard to achieve self-esteem and satisfaction; even there are no external rewards (Brown, 2000). A shortcoming of this theory is that learners are assumed

to have the same drives; and therefore, individual differences and needs are neglected. (Bishop, 2016) In addition to this, when learners are motivated to learn may forget to meet their needs at the bottom part of the pyramid (Brophy, 2010). To illustrate, learners can pull an all-nighter when they study for an important test, or they may forget about their emotional needs or problems while doing an activity in the class. The other drawback is that the benefits of this theory have not been supported by empirical evidence.

The limitations of this theory lead cognitive theories to appear in the mid-20th century. A cognitive theory of motivation puts the emphasis on the mental procedures behind the behavior; that is, how the individuals' conscious attitudes, ideas, beliefs, and interpretations affect behavior (Dörnyei, 2001). In this view, what is in the individual's mind is reflected by their actions. These actions are goal-directed and purposeful. The individuals put continuous effort to balance their personal desires and aims within the framework of their perceived competencies and environmental support (Dörnyei, 2001). In cognitive approach, from an educational point of view, individuals take more responsibility in their own learning process, and defining objectives, monitoring their behavior, employing metacognitive strategies are left to the learners (Lai, 2011). Changes in behavior result from learners' internal cognitive process, so motivational factors are basically intrinsic. Cognitive view comprises some sub-categories to portray the motivational elements.

Expectancy-value theory originates from cognitive perspective of motivation and mirrors individuals as active decision makers in performing tasks. Wigfield, Tonks, and Klauda (2009) explain that expectancy and value constructs were first discussed by Tolman (1932) and Lewin (1938). Lewin (1938) mentioned the value that people give to an activity also changes the degree of importance they attach, and Tolman (1932) emphasized how expectancy works in different areas. Later, the first formal expectancy-value framework was put forth by Atkinson (1957; 1964) (Wigfield, Tonks, & Klauda, 2009). According to Atkinson, achievement behaviors are specified by incentive value of the achievement goals, achievement motivation and expectancy of success (Wigfield, Tonks, & Klauda, 2009). Atkinson also puts forth that success-oriented individuals' motivation level is higher, and this kind of learners do not have a fear of failure since they are fully engaged in the tasks and

performance (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Following Atkinson's framework, more recent formulations have been made in expectancy-value research. Eccles and Wigfield and their colleagues added some new perspectives to Atkinson's model and developed a more elaborated model of expectancy-value constructs. In their model, there are two significant indicators of achievement, which are expectancy and task value (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Expectancy of achievement in a specific task and value given to the tasks are the main determinants of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). Task value is made of four important aspects; attainment value (how much personal value individuals give to tasks); intrinsic value (personal interest or joy of doing the tasks assigned); utility value (how performing a task recognized as a facilitator for future tasks), and cost ( negative affective factors that influence task attainment) (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Stipek, 1996, cited in Lai ,2011). The expectancy-value theory proposes that individuals' expectations and evaluations determine their adaptation to the world. In this view, the factors which direct individuals' intrinsic motivation are the main points to be discussed (Dörnyei, 1998). In addition to the expectancy of success and task value, socializers, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors have essential roles in motivation. Hence, relationships are critical segments of this theory because expectancies and values are also shaped by society and culture.

In relation to the expectancy theory, some other sub-categories were also developed to understand the individuals' cognitive process and its ties to the expectancy of success. Dörnyei (2009) notes that attribution theory, self-efficacy and self-worth theory are some of the most significant of the categories to clarify the cognitive process of success.

Attributions are an individual's beliefs regarding the reasons of successful or failing performance (Lai, 2011). As stated in Weiner's attribution theory (1986), the individuals' causal attributions of their previous achievements and failures can influence their future achievement behavior and motivation to take a future action (Dörnyei,1998). As Weiner (2010) describes, there are four core determinants of achievement, which are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. In his taxonomy, controllable or uncontrollable, stable or unstable attributions of success or failure may affect individuals' level of motivation. To illustrate, if a learner perceives his/her failure owing to lack of aptitude, it is an uncontrollable internal attribution. On the

other hand, if a learner views as his/her fault because of his/her lack of effort, it is an internal controllable cause. However, luck is an external cause, and it is entirely uncontrollable. Consequently, when a learner is successful because of his/her high aptitude, the person may feel pride and have a substantial level of motivation. In contrast, when a learner feels he/she is not successful due to an unfair teacher (uncontrollable external attribution), the person will become hopeless and his/her motivation level will be low.

Self-efficacy theory is described as individuals' judgement of their own capacities to complete tasks, and their sense of efficacy regulates their decisions of actions, effort, and perseverance that they show (Dörnyei, 2001). Self-efficacy theory explains that people try to perform the actions that they believe they can, and people choose not to perform the actions that they feel they will fail since these difficult actions are seen as threats. Nevertheless, individuals with high level of self-esteem attempt to do the things which are difficult, and they consider these difficult actions as challenges to overcome. As Bandura (1994) states, there are four key factors which help to maintain self-efficacy; mastery-experiences, indirect experiences procured by social models, social persuasion, and reduction of negative emotional reactions. Self-efficacy theory puts emphasis on the process of motivation, and empirical research proves that motivated and successful individuals are the ones with higher self-efficacy (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). High self-efficacy level is closely attached to individuals' goal setting, self-regulation strategy use, the capability of overcoming difficulties, and appraisal of learning (Bandura, 1994).

Another theory which is linked to both attribution and self-efficacy theories is the self-worth theory (Lai, 2011). The self-worth theory of achievement motivation (Covington, 1984) puts forth that the most significant human priority is the search for self-acceptance. As Covington (1984) describes, in human society value is directly linked to individuals' accomplishments, and individuals think that they are as valuable as their achievements. Since individuals' abilities determine success and failure, their self-perceptions of ability explain their self-definition (Covington, 1984). When these perceptions are threatened, individuals strive for protecting them, which results in a lot of distinctive types of face-saving behaviors in classrooms (Dörnyei, 2001).

According to self-worth theory, individuals find causal attribution for not completing a task or failure in order to protect their self-image. The most common attribution for failure is not trying (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). In addition, students can develop negative learning behaviors, such as procrastination, finding excuses, refraining from challenging tasks so as to prevent negative ability attributions (Covington, 1992, cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

In addition to the abovementioned theories, there are some other significant theories which are part of the cognitive theories of motivation. These theories are also closely related to language learning situations.

Self-determination theory (1985), which was established by psychologists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan, is a motivation theory which proposes that human motivation, personality and well-being are related to individuals' inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs, as well as social support. As stated in self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), there are three inborn psychological needs to be met, which are competence, relatedness, and autonomy. These universal needs are vital for individuals' potential for integration, social and personal well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Competence requires control of the outcome and mastery experience. Relatedness refers to the universal desire to interact with people that they feel connected such as their families, peers, or a society (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomy stands for intentional actions and self-regulations about individuals' own behaviors and goals. In self-determination theory, the human organism is active by birth and motivated inherently, so integration is a natural process for development (Lange, Kruglanski, & Higgins, 2011). In this theory, intentional behaviors which are displayed autonomously and controlled behaviors which do not represent individuals' self are distinguished clearly (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This distinction asserts two different motivation types which are effective on individuals' behavior.

Extrinsic motivation, the first type, refers to the motivation when individuals engage in a task or activity due to instrumental reasons. In extrinsic motivation, rewards may be tactile such as food or money, or abstract such as pride (Lai, 2011). When individuals are motivated to get extrinsic rewards such as money, food, privileges, good grades, or praise, they feel less in control of their behavior, and effectiveness of intrinsic motivation will be lessened. Besides, individuals may adopt

certain behaviour in order to prevent punishment. Extrinsic motivation also has been subdivided into four diverse categories. External regulation, the first category, is the least autonomous form (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In this kind of extrinsic motivation, external resources such as rewards or threats constitute extrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 1998). To give an example, if a learner does homework due to family pressure, it is a type of external regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). External regulation is a type of behavior formation which is accepted by Behaviorism. Introjected regulation, which includes extraneous rules or regulations, is the second type of extrinsic motivation. In order to avoid from guilt or anxiety, or obtain pride, individuals experience an internal regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The third category is defined as identified regulation, which is fairly an autonomous type. This regulation occurs when individuals do a kind of activity because they see its usefulness, accept the importance, and value the behavior (Dörnyei, 1998). To give an example, if a learner believes that doing a certain assignment is helpful for his/her career, the person does it because of its instrumental value (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The last category determines the most self-determined extrinsic motivation, namely, integrated motivation. Integrated motivation is a choiceful act determined by individuals' values, needs, and identity (Dörnyei, 1998). If an individual decides to learn a new language in order to continue his/her hobbies, it represents a type of integrated motivation (Dörnyei, 1998).

On the other hand, intrinsic motivation refers to individuals' personal and autonomous engagement in an activity because of enjoyment, fun or satisfaction. Self-determination theory puts inherent motives at the center rather than external rewards, pressures or praise. As stated by Ryan and Deci (2000), humans have some natural motivational tendencies to wonder, discover and learn, and they do not need any external stimulants to do these. With the help of these motives, humans may facilitate their cognitive and social development. However, every individual is not intrinsically motivated for the same activities. As a result, exciting and engaging activities can increase individuals' motivation during tasks (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2000) emphasize that positive encouragement and feedback on performance on tasks can improve intrinsic motivation since constructive feedback helps learners to feel more skillful. Many achievement motivation theorists agree on that intrinsic motivation provides more

positive outcomes than extrinsic motivation in learning situations because this motivation increases individuals' autonomy and helps them regulate the outcomes of their efforts. In addition to these, intrinsic motivation generates psychological well-being, mastery goals, energy and persistence, which is why internal motivation should be fostered in educational settings (Harpine, 2015).

As Dörnyei (1998) states, in recent research, there has been a shift from theories of needs to goal theories, which have been used to describe achievement motivation. Goals refer to the objectives or expected results of an arranged sequences of behavior (Brophy, 2010). According to Brophy (2010), most human acts are intentional, and individual decisions indicate their goals. With the presence of goals, individuals demonstrate that they are ready to achieve, show progress and use strategies in order to reach the target performance level. There are two kinds of goal theories that are well-developed; goal-setting theory and orientation theory.

Goal setting theory was developed by Locke and Latham (1990) so as to demonstrate that every human activity has a reason, and goals are necessary to be pursued. According to Locke (1996), goal setting is a conscious process of building up performance levels to achieve intended targets. Goals coordinate action and attention, and create energy, effort, and persistence in order to attain a specific target; subsequently, goals motivate individuals and help them develop strategies that generate future motivation (Lunenburg, 2011). Locke and Latham (2006) propose five moderators which influence motivation and achievement. They are divided as clarity, challenge, commitment, feedback, and task complexity. Initially, when goals are precise, specific, and unambiguous, they can be more measurable, and performance can be regulated. Secondly, the harder the goal is, the higher the achievement will be. When individuals set more difficult goals, they try harder to attain these goals because difficult tasks are considered to be more critical. Compared to easy tasks, individuals become more motivated and successful while completing challenging tasks. Goal commitment is the third factor which helps increase motivation. Goal commitment, as Locke (1996) defines, is "the degree to which the person is genuinely attached to and determined to reach the goals." When goals are higher or more difficult, individuals may show more determination; namely, they can have genuine commitment. However, individuals should strive for realistic, self-set goals. When a goal is set, the optimum time, performance and difficulty level

should be arranged. When the tasks are too hard and complex, it is overwhelming and discouraging for individuals so that it may lead to lack of commitment. Moreover, feedback is an effective component of goal setting because it helps to have clear expectations, regulate goal difficulty, track progress and commitment towards the goals (Locke & Latham, 2006). Goals also become more effective when they are used to evaluate progress. Setting goals affect individuals' planning and the quality of the preparation. When plans include goals, individuals use their personal resources to stick to their plans or set new goals to work out their plans. Furthermore, goals should maintain interest and prevent boredom. However, there are still some dysfunctions of goal setting theory. When goals are set too high or unrealistic, it can be demotivating. In addition, goals may be utilized as a face-saving move by individuals who endeavor to take pride in their goals without really trying to accomplish them (Locke, 1996).

Secondly, goal orientation theory was mainly created to describe individuals' learning and performance in educational contexts (Dörnyei, 1998). As Ames (1992) asserts, there are two contrasting types of goal orientations, which are mastery goals and performance goals. Conceptions of achievement and reasons for participating in tasks differ in mastery and performance goals. Mastery goals can also be labeled as task-involvement, learning objectives or intrinsic values (Dörnyei, 1998; Lai, 2011). Developing competence is the core of the mastery goals (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). It was also emphasized that mastery goal which individuals pursue affect developing new skills, employing the skills of learning to learn, planning, and achieving (Ames 1992). On the other hand, performance goals focus on demonstrating competence, getting good grades, surpassing other learners, and demonstrating superior performance (Ames, 1992; Dörnyei, 1998; Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Performance goals are also compared to ego-involvement goals or extrinsic motivation. For this type of goals, as Dörnyei states (1998), learning is only a means of achieving a goal and obtaining others' recognition. Ames (1992) suggests that mastery goals are more beneficial for learning since they help to maintain a positive learning environment, allow learners to regulate their own learning, and create long-term intrinsic motivation. Active engagement in learning, the number of time students spend on tasks, and students' persistence of difficulty are considered as other gains of mastery goals (Ames, 1992). Unlike mastery goals, performance

goals lead to refrain from challenging tasks, experience negative feelings after failure, and follow short-term learning strategies such as memorizing to get higher scores from a test. These behaviors may threaten learning environments. Nowadays, goal orientation theory and its relation to student motivation in classrooms has become the most studied research topic in the field (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, cited in Dörnyei, 1998).

**Motivation in foreign language learning.** Motivation prevails learners' engagement, and the way their cognitions, behaviors, and emotions are energized, focused and assisted in learning contexts (Schunk & Mullen, 2012). Moreover, motivation has been considered as one of the key stimulants that make individuals learn a second language. L2 motivation, also known as second language motivation, stands for the learners' willingness to learn a new language, the effort they devote to the learning process and their point of view about language learning (Lee, 2012). Language learning abilities, suitable curriculum, and even good teaching is not sufficient to guarantee student achievement when there is lack of motivation (Dörnyei, 1998). Dörnyei (2001) also asserts that 99 percent of language learners can master a reasonable level of foreign language when they are really motivated. Therefore, L2 motivation is claimed to be a paramount concern in language learning process.

As Dörnyei (2011) specified, the history of motivation in foreign language teaching and learning goes through three different phases. These phases are: (1) the social-psychological period (1959-1990), (2) the cognitive-situated period (the 1990s), (3) the process-oriented period (the turn of the century), and (4) sociodynamic period (has still been developing).

Regarded as the first phase, socio-psychological approach links individuals with the society. Motivation and attitudes are shaped by social interactions in a community. As Byram and Feng (2004) state, "social psychologists tended to see action as the function of the social context and the interpersonal/intergroup relational patterns, as measured using the individual's social attitudes." There are two main models emerged from socio-psychological approach; Gardner's socio-educational model and Richard Clement's linguistic self-confidence.

By taking its roots from the socio-psychological approach, a socio-educational model of second language acquisition was developed by Gardner and Smythe in 1975. As Gardner describes, motivation refers to an energy-center that creates effort, enthusiasm, and task-enjoyment (Dörnyei, 1998). To be motivated learners, individuals should have interest in foreign languages, a motive to interact with the L2 community, and a positive attitude toward the act of learning languages. In their motivation model, learners' goals can be classified into two categories: integrative orientation and instrumental orientation.

Integrative motivation includes motivational, attitudinal, and goal-oriented elements (Dörnyei, 2002). Basically, when learners want to learn a foreign language with the intent to interact with the target language community, they show integrative motivation. In second language educational contexts, integrative motivation is associated with the learning environment. When learners are integratively motivated (integrativeness component), they adopt positive opinions towards learning that language (attitudes towards the learning situation component), they are motivated to learn a foreign language, and they have enthusiasm in communicating in the target language (motivation component) (Gardner, 2001). These learners not only demonstrate intrinsic motivation towards language learning, but they also have an openness to the target culture (Masgoret & Gardner 2003: 174, cited in Lai, 2011).

Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, can be seen when learners' basic intention to learn a foreign language is due to the potential advantages of L2 proficiency, such a getting a better job or fulfilling an academic requirement (Dörnyei, 2001). It means that instrumental motivation is the motivation to learn a language to pursue goals such as promoting a career or reading academic materials (Anjomshoa & Sadigh, 2015). Learners who show instrumental motivation are said to be affected by extrinsic rewards.

There are some studies which provide evidence that learners with integrative motivation outperform the ones who have instrumental motivation. One of these studies was conducted by Dörnyei and Clément in 2001. A large-scale attitude/motivation survey was done nationwide in Hungary. 4700 students who are 13-14 years old participated in the survey. It was found out that integrativeness represents the primary predictor of participants' motivational disposition, and it determines the language choice and effort. Another study was conducted by Todd

Hernandez in 2006. 130 university foreign language students who are at intermediate level participated in the study. Data gathered from questionnaire and interviews demonstrated that integrative motivation is the core predictor of students' intention to continue further studies. His findings also support the idea that classroom activities which reinforce integrative motivation improve student achievement in the foreign language classroom.

In fact, integrative motivation mainly concerns the learners' positive opinions to community who speaks the target language; however, the second and foreign language learning contexts differ regarding their immediate environments. Second language learners can have direct interaction with the target language community whereas foreign language learners in a classroom setting have little or no contact with the target community members (Clement, Dörnyei, & Kimberly, 1994). Therefore, Richard Clement (1980; 1986) later formulated the concept of linguistic self-confidence as a substantial motivational system for L2 classrooms (Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001). As Orio (2013) states, self-confidence is "the feeling of security that an individual can have towards what he/she is capable of achieving." When learners have linguistic self-confidence, they have positive attitudes, effort to learn and use L2, which in return may lead to success in classrooms. Clement and Kruidenier assert that motivation to learn a foreign language includes self-confidence as a key element (Dailey, 2009). This classroom environment becomes the environment of socialization, and students who adopt positive attitudes and persistence to communicate in the classroom have a higher level of linguistic self-confidence (Clement, Dörnyei, & Kimberly, 1994).

In the 1990s, motivational specialists developed many theories which were explicitly grounded in the classroom setting to close the gap between motivational theories in educational psychology and foreign language teaching, and they concentrated on cognitive process and its connection with motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). Many theories in the perspective of language learning emerged in a cognitive-situated period of motivational research, including expectancy-value, attribution, self-efficacy, self-worth, goal, and self-determination theories. Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation constructs have also been a topic of interest for L2 learning motivation research.

According to the tenets of expectancy-value theories, individuals' expectancy of success and the values attached to success on a given task affect individuals' motivation to perform the task (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). When students perceive their probability of accomplishment and they give value to their goal, they have higher levels of motivation. In contrast, it is impossible that students may give personal investment in the tasks if either factor is lost. Namely, if individuals are persuaded that they cannot succeed regardless of how hard they try, they may not reach desired outcomes, and they cannot be motivated (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Expectancy of success and values placed on learning a foreign language influence students' learning behavior. As it is described in Shaaban's (2000) study, students' expectancy to accomplish their goals and their perception of their capacity to accomplish those goals are robust determinants of their motivation. Mori (2004) also researched to learn more about student's L2 reading motivation in Japan. It was found out that when students feel that they are not high achievers or active learners, they start to try less to achieve in reading tasks. It was concluded in the study that expectancy beliefs are leading indicators of real performance. However, value beliefs are found to be far better predicators than expectancy beliefs when it comes to their behavioral decisions. Nishino (2005) also investigated student's L2 reading motivation and its relation to expectancy-value constructs. The findings of the analysis suggest that reading motivation constructs resemble the constructs of expectancy-value theory.

Attribution theory has been acknowledged as the only motivational framework which constitutes not only cognitive but also affective aspects (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The attributions (task difficulty, luck, effort and ability) which were proposed by Weiner shape students L2 motivation as well. Learners' attitude and motivation to continue further language learning studies is related to the attributions which they specify for previous achievements or failures in learning foreign languages (Bandura, 1979; Jarvis, 2005; Schunk, 1991; Smith, 2012; Williams & Burden, 1997, cited in Kalman & Eugenio, 2015). To illustrate, if a student believes that foreign language learning is tough, the student may have little motivation in the beginning of learning a new language, which is a stable internal factor. However, if a student feels that he/she can learn the language by working hard, the student likely has higher motivation in the classroom (Gray, 2005). However, there are not

a lot of attributional studies in L2 contexts due to some constraints. First of all, cross-cultural differences in language learning settings may bring out incompatible results. Another reason is that causal attributions in L2 is a very complicated process, so it is hard to put forth quantitative analysis. Even though researchers used questionnaires in many studies, the validation of the polls was vague, and the questionnaire creation techniques and analysis were incompatible with the standard rules of methodology (Kalman & Eugenio, 2015). Despite all, there are some qualitative studies which propose essential evidence about attribution theory. To give an example, Williams and Burden (1999) conducted a small-scale research to investigate learners' attributions for success and failure while learning French. They interviewed 10 to 15 year–olds so as to uncover their attributions of doing well in language learning. The results showed that ability, level of work, circumstances and the influence of others were relatively effective in their attributions for success. In addition to this, external elements such as teacher approval or scores were indicated as important factors increasing with age. As they conclude, teachers play a substantial role in students' attribution of success. Dörnyei and Ema Ushioda (2011) mention that Ushioda (1996 ; 1998) also conducted an interview study and found out that when learners have confidence in their individual potential, despite negative experiences, they tend to attribute positive L2 outcomes, and when they think of adverse results they tend to blame their failure to temporal factors such as lack of effort or absence of energy in the L2 environment. Subsequently, some classroom applications which increase the students' positive attributions were well explained in Gray's (2005) paper. For this, teachers can figure out their learners' attributional profile, and they may design appropriate activities and feedback sessions accordingly. When difficult tasks are divided into simple units, learners feel like they have control over language learning. Also, failure in language learning should be attributed to lack of effort, not lack of ability.

Self-efficacy and how teachers assist learners to have positive thoughts about their capacities to learn L2 also influence language learning settings significantly. In language learning settings, self-beliefs of efficacy is defined as the beliefs which a person has the assets of learning a foreign language, acquire a foreign language ability at the desired level, and perform language-related tasks efficiently (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1988, cited in Piniel & Csizér, 2013). It has

been proven that students having greater positive self-efficacy beliefs tend to take harder courses, study harder, persist, and attain at better levels of language proficiency (Eccles et al., 1998, cited in Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Bandura (1994) states that learners' confidence about their capabilities to produce desired performance levels are regulated by learners' previous performance (people who succeeded before will have a more potent experience of self-efficacy than the ones who did not), observational learning, encouragement by parents, peers, or teachers, and the level of learners' physiological reaction to the learning situation. However, Oxford and Shearin (as cited in Dörnyei, 1994) emphasize that lots of language learners do not have self-efficacy beliefs when they start learning the target language, they "feel lost in the language class." Therefore, learners' self- efficacy beliefs should be reinforced in language classes to increase engagement, promote meaningful learning and maintain academic success in language tasks. To provide a broad explanation for the role of self-efficacy in language learning settings, several studies have been conducted. In Raoofi, Tan, and Chan's (2012) review of literature, 32 articles published between 2003 and 2012 were examined. According to the findings, self-efficacy is stated as a crucial factor that impacts learners' interest, perseverance, the degree of effort, learning investment, the objectives they select to fulfil and their choice of self-regulation strategies while performing tasks. (Carmichael & Taylor, 2005; Lane, Lane, & Kyprianou, 2004; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Pajares, 1996, 2003; Schunk, 2003, cited in Raoofi et al. 2012). In addition, Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2007) investigated the influence of self-efficacy and other motivational self-beliefs on achievement. The findings demonstrate that there is a definite relationship between self-efficacy in L2 learning and students' achievement. Also, students who believe that they can apply metacognitive strategies to monitor their learning are found to be more successful than the ones who do not. In one more study, Chen (2007) focused on the relationship between self-efficacy, anxiety, and listening performance with 277 Taiwanese university-degree English language learners. The findings demonstrated that L2 listening self-efficacy is a valuable indicator of listening scores in comparison to both anxiety and the perceived value of English language and culture.

Along with attribution and self-efficacy theories, Clement's linguistic self-confidence concept (Clément, 1980, 1986; Clément et al., 1977, cited in Dörnyei &

Ushioda, 2011) is another factor affecting students' motivation in foreign and second language learning contexts. As Dörnyei explains (1998), self-confidence is "the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently." Specifically, linguistic self-confidence refers to individual's self-perceptions of communicative competence and willingness to communicate. In language classrooms, when learners have high levels of perceived L2 competence, they are found to be more enthusiastic to engage in the oral interaction. By contrast, when learners think that they are not proficient enough to speak in the class, they are also not motivated enough to use the target language. Thus, the students with greater self-confidence are expected to improve their language proficiency more easily (Edwards & Roger, 2015). Clement et al. (1994, cited in Dörnyei, 1998) assert that self-confidence is additionally noteworthy in foreign language classes nowadays because in today's world students can have direct extensive contact with the L2 speaking culture via media or the Internet. Some studies in the field have bolstered the assertion that L2 self-confidence has an essential part in learners' L2 proficiency. To show the effectiveness of linguistic self-confidence, Clement's et al. (1994) conducted a study in Hungarian unicultural setting with 301 students. The study gives empirical evidence that even when language learners have limited contact with L2 speakers, social factors are effective in the classroom including, effort, attitude, achievement and classroom behavior. Good classroom atmosphere and activities which include group dynamics promote student involvement, improve group interaction and maintain linguistic self-confidence. Additionally, Hans and Kiil's (2010) study shows that students motivation to interact orally and the output that they produce have highly been influenced by students' linguistic self-confidence. In addition, the topics discussed and the educational settings have been found effective on students' willingness to use the target language. In another research, Ghanbarpour (2016) focused on the link between students' willingness to communicate, their linguistic self-confidence and anxiety. As the findings of the study reveal, students' L2 self-confidence makes a great contribution to students' willingness to communicate in the target language. In addition, Edwards and Roger's (2015) study illustrates how students can develop L2 linguistic-self-confidence as an advanced learner. They used interviews and self-evaluation model to bring out the important components of L2 linguistic self-confidence. Results

suggest that individual's perception of control over their learning as well as awareness of listening skills are the core of L2 linguistic self-confidence.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation constructs, which were proposed by Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory, have been other widely discussed topics in language teaching methodology. Brown (2000) states that "our ultimate quest in this language teaching business is to see that our pedagogical tools can harness the power of intrinsically motivated learners who are striving for excellence, autonomy, and self-actualization." Intrinsic motivation is facilitated by learner autonomy. As Dickinson (1995, cited in Dörnyei, 1998) states, learner autonomy is the condition when learners take responsibility of their own learning and when they are aware that their success or failure is tied to the effort and strategies that they adopt. Autonomy and intrinsic motivation both put learner's active participation and engagement in the center of the learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In L2 educational contexts, when students are aware of their language needs and goals, regulate their learning process based on their goals, and use appropriate strategies for their language learning styles, students are considered autonomous learners. It is proved in a lot of research studies that intrinsic orientations and learner autonomy lead to desirable and better language learning outcomes (Lai, 2011). In Noels, Clement and Pelletier's (2001) study, the links between autonomy, competence, intrinsic and extrinsic motives for language learning were presented. 59 bilingual Canadian adult learners participated in the research. After the participants completed their summer course, a questionnaire was used to explain students' aims for language learning, perceptions of autonomy and competence, effort in language learning, persistence to continue English studies, as well as their course achievement. The results of the survey pointed out that when students have higher perceived autonomy and competence, they may be more intrinsically motivated and they employ better self-regulation strategies. In another study, McIntosh and Noels (2004) analyzed the notions from the self-determination theory, cognition and language learning strategies. The findings of their study proved that self-determination in L2 is effective on the variety of language learning strategies.

As stated by Brown (2007, cited in Dailey, 2009), if there are external pressures in a language course, learners may lose their intrinsic motivation for language learning. Therefore, teachers may include more Collaborative and

Cooperative Learning approaches along with having students a chance to manage their own learning process so as to increase learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation (Lai, 2011). According to Dörnyei (2001), increasing learner involvement in the learning process, encouraging peer teaching, designating course responsibilities in group work activities, supporting project work and allowing students to assess themselves facilitate students' autonomy in the classroom.

In L2 learning motivation, goal setting is also influential. As Brophy (2004) explained, "the existence of a goal indicates that the person has made a commitment to achieve some state or outcome, that progress in doing so can be monitored and assessed, and that the person can use the resulting feedback to make any needed adjustments in the strategies used to pursue the goal." According to Lunenburg (2011), goals need to be specific and hard but attainable, the timeline for goal achievement should be determined, and goal commitment and feedback are required. When language learners set goals about their language learning, they produce a conscious effort on language features, they regulate their own learning process, they have persistence in education, and they can develop strategies to tackle with their language learning difficulties. In addition, goal setting practices can be carried on outside of the class, which help learners to become autonomous (Haynes, 2011). A number of researchers have suggested that goal theories yield a lot of positive effects in language learning contexts. Deci, Lens, and Vansteenkiste (2006) state that intrinsic goal framing creates more engagement, better conceptual learning and higher determination for learning in comparison to external or no-goal framing. Haynes (2011) also conducted a study with 34 university foreign language learners to figure out students attitudes in the use of goal-setting. Results of the study demonstrated that although students have some troubles in remembering to accomplish their goals, they think goal-setting is a valuable approach in assisting them to see their improvement on quantifiable objectives, to focus on particular language areas, and to feel more motivated to use the language. One more study by Ferdowsi (2005) was conducted to discover the effectiveness of goal-setting in Iranian EFL students' essay writing. The findings of the research uncovered that when students were given choices to select their own learning goals, the higher number of students chose the challenging or difficult goals to achieve the tasks.

Goal orientation theory was mainly designed for learning and performance in school contexts (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As Brophy (2004) defines, "goal orientations refer to students' beliefs about the purposes of engaging in the achievement-related behavior." According to this theory, students' performance is fairly related to their perceived goals. Students who are taking the same lessons or doing the same activities can have different orientations for the task accomplishment. As Pintrich and Schunk (1996) illustrates, if two students get the same grade of 85 points out of 100 on an exam, one student can be unhappy with the grade because of his/her high expectations, whereas the other student, who had a different goal orientation, may be contented with the grade. Goal orientations are subdivided into two regarding students' conceptions of success, reasons to engage in an activity, and self-beliefs (Ames, 1992). They are mastery (learning) goal orientations and performance goal orientations. Students holding mastery goals want to increase their understanding and competence, while students with performance orientations wish to do better than others, want to be recognized by others and avoid negative judgements. Students' goal adjustments cannot be directly monitored, but it is possible to interpret them by learners' classroom behaviors and decisions to finish a task (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002, cited in Lee, 2012). Findings of Nakayama's (2005) research also put forth that students' goal orientations and their beliefs are significant while students are selecting language learning techniques. Furthermore, when students have learning goal orientations introduction and strong feelings about their language skills, they are discovered to use metacognitive strategies more. Additionally, although there is a common belief that mastery learning goals are positively related to cognitive strategy use, self-regulation and performance (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002) and performance goals generate maladaptive outcomes (Ames, 1992), performance orientations have recently been found beneficial for achieving language learning outcomes as well. Macayan et al. (2018) recently carried out a study with 162 Filipino university-level students who were having EAP courses so as to uncover the influence of goal orientation on language learning. The findings of the study uncovered that students who have performance orientation to L2 language learning had better performance than the ones who have mastery goals.

All of the theories as mentioned earlier are not contradictory to each other, but have influenced and developed by one another over time. However, "the linear cause-effect perspective of these theories" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) are not enough to explain the dynamics of students' motivation. Moreover, most of these theories were not specifically designed for L2 learning and L2 classroom practices, so they may lack some specific constructs of language learning. Also, becoming a proficient user in a foreign language requires several years. Throughout these years, students' motivation during the course of learning is undergone ongoing changes, both internally and externally (Bowen, 2008). Therefore, the dynamics of L2 motivational shift in time has become the primary interest of the motivational research in L2 settings.

As indicated by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), the differences between motivation for engagement (decisions, desires, aims, goals) and motivation during engagement (how one feels, acts and reacts over the span of learning) were initially emphasized by Williams and Burden. In addition, Heckhausen's theory focuses on the differences of the motivational stages while learning. Decision making or development of learning goals (choice of motivation) have different characteristics than the implementation of the goals (volition) (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). As Heckhausen (1991) asserts, "Why one wants to do something and that one wants to do it is one thing, but its actual implementation and successful completion are another" (as cited in Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). Based on these ideas, Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) established a detailed theory of action control, which is based on the observation of people's behavior. Why people's actual behavior and their priorities are not correlating, and why people show persistence for an activity while there are more appealing alternatives are the central questions that they focused on (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998).

Following Williams and Burden, and Heckhausen and Kuhl, Dörnyei and Otto developed a new framework. With their model, Dörnyei and Otto attempted to combine action sequences with motivational influences, including goal setting, intentions, task accomplishment and post-task evaluation (Dörnyei, 2011). Based on this view, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) mapped out the motivated behavioral process as three stages:

Preactional phrase: Preactional phase consists of emotional impacts including desires and needs which result in goal setting, making commitment to attain the desired outcome, intention formation, building up an action plan and the initiation of goal enactment (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998).

Actional phase: Actional phase is the phase when an action is actually implemented. During this phase, the goals should be divided into attainable segments, such as short-term goals. Meanwhile, the appraisal should be sustained by learning environment. For example, teachers and peers should observe the progress towards to goals. Action control mechanisms, namely self-regulatory techniques, should be adopted to preserve motivation during learning. The primary motivational impacts during the course of the actional phase are the quality of learning situations, sense of autonomy, peer impact, classroom praise and expertise of self-regulatory strategies (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Postactional Phase: The postactional stage starts after the goals are achieved or when the action is interrupted for a long period (e.g., a holiday). Assessing the completed action outcomes and arriving at possible conclusions for future actions are the primary processes in the course of this phase (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Dörnyei (2003, cited in Bowen 2008) asserts that temporal awareness is a crucial issue in explaining learner motivation due to the fact that individual motives depend on the level of action one has reached while achieving their purpose. Students may start off learning a foreign language due to some instrumental motivation; however, they may have distinct motivations when they become proficient in the target language, and their linguistic self-confidence may extend.

Dörnyei also asserts that the current motivational phase should be called as the socio-dynamic phase (Dörnyei, 2011). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) also believe that English is now a global language, so there is not a target English-speaking community. Thus, it changed the characteristics of language learners, and language learning motivation should be treated differently from this time onward (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In addition, they assert that L2 learning motivation has been reconceptualized with the notions of self and identity. As a result, contemporary

research needs to follow a more dynamic model, which integrates motivational, cognitive and social aspects (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Ushioda's person-in-context theory also proposes that learners need to be considered as individuals with diverse and personal mental processes and their feelings, reactions, and motivation may differ according to their physical and psychological states, as well as the contexts. Classroom talk, student-student, and teacher-student are useful to develop a full understanding of these individual variables. It is recommended that allowing students to talk about the things that they are interested in, rather than asking students to practice specific forms, might help educators to understand whether such methods influence their motivation (Brander, 2013). Ushioda explains person-in-context theory as following;

*I mean a focus on real persons, rather than on learners as theoretical abstractions; a focus on the agency of the individual person as a thinking, feeling human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, a person with goals, motives, and intentions; a focus on the interaction between this self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations, activities, experiences and multiple micro- and macro-contexts in which the person is embedded, moves, and is inherently part of. My argument is that we need to take a relational (rather than linear) view of these multiple contextual elements and view motivation as an organic process that emerges through this complex system of interrelations. (Ushioda, 2009: 220)*

Another theory which focuses on learners' self and identity in learning is Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self system (2005). As Dörnyei states (2009), although the theory uses the psychological motivation theories of self, it is specifically designed to explain L2 motivation. Traditionally, learner's possible selves attempt to explain how an individual perceives himself/herself at the moment. However, learners have desires, goals to achieve, and they try to uncover their potential in their L2 learning process. Besides, Dörnyei asserts that learner's individual motivation has dramatically been affected by their learning environments such as classroom learning situation, teachers, peers, and learner groups because how the learner see oneself as a proficient L2 speaker is determined by the social surrounding and favorable learning experiences (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Dörnyei divides L2 self-motivation into three different areas;

1. The ideal L2 self-refers to the future image one has of oneself as an L2 speaker. L2 learners' hopes and desires, such as being a proficient L2 speaker or speaking with the target language users fluently, shape their ideal L2 selves. It is a powerful motivator since it reduces the distinction between actual and ideal selves. (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

2. The ought-to L2 self represents the future image one has of oneself as an L2 speaker considering the expectations of the other. Ought-to L2 self includes the avoidance of adverse outcomes. Learners are concerned with their responsibilities and necessities in order not to end up with an unwanted state. Ought-to L2 self is linked to instrumental motivation. If a learner studies so as not to fail an exam, or not to disappoint his/her family, the learner tries to sustain his/her ought-to L2 self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

3. The L2 learning experience concerns the effect of immediate environment such as the teacher, the curriculum, and the peers (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The L2 learning experience is linked to the "motivation inspired by prior experience interacting with the present learning environment" (MacIntyre, Mackinnon, & Clement, 2009, p. 68; cited in Bodnar, 2016).

The blend of those dimensions, namely the learners' vision about themselves as L2 speakers, the social demands from the others, and inspiring learning environment motivate learners to master L2.

L2 Motivational Self system has drawn extensive attention in L2 research. The findings of the studies reported in the past years were in line with the Dörnyei's theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The empirical literature confirms that having a clear perception of one's ideal L2 self may support motivated L2 learning behavior, and emotional factors can develop or limit learners' desires to actualize their ideal L2 selves. L2 motivational self-system was studied by Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) with groups of Japanese learners of English. These groups' learning contexts either enabled them to develop an ideal L2 self, or, on the contrary, made it hard to maintain a clear picture of an ideal L2 self. The results of the study indicate that the group whose L2 studying context turned into a favorable one for the development of a positive ideal L2 self-image, the ideal L2 self had the most powerful direct impact

on motivated L2 learning behavior. Also, the students alter their learning through engaging in positive outcomes. These learners are; for this reason, in the finest learning context for forming L2 learner autonomy. In another study, Papi (2010) investigated 1011 Iranian high school students' ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience along with the L2 motivational self-system, English anxiety and learning effort. The results of the study illustrate that whilst the ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience reduced students' anxiety; however, the ought-to L2 self considerably increased anxiety.

As it is presented above, motivation is a complicated process, and L2 motivation depends on a plethora of changing factors from learning situations, students' personal beliefs of achievement to how they built up L2 cultural awareness. In the L2 motivational literature, some of the theories take their grounds from "behavioral" elements such as persistence and rewards, and "cognitive" elements such as interest, engagement, intrinsic drives. Others are based on "affective" factors such as self-efficacy, expectancy-value, L2 self-confidence, and some socio-psychological facets such as extrinsic motivation and instrumental-integrative motivation.

Nevertheless, motivation has recently been recognized as a dynamic process which is affected by individual beliefs, attitudes, interests, goals, and desires rather than generalizable patterns. Also, these features are shaped by social and contextual circumstances (Williams & Burden, 1997, cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). However, there is still a lot to be done to maintain L2 motivation with the infinite number of learner types in classrooms. As Stipek (1996) states, teachers should allow learners to make their choices about materials and procedures, set their own L2 learning goals, and monitor their performances. Moreover, teachers are expected be selective about classroom procedures. For example, teachers should create opportunities to maintain positive self-beliefs of efficacy and more autonomy and responsibility in students' own learning. Teaching self-regulation strategies, promoting feedback on effort, adjusting task-difficulty, using authentic materials, diversifying types of activities for all learner types, and using Collaborative or Cooperative Learning approaches are some other suggestions that teachers need to consider to promote motivation in the language classroom.

**Reading motivation, reading instruction and achievement.** Motivation, as stated before, is vital for the academic achievement of individuals as it enables to determine the extent to which students will consider, value, endeavor, and display interest within the task (Gbollie, 2007). There is no doubt that the place of motivation is essential in L2 reading comprehension as well as L2 learning motivation in particular. However, Wigfield (1994) indicates that there are some unique factors of reading motivation which are specific to reading, so L2 learning motivation and L2 reading motivation may have distinct features. Reading is an activity which incorporates various cognitive skills and these skills extend from understanding the meaning of individual words to complex written work. Moreover, there is a need for reading for almost all school tasks and activities, and it is also an activity that includes student's choice (Guthrie, Wigfield, & You, 2012). Additionally, motivation is thought to be a significant element in reading performance (achievement) and engagement.

Reading motivation refers to "the individual's personal goals, values and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes, and outcomes of reading" (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, cited in Guthrie, Wigfield, & You, 2012). Constructs established and evolved via researchers in the achievement motivation field were tailored while conceptualizing reading motivation (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). In addition, research on L2 reading motivation is supported by L1 reading motivation, yet it also has its own unique features because learners reflect their L1 language learning experiences on L2 reading activities. As Wigfield (1997) states, the answers to the questions "Can I be a good reader?" and "Why do I want to be a good reader?" explain the motivational constructs in reading. In line with the motivational theories, students' self-images as readers, beliefs, expectations and values for achievement, learning objectives, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational patterns, students' attitudes towards reading, and other social and classroom setting factors are considered as the determinants of reading motivation and successful comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2013).

Utilizing these motivational constructs as reference focuses, Wigfield and Guthrie (1995) divide L1 reading motivation into three elements, which involve 11 sub-categories (see Table 1).

Table 1

*The Main Elements of Reading Motivation According to Wigfield and Guthrie*
*(1995)*

| Competence and Reading Efficacy | Achievement Values and Goals | Social Aspects of Reading |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Reading Efficacy<br>2. Reading Challenge<br>3. Reading Work Avoidance | Intrinsic Motivation<br><br>4. Reading Curiosity<br>5. Reading Involvement<br>6. Importance of Reading<br><br>Extrinsic Motivation<br><br>7. Reading Recognition<br>8. Competition in Reading<br>9. Reading for Grades | 10. Social Reasons for Reading<br>11. Reading Compliance |

These elements provided foundation for the development of the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) which was prepared by Wigfield and Guthrie in 1995 to identify the underlying reasons of learners' motivation to read. The questionnaire's reliability and validity were tested in their "Relations of Children's Motivation for Reading to the Amount and Breadth of Their Reading" research study. (Guthrie, 2010). They implemented the MRQ with 105 fourth-and-fifth graders in one school year. To estimate children's reading amount and breadth, diaries and questionnaires were used (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). The findings of their study showed that reading motivation is a multidimensional drive. Also, the study uncovered that participants' reading amount and breadth can be anticipated by their motivation levels. Intrinsic motivation elements were found to predict the amount and scope of reading more clearly than external motivation elements. The MRQ is considered as the most extensive motivational measure presently applicable for L1 readers (Lin et al., 2012).

Although Wigfield and Guthrie originally designed the questionnaire to explore the unique factors of children's reading motivation in L1, the MRQ has been applied to L2 reading motivation study by many researchers. To give an example, Mori (2002) investigated what accommodates foreign language reading motivation

with 477 Japanese learners of English at a university. This study was conducted to discover the feasibility of the MRQ in an EFL context to evaluate students' reading motivation. Mori (2002) unearths that L2 reading motivation is not independent of general motivational elements. However, L2 reading motivation is associated with more general forms of motivation, particularly with expectancy-value theory. As another application of the MRQ in L2 context, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in L2 reading were analyzed by Dhanapala and Hirakawa, (2016). The MRQ, a background questionnaire, and a reading comprehension test were the tools to gather data from the students. L2 readers own intrinsic and extrinsic motivational goals were found to be concurrent. Analysis also recommended that motivation in L2 reading could be validly assessed via motivational reading model designed by Wang and Guthrie (2004). In another study, Şirin and Sağlam (2012) investigated Turkish university students' intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivational patterns in reading by using the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) and interviews. Findings showed that the motivation of reading in L2 was influenced by external elements by and large, and the adjustments in methodology and teaching affected intrinsic, extrinsic motivation, reading amount and performance significantly.

There are also a number of studies which benefited from the MRQ and presented more detailed findings about the subcomponents of L2 reading motivation. For instance, Komiyama (2013) investigated the characteristics of L2 reading motivation with students learning English for academic purposes. The findings of the study approved that L2 reading motivation has a multidimensional nature and intrinsic motivation in L2 reading motivation has a significant effect. The study presented evidence that adult EAP college students' motivation for reading in L2 is constituted of both intrinsic and extrinsic elements. The researcher also indicated that some students appear to be somewhat motivated when competing with their peers in L2 reading lessons; however, in fact, they are not so motivated when it comes to reading for new information in L2. Additionally, Brantmeier (2005) presented her efforts to study learners' self-assessment ability, enjoyment and the impact of these elements on L2 reading comprehension. Regarding the outcomes of the study, enjoyment and motivation along with metacognition were found to support better L2 reading comprehension. As Brantmeier (2005, p.501; cited in Tsuei, 2010) asserts "learners who believe they are good readers of Spanish and

enjoy L2 reading may be more positively motivated to read and this may enhance performance." In one another research, Blay et al. (2009) attempted to find out whether motivation and reading comprehension is correlated and what motivational components (challenge, curiosity, reading engagement, competition and compliance) are useful in reading comprehension activities by using a modified version of the MRQ. The results demonstrated that competition and challenge have a close link with reading comprehension achievement.

As Guthrie and Humenick point out (2004), motivation has a substantial role in reading instruction, and it maintains reading comprehension development. As they follow, "When students are deeply engaged in text interaction and motivated to understand over lengthy periods of time, their achievement in reading comprehension increases." For this reason, Grabe and Stoller (2013) have advised some practical steps that instructors can comply with to support students' motivation for reading in instructional settings:

1. Instructors need to be proper role models for their students, and need to create interest for reading.

2. Students should be encouraged to share what they read with other students.

3. Reading texts should be selected based on students' interests.

4. Group cohesiveness amongst students needs to be maintained so that students can guide each other while reading difficult texts.

5. Instructors need to enhance students' expectancy for success in reading with careful planning of task implementation.

6. Instructors need to activate background knowledge before reading.

7. The appropriate challenge needs to be adjusted to preserve motivation.

8. The link between curriculum and additional curricular readings need to be supplied.

9. Students active participation in reading tasks need to be maintained to bring out engagement, motivation, and entertainment.

10. Instructors need to allow students to select the reading materials when it is possible.

11. Instructors should increase appreciation of reading, and students should find out what they have actually learned from reading.

12. Instructors need to assist students in constructing real levels of understanding in reading.

## Engagement, Student Participation and Achievement in Reading

**Engagement.** Motivation impacts how students' engagement, cognitions, behaviors, and affective skills are empowered, guieded, and maintained in the course of educational activities (Skinner, Kindermann, Connell, & Wellborn, 2009, cited in Schunk & Mullen, 2012). The notion of engagement connects motivational psychology tenets to observable actions and outcomes in academic settings (Wentzel & Miele, 2009). Indeed, engagement is a complex term that numerous researchers have defined it in particular ways. Reeve (2012) describes engagement as "the extent of a student's active involvement in a learning activity." Skinner, Wellborn, and Connell (1990, cited in Alrashidi, Phan, & Ngu, 2016) express that engagement refers to students' initiation of effort, performance, and perseverance in schoolwork in addition to their encompassing emotional states throughout learning activities. Engagement is also defined by Audas and Willms (2002) as the degree to which learners take part in academic and non-academic activities, and become aware of and value schooling outcomes. Although engagement has been characterized by different definitions, numerous researchers concur on some basic of constructs of engagement. As Audas and Willms (2002) state, engagement comprises behavioral components such as investment in school activities, being prepared for class, attending to lessons, and finishing homework, and psychological components such as having good relations with teachers and peers, and valuing school and learning. In addition, student engagement is closely connected to academic tasks and activities. All in all, engagement is a multifaceted construct which includes an understanding of affective connections in academic surroundings (e.g., effective peer relations) and dynamic learner behavior (e.g., attendance, participation, interest, effort, positive social behavior) (Christenson, Reschly, & Wylie, 2012).

Even though there is no consensus about the number of domains of engagement, Fredricks et al. (2004) put forth a comprehensive model of engagement, and they have conceptualized engagement under three major dimensions: behavioral, cognitive, and affective (emotional) engagement (Alrashidi, Phan, & Ngu, 2016).

As Fredricks et al. (2004) explain, behavioral engagement includes positive attitudes, participation in academic tasks and classroom activities. The students who show behavioral engagement are those who follow classroom rules, make contributions to classroom learning, display active participation in lessons, and devote effort and attention to learning tasks. Consequently, behavioral engagement is an immediately observable domain, and the notable markers of this dimension encompass lack of absenteeism, readiness for school study, and disciplined behavior (Appleton et al., 2008; Fredricks et al., 2004; Reschly & Christenson, 2006, cited in Alrashidi et al., 2016).

As a subcategory of behavioral engagement, academic engagement means on-task behavior. Behaviors associated directly with the learning process are defined as academic engagement. To illustrate, diligence in completing class tasks and homework, or expanding learning by means of educational extracurricular activities are related to academic engagement. Basic "threshold" degrees of academic engagement are vital for learning (Finn & Zimmer, 2012).

As another sub-category, social engagement is defined as the degree to which a student sticks to classroom rules and has a sense of social relatedness. This type of behavior includes coming to class on time, collaborating properly with instructors and peers, and not showing negative or disturbing behavior. It has been taken into account that learning is facilitated by a high level of social engagement. Students' positive peer interaction has been stated to have a huge contribution to student's motivation and academic engagement which is supported by empirical literature (Chen, 2017; Lee, 2014; Wentzel, 2005, Wentzel, Baker, & Russell, 2009). Instructional practices for a sense of relatedness, such as having task-related peer interaction, are found to be connected to students' engagement, emotional engagement and active participation in learning (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Conversely, a low level of social engagement is believed to prevent learning.

Namely, social engagement serves as a mediator between academic engagement and accomplishment (Finn & Zimmer, 2012).

As it is explained by Finn and Zimmer (2012), "cognitive engagement is the expenditure of thoughtful energy needed to comprehend complex ideas in order to go beyond the minimal requirements." Cognitive engagement is about students' internal investment in the learning procedure, which merges their inner psychological or nonvisible qualities promoting effort in learning, understanding, and mastering the knowledge or skills that can advance their academic studies (Guthrie, Klauda, & Ho, 2013). Cognitive engagement is related to students' thoughtfulness, enthusiasm, and effort which are requisite to understand complex ideas and achieve excellence in challenging skills (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004). Behaviors that indicate cognitive engagement comprise asking clarification questions, working hard at challenging exercises, reading more than assigned, revising what has studied before, finding different information sources other than course materials, and using self-regulation and cognitive strategies (Finn & Zimmer, 2012). Cognitive engagement and academic engagement are considered very similar. However, cognitive engagement is about the internal thinking process stimulated by learners to enhance understanding while academic engagement is directly related to participation and observable behavior.

Affective (emotional) engagement entitles students' positive and negative feelings in the classroom, such as enthusiasm, boredom, joy, distress, and anxiety (Anderman & Patrick, 2012; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Students who are affectively engaged feel that they belong to the learning environment. They also value learning and understand that school leads them to have more out-of-school accomplishments (Finn & Zimmer, 2012).

Finn and Zimmer (2012) point out that measuring engagement is possible by observing the instances of student behavior and utilizing the indicators of the engagement components in the instruments to assess engagement. They also propose a scale to help to asses engagement in classroom settings.

In classroom practices, engagement may be stimulated by learning activities which are challenging, amusing, purposeful, and related to students' interests and lives, and by learning activities which promote social interaction and bring about

substantial shareable results (Skinner, Kindermann, Connell, & Wellborn, 2009). Instructional methodologies that require peer interaction (e.g., cooperative learning), stimulate discussion, or promote students' opinions (e.g., use debates) are observed to catalyze student engagement (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Johnson, Johnson, Buckman, & Richards, 1985; Osterman, 2000; Ryan & Patrick, 2001; Wang & Holcombe, 2010, cited in Finn & Zimmer, 2012). Creating opportunities for critical thinking, problem-solving and metacognitive strategy use has been correlated with elevated student engagement (Newmann, 1992). Authentic instruction in which students use high-order thinking skills also incorporates with higher levels of engagement (Wehlage & Smith, 1992). Additionally, Skinner et al. (2009) emphasize that engagement contributes to students' learning and improvement, mediates the results of short- and long-term goals, and influence the adjustments in future contextual elements.

**Reading engagement.** Kamil (2003) expressed that motivation and engagement are significant factors for readers. When students are not motivated to read, it is evident from research in the field, they will not gain any benefits from reading instruction. Reading engagement means the collective assistance of motivations, strategies, conceptual knowledge and social interactions in reading (Guthrie, Anderson, Alao, & Rinehart, 1999).  The self-reported effort, amount of time spent, and observed concentration in reading tasks are also associated with reading engagement (Guthrie, Klauda, & Ho, 2013). Gambrell (2011) also described engaged readers as "intrinsically motivated to read for a variety of personal goals, strategic in their reading behaviors, knowledgeable in their construction of new understandings from the text, and socially interactive about the reading of the text." Lee (2012) describes reading engagement regarding components of engagement. While students are engaged with reading tasks emotionally, they demonstrate affective feelings such as enjoyment and willingness. If students are behaviorally involved, they participate actively in reading tasks. If students are engaged cognitively, they exhibit cognitive processing such as efficient application of reading strategies in the course of comprehension. When students are socially involved in reading tasks, they have interactions with peers, groups or teachers and they share what they read with others.

It is worth noting that reading is a skill which requires active and complex cognitive processes. Thus, the impact of motivation and engagement within the reading text and tasks are essential in the improvement of the reading comprehension. For this reason, reading engagement is mostly associated with task engagement since many reading activities are based on the reading tasks. Task engagement may be portrayed as the learners' involvement in a task which brings out high cognitive processing and effort, and more fun and cooperation for learners (Lee, 2012). When reading strategies are used actively and enthusiastically with high task involvement (or engagement), it initiates and sustains the goal-directed academic effort (Christenson, Reschly, & Wylie, 2012). Although learners are able to use reading strategies, such as summarization or using graphic organizers, the learners' overall reading performance will significantly decrease if they are not motivated to direct their efforts to apply these strategies, or not engaged to reflect on how successful they are at using these strategies (Christenson, Reschly, & Wylie, 2012). Thus, tasks need to be challenging, interactive, rich in feedback, satisfying, different and newly presented in order to engage learners to read. Guthrie and Knowles (2001) express that there are some principles that can promote engagement in classroom reading tasks. The authors list them as; providing learners conceptual themes, real-world interactions, self-directedness, interesting texts, cognitive strategy training, social cooperation, and support for students to express themselves.

It is broadly acknowledged by L1 researchers that reading task engagement leads to success in reading. However, reading (task) engagement and how students can engage and participate in L2 reading in classroom environments have not been greatly explained by L2 researchers since the studies conducted in literature have primarily focused on reading motivation. From the studies conducted in L2 reading engagement, Lee (2012) researched L2 reading motivation and reading task engagement with adult ESL learners to read in English. According to the findings, using familiar texts and pre-vocabulary activities can help ESL learners overcome reading difficulties, and they can lead to higher engagement. In another study done by Taboada, Townsend, and Boynton (2013), the role of L2 learners' reading engagement in both their general and content-specific reading comprehension was examined. As the research results outlined, there is a positive connection between

reading engagement, English language proficiency, general comprehension and content specific reading comprehension. Additionally, Brantmeier (2006) researched 104 advanced L2 readers to develop a multicomponent model of interest in L2 reading. Sources of interest factor analysis uncovered that cohesion (31%), background knowledge (13%), engagement (12%), ease of recollection (10%), and emotiveness (6%) influence the reading motivation. Findings showed that awareness of these elements are important for L2 reading comprehension.

**Collaborative Learning**

Collaborative Learning signifies an instructional strategy that learners at different achievement levels study together in small groups in order to accomplish a common goal (Laal, 2013; Panitz, 1999). Collaborative Learning was frequently connected with working in a group or team; however, since the 90's, it has been accepted as cognitive co-participation. Thus, "collaboration" term replaced the conventional "cooperation" term (Roselli, 2016). Slavin (1996, cited in Dörnyei, 2001) states that it is "one of the greatest success stories in the history of educational research."

Cooperative learning stands out as a unique strategy that has been broadly used as an instructional procedure with various grade levels and subject areas (Pan & Wu, 2013). Cooperative learning is also regarded as an advantageous strategy for culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). This strategy is beyond just group work because students are not merely asked to work in groups without knowing group functioning; however, group work in cooperative learning is vigilantly arranged, planned, and monitored (Jacobs et al., 1997).

Cooperative learning upgrades learners' motivation, knowledge retention, and comprehension (Pan & Wu, 2013). In the L2 field, with the impact of communicative language teaching, peer cooperation has been seen as a key to classroom communication. This sort of peer interaction provides ample opportunities for meaningful dialogues about school content in anxiety-free classes (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000).

Collaborative Learning methods are substantially based on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (SCT) which sees learning as a social procedure that is stimulated through the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Hernandez, 2012; Lin, 2015). Vygotsky believed that the appropriate assistance provided by more knowledgeable or capable others such as teachers or peers in the classroom settings helps the students master a particular task. Vygotsky's "Zone of Proximal Development" leads to bridge the learning gaps by internalizing meaning during social interaction. This kind of support, which is also called "scaffolding", enables students to understand better and gain independence in their learning process. According to Vygotskian view, the outer social world which the individual life evolves in should not be ignored since language learning takes place in social contexts.

Krashen's input hypothesis in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is another view which led Collaborative Learning to develop. According to this hypothesis, a learner should receive input which is slightly beyond his/her current level of competence in order to acquire the language, which is called as comprehensible input. By employing meaningful and successful communication, comprehensible input I +1 should be provided (Krashen, 1987). Second language development relies on the extent of comprehensible input that a learner receives (Lin, 2015). With the help of heterogeneous small group work in Collaborative Learning, learners can negotiate meaning and exchange ideas, which creates opportunities for receiving comprehensible input and produce output.

In addition to these, interaction hypothesis in SLA, which was first proposed by Long (1981), was developed based on the input hypothesis. Social interaction and face-to-face communication are significant for learners to develop language proficiency. Other than input, interaction, and output, feedback is the key factor in interaction hypothesis because feedback helps learners to receive information about the correctness or the incorrectness of their utterances (Tran, 2009). Feedback also helps learners to make necessary adjustments in their output.

The concept of learner autonomy is also closely related to Collaborative Learning since autonomous learners are the ones who are capable of being independent, having responsibility for learning, and reflecting on their learning. According to learner autonomy concept, the teacher's role is to foster a learning

context where learners can be self-directed. Thus, unlike traditional teacher-centered learning environments, autonomous learning allows students to organize their communication with others.

Furthermore, motivation theories have led Collaborative Learning methods to be firmly dependent on scientific foundations. Slavin (1996) states that traditional classrooms direct students to work for good grades, teachers' approval and other rewards. To achieve these, learners need to compete with each other to be superior to their peers. Therefore, competitive learning environments hinder students' learning process by creating anxiety, emphasizing on the product rather than the process, and leading low-achievers to be demotivated. On the other hand, as Panitz (1999) asserts, Collaborative Learning reduces classroom anxiety by having peers in the groups work together, and if any mistake made, all group members equally share the responsibility. Group work creates academic engagement due to the given responsibility for group performance, so individuals continue to work on challenging tasks longer (Stipek, 1996). As a result, students, even low-achievers, participate more actively in the learning process. In addition, Collaborative Learning creates an environment that learners feel respected and connected to each other. Modeling successful student or peer performance is also believed to be encouraging for learners (Stipek, 1996).

Research has shown that cooperative learning techniques offer lots of potential benefits. Dörnyei (2001) describes these benefits of Collaborative Learning as follows;

- Collaborative Learning encourages group cohesiveness. When students work together, they don't focus on ethnic, cultural, class or ability differences since they have shared goals. When students work together to achieve a specific goal, their expectancy of success is going to be higher than the ones who study alone.

- Collaborative team work provides academic achievement.

- In Collaborative Learning situations, students feel responsibility to their fellow group members. This joint responsibility enables students to increase their efforts.

- Collaboration is also motivating because students' contribution is needed for the group to succeed, which increases students' efforts.

- Collaborative Learning creates anxiety and stress-free situations compared to other learning methods.

- Collaborative Learning lead groups to study autonomously since they work without the supervision of the teacher.

- With the help of Collaborative Learning, students experience fulfillment when they complete a task together successfully.

- Collaborative Learning situations allow students to evaluate their own efforts in group work.

Empirical evidence from various research studies on Collaborative Learning in EFL contexts underpins that peer interaction in groups motivates students to participate in tasks as this kind of interaction improves supportive learning atmosphere and reduces learning anxiety. Klingner and Vaughn (2000) assert that lots of English language learners express their preference for receiving help from a peer than from an adult. Slavin (1996) also states that students in collaborative groups study to achieve a shared goal and they value each other's learning, which augments their achievement efforts. Webb (1991; 1993; 1995; 1998) additionally calls attention to the significance of Collaborative Learning in students' assessment and achievement. She asserts that students who work with the high-achievers can improve their abilities, even they show higher accomplishment. In her study (1991), the findings demonstrated that below-average students who studied with above-average students showed higher achievement than below-average students who did not work with above-average students. In addition, she emphasized the gains of working in heterogeneous groups. It was found out that high-ability students generally perform better when they work in mixed-ability groups than when they work in homogeneous groups.  In high-ability groups, students typically believe they know everything, and they have a tendency to give fewer clarifications, and perform worse. However, heterogeneous ability teamwork, in which moderate-ability students participate more actively, give and receive more elaborated explanations, and demonstrate higher achievement, has been considered to improve student motivation. Many studies also show that Collaborative Learning in L2 reading

instruction encourage reading comprehension development (Ghaith, 2003; Ghaith, & El-Malak, 2004; Klingner, & Vaughn, 1996; Lan, Sung, & Chang, 2007).

In a classroom environment, priority might be given to Collaborative Learning which promotes student interaction and learning goals (Brophy, 2010). Dörnyei (2001) suggests some important points for classroom implementations of Collaborative Learning. Some of these are given below;

- Small groups consisting of 3-6 learners should work together.

- Group members should be "positively interdependent.''

- In addition to individual grades, some kind of group score is additionally calculated, and it should be used to change the individual scores.

- Specific roles should be alloted to each group member so that everybody has a particular duty.

- Certain class rules are set to emphasize group responsibility.

**Collaborative Strategic Reading**

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) is a research-based instructional framework in which cooperative learning principles (Cohen, 1986; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Kagan, 1986) and essential reading comprehension strategies (Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994) are amalgamated with one another (Klinger et al, 2002 ). CSR provides an educational context where students who are at different reading and performance levels study in small, cooperative groups and apply reading comprehension strategies with the help of their peers (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). Theoretically, CSR holds its grounds on cognitive psychology (Flavell, 1992; Palincsar & Brown, 1984) and sociocultural theory (Perez, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978) (Vaughn, Klingner, Swanson, Boardman, Roberts, Mohammed, & Stillman-Spisak, 2011). Influenced by Palincsar's (1986) reciprocal teaching, which is a pedagogical practice that learners substitute the teacher in small groups, CSR was developed by Klingner and Vaughn as a type of a multicomponent intervention which incorporates an array of reading comprehension strategies to consolidate learners' comprehension of a reading text (Vaughn & Edmonds, 2006). CSR was initially designed to assist learners with learning disabilities and deal with their reading comprehension problems. However, after its

potential to improve reading comprehension has been recognized by many researchers, CSR has created interest in L1, and L2 reading comprehension studies since lots of researchers have had attempts to develop instructional models that include successful reading comprehension strategies to facilitate learning (Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998).

CSR is widely accepted as a useful tool for L2 learners because peer communication during cooperative learning increases leaners' chance to discuss the academic content in the reading texts and supply modified input in a non-threatening, low anxiety atmosphere (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). Students' helping behavior and the explanations that they provide for their peers during small group discussions are also beneficial since they visualize and practice the academic information while explaining, which in turn increase their reading achievement. In addition, teachers who use CSR in classrooms aim to give an instruction which may guide students in their future autonomous use of comprehension strategies (Hitchcock, Dimino, Kurki, Wilkins, & Gersten, 2011).

Moreover, CSR comprises crucial components that upgrade the performance of students such as making reading instruction explicit, applying procedural strategies (pre- while- post), using communicative groups and creating situations for interactive dialogue between students and teachers (Vaughn et al., 2011). CSR incorporates whole class instruction with small cooperative learning groups and introduces reading strategies explicitly in order to develop metacognitive and self-monitoring skills that enhance reading comprehension (Hitchcock, Dimino, Kurki, Wilkins, & Gersten, 2011). Additionally, CSR helps students learn beneficial reading comprehension strategies which are used before, while and post reading. These strategies are; brainstorming and predicting (preview), monitoring comprehension (click and clunk), finding the main idea (get the gist), and producing questions, revision of key ideas and summarizing (wrap up) (Klingner, Vaughn, Arguelles, Tejero Hughes, & Ahwee Leftwich, 2004).

Furthermore, Klingner and Vaughn (1998) present CSR implementation in three phases. They are strategy instruction, collaborative group roles, and materials, respectively.

In strategy instruction phase, classroom teachers introduce and model the strategies to the whole class before the actual implementation of CSR. After students grasp why, when, and how to apply these strategies, students with different reading abilities can form small groups of four or five (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). A different group role is allocated to each student in the group so as to ensure the participation of all students and prevent dominant students do all the work.

In pre-reading stage, the first strategy that students are supposed to use is preview. Before reading a passage, teachers may introduce the topic of the reading material and preteach any important vocabulary which can be challenging for all learners. In addition, teachers may start with reviewing a classroom practice. For example, teachers can remind students how to use feedback from peers to find out a gist in 5 minutes (Vaughn et al., 2011). Then leaners rapidly check the title, pictures, and scan the material to brainstorm about the topic and make predictions about the content. Later, learners write down the ideas they recall while brainstorming and predictions on their learning logs. The primary objectives of previewing are to create interest and questions regarding the material they are going to read, activate their prior knowledge and motivate students (Klingner & Vaughn, 1999).

After previewing, as a during-reading strategy, learners are expected to use contextual clues and word parts to help clarify meaning with the help of click and clunk. Click and clunk are self-monitoring strategies that assist reading comprehension (Janette et al., 2002; Klingner & Vaughn, 1999). Click refers to the words or ideas that learners understand or know well while reading; however, clunks are the words, notions or ideas which learners do not understand during reading. While reading, students take notes about the clunks and they discuss these clunks with their peers after reading (Klingner & Vaughn, 1999). Whenever they have problems in comprehension, they use fix-up strategies to clarify meanings or understand the meanings of the words as a group. Click and clunk aim to teach students both metacognitive and self-learning skills to observe their understanding of the text and practice fix-up strategies. Fix-up strategies (see Appendix-F) are the strategies for guessing the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary items by rereading the sentence without the unfamiliar word, rereading the sentences before and after the clunk for clues, finding basic elements in the word (e.g., prefixes, suffixes, a known

word part), and using word parts which can help in comprehension (Vaughn et al., 2011; Janette et al., 2002).

In this phase, additionally, students are taught to employ a strategy named as ''get the gist'' , which learners identify the main idea or the most critical information in the text (Klingner, & Vaughn, 1999).  Students restate the main idea by using their own words to ensure they understood what they read. Klingner et al. (2002) state that many teachers want learners to find out the main idea, but few teach the steps of finding the main idea to the learners. While implementing CSR, students are expected to find out the most important "who" or "what" in the text, and later to detect the most significant information about the "who" or "what " , finally rewrite the main idea with their own words (Klingner et al., 2002).

In the final stage, post-reading, students wrap up by generating questions and answers about the reading material, and by reviewing important ideas in summary writing. The goal of the wrap-up strategies is to enable students to point out the key views of the entire content to develop their knowledge, understanding, and memory of the text (Klingner & Vaughn, 1999; Vaughn et al., 2011).

Learners record their previews, gists, clunks, questions and summaries on their learning logs during CSR implementation. Teachers move between groups during the implementation so that they can guide the learners, give feedback, and ask questions to find out whether they comprehend the text content correctly (Vaughn et al., 2011).

Secondly, collaborative group phase refers to the roles which are assigned between group members to work effectively. Roles are supposed to change periodically so as to allow all students experience different roles. The roles in CSR include the following (Klingner & Vaughn, 1998);

Leader: This learner leads the group during CSR implementation by explaining what comes next and what strategy to follow for a particular reading text. If needed, the leader calls for help from the teacher.

Clunk expert: This learner makes use of clunk cards to suggest the steps to follow to the group whilst finding out a difficult word's meaning or understanding a notion.

Gist expert: This learner reviews on the main ideas the group found out and declares the best-loved main idea that the group has generated.

Announcer: This learner calls on different group members to read or share their ideas. He/she should be certain that all learners participate and only one individual speaks at a time.

Encourager: This student observes the group and provides feedback. He/she focuses on behaviors to reward.

Time Keeper: This student keeps the time for each part of CSR and assists the group recognize how much time to allocate each activity or stage of the task.

Students can take one of these roles during CSR, or two of these roles can be assigned if necessary. In addition, if there are not required number of students, teachers can keep the time instead of students.

The final phase is the materials that they get help from during CSR. These materials help learners to keep track of the strategies and show what they need to do during pre-while-post reading stages. These materials are cue cards, CSR learning logs and fix up strategies. Cue cards can remind students to follow cooperative learning roles. Cue cards also lay out the process and provide a guidance for learners during CSR implementation. Each role is defined with a cue card for each stage of reading. Cue cards lead students to concentrate on the task and boost their confidence. Additionally, CSR learning logs help students monitor their learning. Learners write down their predictions, clunks, fix-up strategies, questions, and summaries on their learning logs in every stage of the reading process. These logs make the reading process tangible to students by providing a concrete document of their reading process and strategies used. Even these logs can be used for further studies or as a review material before a test.

CSR is an effective instructional method because it enables readers to use cognitive (top down and bottom up) strategies and teaches readers how to apply metacognitive strategies (Abidin & Riswanto, 2012). Moreover, it offers opportunities for learners to activate their schemata by means of previewing strategies in the pre-reading stage. Additionally, CSR is a helpful method which helps readers to use reading comprehension strategies systematically. As Zimmerman and Hutchins (2008) suggests, activating background information,

using sensory images, generating questions, making predictions and inferences, detecting main ideas, employing fix-up strategies, and synthesizing are the basic reading strategies that facilitate comprehension. During CSR implementation, students apply these strategies with the help of their learning logs and assigned roles. When learners use these strategies over time, they will have opportunities to implement these strategies automatically out of the class or in comprehension tests. One another effectiveness of CSR is that it engages students to work in small groups cooperatively. As Morrow (1996) notes that a combination of interesting texts and collaborative interaction with peers has increased reading motivations of learners. Collaboration in small groups additionally advances not only achievement but also productivity (Johnson et al., 1981; Slavin, 1983, cited in Morrow, 1996). Johnson, et al. (1981) state that oral interplay among students and working in heterogenous groups make contributions to cooperative studying. Cooperative learning in CSR helps learners to be active, collaborative and cooperative in accomplishing shared learning goals (Abidin & Riswanto, 2012).

A lot of research on CSR reveal that CSR is an influential reading comprehension instruction. Although most of the studies about CSR are done with L1 learners, that CSR has the potential to improve reading comprehension of L2 learners has also been proved by the studies done in language teaching.

In one of their experimental studies, Vaughn et al. (1996) investigated the efficacy related interventions on Collaborative Strategic Reading with students who learn English as a second language and have learning disabilities. 26 students participated in the research for 15 days. The findings of the study uncovered that a great extent of students benefited from strategy instruction. In a subsequent research, Vaughn et al. (2011) focused on the effectiveness of CSR and metacognitive strategic learning on comprehension of seventh- and eighth-grade learners of English. Learners in the experimental group had a multicomponent reading comprehension classes (CSR) for 18 weeks. As the findings demonstrated, the treatment groups outperformed on the reading comprehension test. However, the difference between groups was not significant on reading fluency.

Fan (2010) also investigated the effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading in a Taiwanese university context with 110 EFL learners. The survey results demonstrated that CSR had a positive impact on EFL students' reading comprehension, especially with regards to comprehension questions of getting the main idea and exploring the supporting details.

Zoghi, Mustapha, and Maasum (2010) undertook a research study with 42 university level students aiming to examine the efficiency of Modified Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction. The qualitative evaluation demonstrated that students developed positive attitudes towards MCSR.

Karabuga and Kaya (2013) also implemented a research study to investigate the effectiveness of CSR on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension. 40 prep class EFL students in a Turkish university participated in the study. The results of the study illustrated that CSR instruction has a favourable effect on the comprehension and reading related problems of adult EFL learners.

Finally, in Pan and Wu's (2013) study, the effectiveness of reciprocal cooperative learning instruction was examined with seventy-eight university-level EFL students who were taking English Reading courses. They used a comparison group quasi-experimental design for their research. The findings showed that the students who took classes with cooperative learning instruction performed better than the students in the control group, who had traditional reading comprehension classes. According to the findings, it was also found out that cooperative learning instruction has a positive impact on student motivation in reading classes.

**Conclusion**

In this chapter, the theories and scientific knowledge that underpin this study are examined, and empirical research results and essential methods were presented to shed light on the study. Firstly, the reading comprehension process have been explained in terms of cognitive and metacognitive elements. Later, the significance of reading strategy training has been underscored with the views and experiments of the researchers in the field. The phenomenon of motivation and engagement has been attempted to be explained clearly. The relation between motivation, engagement, and learners' active participation has been put forth. Finally, the effectiveness of Collaborative Learning and Collaborative Strategic

Reading in foreign language learning contexts have been presented. Having examined the relevant research, the necessary theoretical underpinning that is required for the study has been provided.

## Chapter 3
## Methodology

**Introduction**

In chapter three, the methodological considerations about the research design are presented in detail. In the present study, a mixed-method research design, which blends the elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches, is employed to answer the research questions. In addition, this chapter aims to explain the participants, instruments, and data collection procedures.

**Research Design**

In this study, quasi-experimental research design with mixed data collection methods was adopted with two classes of language preparatory school students at Yalova University School of Foreign Languages so as to find the effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading in adult EFL learners' motivation, engagement and participation in reading.

In this study, a quasi-experimental design is thought to be the ideal research method since the students are divided into the classes by the school management according to their passing scores from the previous language level, in this case A2, and they pay close attention to arrange classes according to different achievement levels. Thus, it could be disruptive to rearrange the classes. Besides, heterogeneous language ability groups are the core of the study because the aim of using Collaborative Strategic Reading is to bring the different levels of students together and allow them to help each other in order to facilitate reading comprehension. In addition, quasi-experimental research designs help to draw causal connections by applying a treatment to an experiment group and comparing the results with a control group. After the intervention of Collaborative Strategic Reading, the analysis of the findings gathered from pre/post-tests forms the basis of this study. For abovementioned reasons, a quasi-experimental research design is implemented in the present study.

In addition, a mixed method data collection procedure is preferred for the study since it is aimed at triangulating the data that are gathered from quantitative and qualitative tools. Mixed method design means the inclusion of different

qualitative and quantitative methods within a single project which has a qualitative or quantitative theoretical basis (Morse, 2003). The techniques which serve as supplemental strategies assist to provide clues and support for the core method. As Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) suggest, using mixed methods is essential for L2 research since this approach enables researchers to analyze the behavior which is embedded in complex educational and social contexts. In addition, some qualitative instruments such as structured or semi structured interviews, focus groups, participant observations as well as voice recordings can be employed in presenting qualitative research results to bring out a more in-depth understanding of human behavior (Chandler, Anstey, & Ross, 2015). In the present study, reading comprehension tests, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ), and Collaborative Strategic Reading Questionnaire (CSRQ) are administered in addition to the students' classroom participation observation and students' self-assessment rubrics. The observation of the two classes is made by two different teachers; therefore, the gathered data should be in a standardized form. As Simmons et al. (1999) emphasize, establishing rubric procedures creates interrater reliability of 80% and even higher. For classroom participation during reading classes, a holistic scoring rubric is designed to collect reliable and accurate data. In addition, students' self-assessment procedure is done through rubrics which are developed in can-do-statements according to the CEFR and based on the classroom material. In brief, students' classroom participation observation and students' self-assessments are preferred to be gathered in rubric forms in order to converse the qualitative data into a quantifiable measure.

Table 2

*Overview of the Research Design*

| Research Questions | Main Sources of Data | Methods of Data Analysis |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1. Is Collaborative Strategic Reading more motivating than traditional teacher-centered reading approaches? | Pre and post administration of Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) | Statistical analysis using SPSS 16.0<br><br>Paired samples t-test |
| 1.1. Is Collaborative Strategic Reading more motivating than traditional teacher-centered reading approaches? | | |
| 2. Is learner engagement different in the class which Collaborative Strategic Reading is applied from the class which traditional teacher-centered reading approaches are applied? | Weekly Student Participation Observation with Rubric | Statistical analysis using SPSS 16.0 |
| 2.1. Is learner engagement different in the class which Collaborative Strategic Reading is applied from the class which traditional teacher-centered reading approaches are applied? | | |
| 3. Is learner performance different in the class which Collaborative Strategic Reading is applied from the class which traditional teacher-centered reading approaches are applied? | Pre and post-test of reading comprehension<br><br>Self- assessment Rubric | Statistical analysis using SPSS 16.0<br><br>Independent samples t-test |
| 3.1. Is learner performance different in the class which Collaborative Strategic | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Reading is applied from the class which traditional teacher-centered reading approaches are applied? | | |
| 4. What are the EFL learners' perceptions of the use of Collaborative Strategic Reading? | Post administration of Collaborative Strategic Reading Questionnaire (CSRQ) | Descriptive statistical analysis using SPSS 16.0 |

## Participants

The present study was carried out with the students at Yalova University School of Foreign Languages in the fall semester of the 2017-2018 academic year. In the university, the medium of instruction is English, and it is compulsory for students with little English knowledge to take a year of general English classes. Before students start having classes, they are subject to take an English placement test. The placement test is made of the parts to test students' knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing skills. If students are successful in the English proficiency test, they may continue their education in their departments. However, if they fail, they are obliged to take English language courses for an academic year in School of Foreign Languages. Before taking language classes, students need to take one more test so that they can be correctly placed in the level classes in terms of their level of English. Based on the placement test results, students are placed at A1, A2, B1 and B2 levels based on the CEFR.

All the participants of the study started their language education in the school in A2 level at the beginning of the year. Prior to the research, they passed the A2 level examination given by the school. As a result, all participants took part in the study were assumed to have B1 English proficiency level.

At the beginning of the study, 42 learners, 21 in the experiment and 21 in the control group, participated. Detailed information about the study and procedures were given to the students prior to research, and all participants' informed consents were gained. However, three of the students in the experiment group stopped coming to the reading classes after three weeks. As a result, data collected from these students in the first three weeks were excluded in the analysis. The data collection procedure continued with 18 students in the control group.

**Instruments**

As stated before, a mixed method data collection procedure was implemented in order to triangulate the results of the study. In this way, the validity of the research was desired to be maintained. In addition, different dimensions of CSR instruction could be presented clearly by means of this data collection procedure. In the following subsections, the data collection instruments used in the present study are explained in detail.

**The reading material.** The reading material used in the present study was the student coursebook, Reading Keys 2 New Edition, which was chosen and added to the curriculum by the school management. In order to allow students to keep up with the syllabus and with the classes that were not involved in the study, additional reading texts were not given.

The reading texts in the book were expository and authentic texts which were suitable for B1 level EFL readers. The book has eight themes with two reading texts in each theme. In addition, the sections of the reading texts have been designed in accordance with the pre-while-post reading pattern. In pre-reading, there are prediction and vocabulary instruction parts. For while-reading, pictures, maps, illustrations, and keywords have been presented. In post-reading, various reading comprehension questions and asking-follow up question sections have been given. In this sense, the book was well suited for the use in this research because of the compatibility with CSR instruction. Thus, the students in the control group were favorably trained for reading comprehension even if CSR was not adopted in the teaching procedure. Moreover, the design of the book made it possible to make meaningful comparisons between the control and the experimental group.

**Reading comprehension tests.** Reading comprehension tests are the most widely used tools to evaluate students' reading performance. In many research studies about an educational intervention, students' reading performance has been assessed by using pre- and post-tests. In the present study, to demonstrate the performance differences between the experimental and control groups and the impact of the Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction, a pre- and post-test method was also employed.

Since the coursebook's testing material was used by the school, students had to be measured by other valid tests that are appropriate for the students' current level. In the study, the pre-test and post-test are chosen as different tests because while students' entry level was A2 to B1 at the beginning of the study, students' exit-level was B1 to B2. As a result, using the same test would present unrealistic results. Reading comprehension tests were compiled by making use of a valid test practice book which provides the CEFR level of each reading passage. The reading passages, which were taken from New Matura Solutions, were chosen considering the students' entry and exit levels. The content of these tests was also consistent with the activities that students did in their lessons. The question types include matching, multiple choice questions, and open-ended reading comprehension questions along with open-ended vocabulary questions. These type of questions are also included in the coursebook practice during pre-while and post-reading activities as well as students' quizzes and exams that they take at school. The pre and post comprehension tests used in this study are provided in Appendix-G and Appendix-H.

**The motivation for reading questionnaire (MRQ).** There have been various theories of motivation with their distinct motivational constructs. However, upon seeing that motivational researchers generally investigated the motivational constructs in general instead of a specific area like reading, Wigfield and Guthrie analyzed the literature of general motivation and literacy motivations (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1996).

Being influenced by self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977); expectancy-value theory (Eccles et al., 1983), achievement goal theory (Ames, 1992), social motivation theory (Wentzel, 1989) and intrinsic motivation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), Wigfield and Guthrie (1995; 1996) developed a questionnaire to evaluate these aspects of motivation in reading (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

Motivation for Reading Questionnaire is considered in the field as a well-constructed, theory-based, valid tool which assesses students' motivation towards reading. Although it was originally designed for children's reading motivation in L1, lots of researchers have administered this questionnaire in foreign language teaching research with various learner types (Dhanapala, 2008; Huang, 2013; Kim, 2011; Kusumaningputri, 2017; Marzban & Davaji, 2015; Nishino, 2005; Park, 2015).

The MRQ developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1995; 1996) consists of 53 items in 11 different constructs of reading motivation, which are reading efficacy (3 items), reading challenge (5 items),reading curiosity (6 items), reading involvement (6 items), importance of reading (2 items), reading work avoidance (4 items), competition in reading (6 items), recognition for reading (5 items), reading for grades (4 items), social reasons for reading (7 items) and compliance (5 items). However, in the present study, only 47 items were included since some of the items, for example parental support, were not relevant to the learners in a university setting. The adapted version of the MRQ is given in Appendix-A.

Before implementing the questionnaire, permission was obtained from the developers of the questionnaire. After their approval, all participants in the study answered the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) prior to their reading instruction in order to analyze their motivation at the beginning. They also answered the same questionnaire at the end of the experiment in order to reveal students' motivational differences between CSR instruction and traditional teacher-led instruction. In addition, the students' motivation within the groups before and after the study was aimed to be presented.

While administering the MRQ, the researcher was in the class to assist students in case they had difficulties answering the questionnaire items. Students were given to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire as it was suggested by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997).

**Student participation rubric.** Although assessing participation has a plethora of difficulties, the most widely recognized solution is to use an assessment rubric in order to decrease the ambiguity among the participation grades given by teachers. Rubrics are beneficial since they provide feedback, facilitate communication among teachers and learners, and help them think about their in class study habits (Czekanski & Wolf, 2013). As Stevens and Levi (2005) state, rubrics also identify the expectations and learning goals of the lessons and also "level the playing field" for L2 students. As a result, rubrics provide clear and concrete guidelines both for teachers and students in terms of evaluating class participation (Wright, 2014). Seeing the effectiveness of rubrics for participation, using a participation rubric was found as an ideal tool for this study.

Before the experiment, the best rubric to serve this research was investigated, and it was seen that the rubric which Maznevski (1996) designed would be the one that could contribute most to the investigation. Based on behavioral indicators according to Bloom's taxonomy of learning goals, Maznevski (1996) blueprinted a grading rubric scale of 0-4. As Maznevski (1996) explains, "Participation is graded on a scale from 0 (lowest) through 4 (highest), using the criteria. The criteria focus on what you demonstrate, and do not presume to guess at what you know but do not demonstrate. This is because what you offer to the class is what you and others learn from. I expect the average level of participation to satisfy the criteria for a '3'."

Prior to the experiment, the participation rubric was examined by the two teachers, the researcher and the control group's instructor, who would grade the students in order to reach a standard in given scores. In addition, the rubric was piloted with a different class by these two teachers. Having reached a standard, the rubric was started to be used with the research groups. Students are evaluated by the teachers at the end of each week considering their attendance, their classroom participation and active contribution. Actually, the best way was to evaluate each student after each class. However, the teachers could be overwhelmed by the amount of the instruments that should be used during the study. Implementing CSR and monitoring students, giving students' self-assessment rubrics and filling up participation rubric would be daunting. As a result, it would be more convenient to use the rubric once a week when all reading classes ended. The participation scores were also used to give the students interim feedback in both groups. As a result, the participation rubric had both instrumental and instructive value during the research. The participation rubric used in this research is presented in Appendix-D.

**Collaborative strategic reading questionnaire (CSRQ).** Since students had experience only with traditional teaching methods and Collaborative Strategic Reading was a new method for them, finding out students' ideas about their experiences and perceptions with this new method could verify the results of the study. As claimed by Isen and Reeve (2005), people's interest and enjoyment of a task have a close relation to show intrinsic motivation and engagement. For this reason, data gathered about learners' perceptions might also be helpful to explain the attitudinal or motivational disposition of learners during CSR instruction.

Administering CSR questionnaire among the learners who were in the experimental group could help reveal their ideas about CSR instruction, reading instruction methods (traditional or CSR), the effectiveness of CSR on their reading comprehension, the strategy use with CSR (predicting prior to reading, finding the main ideas, writing a summary, guessing unknown vocabulary etc.). In this sense, the application of the questionnaire gave valuable insights to the researcher.

The questionnaire was adapted from Fan's study entitled "Implementing Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in an EFL Context in Taiwan". Before implementing the questionnaire, an e-mail was sent to the researcher to get permission. The original questionnaire included 33 items; however, three of the questions were excluded in the adapted questionnaire since they did not have relevance to the aim of the present research. The questionnaire used for this study comprised of 30 close-ended questions. In addition, the original questionnaire adopted 5-point Likert scale question format. However, in the adapted version, 4-point scale was used to comply with the MRQ.

The experimental group was given the questionnaires in the classes on the last week of the study. Students answered the questionnaire at the same time and place with the presence of the researcher to give assistance to students in case any ambiguity or misunderstanding might arise. 25 minutes were given to the students to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire used in the study is provided in Appendix-B.

**Students' self-assessment rubric.** As Andrade and Du (2005) state, "rubrics have become popular with teachers as a means of communicating expectations for an assignment, providing focused feedback on works in progress, and grading final products."

According to Andrade (2000), rubrics are beneficial for educational settings for some reasons:

1. They are easy to use.

2. They are practical tools for teaching and assessment.

3. They provide students more informative feedback about the quality of their work.

4. They support the development of skills, understanding and good thinking.

5. They ensure harmony in heterogeneous classes.

Seeing that, the levels in the school are designed according to CEFR levels and the rubric use has lots of benefits, a rubric was constructed for students to assess their reading comprehension during the study.

The rubric was generated based on the combination of the CEFR can-do-statements and the learning objectives of the coursebook. CEFR can-do-statements are adaptable, and each 'can do' descriptor can be applied to identify a learning goal, generate learning activities and materials, and design the assessment tasks (Goodier, 2014). In addition, the rubric created was very much alike with the scales that Bandura suggests. Bandura (2006) emphasizes that scales of perceived self-efficacy should be adapted to the specific object of interest and these scales should be in the format of "can do" not "will do".

Students were introduced to the rubric in the first week before the data collection was started. The aim of the rubric use and how they could assess themselves were practiced after two reading texts. Starting from the second week, each student was given a self-assessment rubric including the objectives of the lesson upon completing every reading text. After the data collection procedure was completed, the rubrics were computed to find out the students' self-beliefs about their achievement of the reading tasks both in the experimental and control group. Although self-assessment scales and rubrics are used to give an individual formative assessment, the intervention of CSR in the study might affect the student perceived self-efficacy, which is student's beliefs about the capabilities to perform a particular task (Bandura, 1994). For this reason, comparing the data could be possible when a statistical analysis carried out. The rubric for reading texts is presented in Appendix-C.

**Data Collection Procedures**

To be able to begin the experiment, Ethics Committee Approval was gained from Hacettepe University. Afterward, the data collection procedure started on November 20, 2017, during the fall semester of the 2017-2018 academic year at Yalova University School of Foreign Languages. Students who began their classes

at the B1 level according to CEFR would take eight weeks of language teaching at that level. The first week of the study was devoted to giving information to the students about the research, taking their informed consents, implementing reading comprehension and the MRQ pre-tests and introducing CSR to the experimental group via two demo lessons.

Prior to the reading classes, the goal of the research was explained to the experimental group so that they could understand the research study that they would take part. In addition, the students in the control group were informed about the study and it was pointed out that their reading motivation, classroom participation, and overall performance would be observed and assessed by reading comprehension tests, the MRQ, and participation rubric. However, the information that there was another class receiving a different type of instruction was not shared with the control group for fear that they would feel they would not get the necessary instruction in their current lessons. Later, each group gave their informed consent prior to the data collection procedure. Students' voluntary participation was maintained and they were given the information that they could leave the experiment at any phase of the research with their own will. It was additionally guaranteed that their identities could not be revealed and the information gathered from them would be confidential.

From the second week onwards, the CSR instruction was given in the experimental group, in which the learners worked in small groups, and in the control group the classes were given according to traditional whole class teaching methods. In this period, students read twelve reading texts in total fifty-six class hours. Additionally, students' participation was observed, and self-assessment rubrics were used by the students for seven weeks. The last reading comprehension classes were done on January 12.

During the exam week, 15-19 January, post-tests of reading comprehension and the MRQ were implemented. Also, students in the experimental group completed CSR instruction questionnaire. The researcher started to analyze the data when the implementation of the instruments was completed.

## Instructional Procedures

**Traditional teacher-led instruction.** The control group in this research study received a traditional whole class teacher-led instruction. In that class, the reading syllabus and coursebook were the same with the experimental group's except that the control group had no opportunity to participate in group tasks and only teacher-student interaction was maintained. The teacher instructed the whole class and selected students could read aloud or answered the comprehension questions. The reading tasks and procedures were intended to be done by students individually. In the present study, the reading comprehension strategies provided by the coursebook were also practiced; however, the strategies other than those were neither explained nor practiced. The teacher followed the book exercise by exercise in pre-while-post reading stages since the tasks in the coursebook incorporated pre-while-post design per se. In pre-reading stage, the students previewed the text and brainstormed some ideas as a class. While reading, the students first read the texts silently, and some students then read a small part of the text aloud to the class. Afterward, the teacher explained the complicated parts about the reading passage, also sometimes resorted to translate some sentences to make the meaning clear. Extra focus on vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation was also provided. In post reading stage, the teacher initiated interaction with the students by asking comprehension questions given by the coursebook and the students needed to generate responses. Students were also given individual corrective feedback by the teacher when necessary.

**Collaborative strategic reading instruction.** As previously mentioned, the experimental group received Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction. In the first week of the experiment, the teacher spent 8 class hours to demonstrate CSR and give explicit explanation on the use of reading comprehension strategies via learning logs so that the students could apply those strategies correctly and comfortably in following weeks. After the students grasped why, when, and how to apply these strategies, they were divided into heterogeneous groups of 4 or 5 members. CSR group roles and cue cards were then presented since every student needed to take a key role, which were leader, clunk expert, gist expert, announcer, encourager and time keeper. Student roles were also modelled by the teacher and the students practiced the roles via cue cards. During the implementation, the students chose the

roles they wanted to adopt for every reading task and sometimes they might have more than one role. The group members remained unchanged throughout CSR implementation; however, the roles were swapped for each reading task to give the students opportunities to experience different responsibilities.

Before starting each CSR application, the teacher needed to be sure that each student belonged to a group, chose a role with a cue card and had a learning log (see Appendix-E) for that particular reading task. CSR instruction complied with pre-while-post reading stages with the implementation of specific reading strategies given in learning logs. In pre reading stage, the teacher stated the topic of the reading task and direct students attention to textual features such as titles, headings, pictures to brainstorm. Students wrote their ideas in their learning logs and discussed what they had already known as a group. Then, the teacher called for group ideas. After that students wrote their predictions about what they would learn in that particular reading and they discussed their opinions as a group. At the end of this stage, the teacher might present important vocabulary and concepts when needed.

In while reading stage, the leader of the group invited students to read the text silently or as a group. While reading, the students individually monitored their comprehension and identified the words or parts which hindered their own comprehension. After reading the text, the students in groups discussed any words or ideas that they do not understand. In this phase, with the guidance of the clunk expert, students as a group used four fix up strategies to discuss, guess and figure out the confusing or unfamiliar words or sentences. In this phase, the teacher's role was to circulate among groups, facilitate group discussions and provide assistance and feedback whenever necessary. When students fully comprehended the text, gist experts in the groups invited their peers to identify the most important idea in the text. After each student wrote their ideas in their logs, the groups discussed about the gist and wrote a main idea as a group. Next, the gist experts presented the main idea of the group to whole class.

In post reading stage, the students generated questions about the text and wrote them in their learning logs. During students were phrasing their questions, the teacher offered guidance when students needed. Later, the students asked and answered the questions within the groups. The process was managed by the

announcers in the groups. Those students called the names of the group members to ensure that each student posed and responded to the student-made questions. Additionally, students answered the comprehension questions given in the coursebook. Finally, students wrote the most important ideas in the reading text as short summary and they shared their ideas within the groups. The encouragers in the groups were active in all reading stages, yet they provided constructive feedback to the group members and offered some recommendations for improved collaborative study in upcoming reading tasks. Next, the teacher led a whole class study to check understanding, do wrap-up and provide feedback.

**Data Analysis**

To improve the reliability and validity of the research, a pilot study was carried out in 2016-2017 academic year spring semester. The purpose of the pilot study was to pre-test the instruments, make the necessary adjustments when needed, develop an interrater reliability for rubrics, estimate the problems that might occur when applying CSR, and find solutions to the problems before the actual implementation of the study.

Some of the instruments used in the study were designed and tested by other researchers, so their validity and reliability had already been maintained. To illustrate, Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) declare that the reliability of the Motivations for Reading Questionnaire in all dimensions is ranging from .43 to .81. In addition, CSRQ was evaluated in the pilot study and the research study conducted by Fan (2009). The comprehension tests were also taken from a coursebook, so their validity and reliability were assured by the publishers. In the present research, descriptive statistical analysis was used to examine the data gathered from CSRQ.

Although some instruments in the study was designed by other researchers and their reliabilities were computed before, the students' self-assessment rubric was designed by the researcher. For this reason, internal consistency reliability of the rubric ought to be measured by using Cronbach's alpha. According to Nunnally (1978) the level is offered to have a minimum of 0.7. In the pilot study, the self-assessment rubric was found to have a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported of 0.9, which indicates a strong internal consistency. In addition, before the experiment, the participation rubric was piloted by two teachers, the researcher and the control

group's instructor, to attain standardization and reliability. During the pilot study, teachers worked in great cooperation to reach interrater reliability. At the end of the pilot study, reliability statistics demonstrated that participation rubric has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported of 0.8.

It was important that the participants in the experimental and control groups ought to be in equivalent levels in terms of their reading performance (achievement test results) and motivation at the beginning of the experimentation so that it would be possible to compare the data. In order to find out whether they were equal at the beginning of the research, their pre-test (both reading comprehension and the MRQ) results were compared using independent t-test. As for the statistical analysis of reading comprehension tests, the MRQ, participation rubric and self-assessment rubric, paired sampled t-test was run to explain the differences between the two groups.

**Conclusion**

In this chapter, initially, the design of the research was presented. Afterwards, the participants, the instruments applied in the study, the data collection procedures and the analysis were portrayed in detail. In the following chapter, the results of data analysis will be examined and discussed.

# Chapter 4

## Findings and Discussion

### Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to report the data collected from the current study and to present the findings of the data analysis according to the four research questions. Data analysis is carried out in four phases. In the first phase, data is cleaned through descriptive statistics. In the second phase, inferential statistics is undertaken to address the research questions. Lastly, descriptive analysis of the students' CSRQ answers is presented. Following the data analysis, the findings are discussed and interpreted thoroughly. The chapter ends with a concluding section which compiles the important findings.

### Data Cleaning

Prior to the inferential statistics for the research questions, data cleaning procedures were undertaken in order to analyze wrong entered data or missing data, and outliers and normal distribution of the variables. Firstly, the frequencies of each of the variables were examined to investigate whether there were wrong entered data and missing cases in the data set. This process is necessary because wrong entered data may cause to violate normal distribution and also obtain wrong results, or missing cases may influence further analysis to be done for the same research questions. The analyses of frequencies resulted in no wrong entered and missing cases. Secondly, normal distribution of the variables (especially total scores of the achievement test, motivation test and also their dimensions) and any situations violating normal distribution were examined through checking skewness and kurtosis of each total scores of achievement, motivation and their dimensions. Tabacknick and Fidell (2013) asserted that if skewness and kurtosis values fall in the range of -1.5 and +1.5, normal distribution could be assured. In the same subject, George and Mallery (2013) accepted the criteria of the interval between -2.0 and +2.0 for normal distribution, and Kim (2013) accepted the interval between -1.96 and +1.96. In the present study, skewness and kurtosis value of the selected variables were found to fall in the criteria -1.5 and +1.5 referring that the assumption of normal distribution was assured for the variables. This result indicates that one of

the crucial assumptions behind the parametric tests was ensured, and thus parametric tests were decided to perform to respond the research questions. Thirdly, other descriptive statistics were used to assess the outliers within the data set. Considering the criteria of the interval between -3.29 and +3.29, selected variables (given above) were standardized and then these standardized values were examined whether they fell in the given criteria. It was observed that there was not any case out of the given criteria, which means no outliers among the cases. This was also supported with the box plot which was run for assessing outliers and confirming the previous result.

In addition to data cleaning procedures, whether the students in the experimental and control group are equivalent in terms of reading performance (achievement test results) and motivation, pre-test results were compared using an independent t-test. Participants in the experimental and control group were observed to be equivalent regarding both reading performance [t (37) = 0.48, *p* > 0.05] and motivation score [t (37) = 1.42, *p* > 0.05]. No significant difference was noticed between the experimental and control groups regarding these independent variables. Assuring normal distribution of the variables and equivalence between the groups encouraged the researcher to run parametric tests (specifically t-test and correlation).

## The Effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading Instruction on Reading Motivation

In order to measure the effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction on Turkish adult students' motivation during reading activities, a paired sampled t-test was performed by comparing pre-test and post-test results of the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire across the control and experimental groups. The t-test result was found to be significant, [t (38) = -2.21, *p* < 0.05]. The result indicated that students' post-test motivation mean score (M=136.64, SD=17.01) was significantly greater than pre-test motivation mean score (M=129.05, SD=13.27). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be .35 indicating small effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. All these results refer that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention affects the development of motivation toward reading with small effect size.

The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire includes a scale of 11 dimensions of motivation to assess students' motivation in the reading activities. The same procedures were also done for the total score of each of the dimensions of the motivation scale so as to find out the effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading on these dimensions. The paired samples t-test results were given in Table 3. The effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading was found to be statistically significant for only four dimensions. Even though a difference between pre-test and post-test scores was observed, these differences were not significant, and the effect of the intervention was insignificant for seven dimensions.

Table 3

*Paired Samples T-test Results for the Dimensions of Motivation Scale*

| Dimension | Test | Mean | SD | t-test result |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading Efficacy | Pre-test | 8.15 | 1.69 | $t(38) = -1.86$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 8.92 | 2.06 | |
| Reading Challenge | Pre-test | 14.26 | 2.30 | $t(38) = -0.531$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 14.53 | 2.59 | |
| Reading Curiosity | Pre-test | 19.25 | 2.42 | $t(38) = 0.820$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 18.69 | 2.91 | |
| Reading Involvement | Pre-test | 18.36 | 2.43 | $t(38) = 0.00$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 18.36 | 2.09 | |
| Importance of Reading* | Pre-test | 7.82 | 1.91 | $t(38) = -3.504$, $p < 0.05$, |
| | Post-test | 9.17 | 1.97 | Cohen's d = - 0.56 |
| Reading Work Avoidance | Pre-test | 9.56 | 2.27 | $t(38) = 0.653$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 9.23 | 2.32 | |
| Competition in Reading* | Pre-test | 13.33 | 2.61 | $t(38) = -2.618$, $p < 0.05$, |
| | Post-test | 14.59 | 2.40 | Cohen's d = - 0.42 |
| Recognition in Reading* | Pre-test | 12.15 | 3.18 | $t(38) = -3.86$, $p < 0.05$, |
| | Post-test | 14.69 | 2.99 | Cohen's d = - 0.62 |
| Reading for Grades | Pre-test | 8.28 | 1.82 | $t(38) = -1.88$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 8.74 | 1.58 | |
| Social Reasons for Reading | Pre-test | 5.28 | 1.53 | $t(38) = -1.82$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Post-test | 5.92 | 1.58 | |
| Compliance* | Pre-test | 12.69 | 2.57 | $t(38) = -2.47$, $p < 0.05$, |
| | Post-test | 13.77 | 2.73 | Cohen's d = - 0.39 |

\* The difference between pre-test and post-test was significant at 0.05 significance level.

The paired samples t-test for the dimension of "*Reading Efficacy*" was found to be insignificant, [t (38) = -1.86, *p* > 0.05]. Even though students' post-test mean score in "*Reading Efficacy*" (M=8.92, SD=2.06) was greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=8.15, SD=1.69), the difference was not fairly significant. The result refers that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention did not significantly affect the development of "*Reading Efficacy*."

Pre-test and post-test paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Reading Challenge*" was found to be insignificant, [t (38) = -0.531, *p* > 0.05]. Even though students' post-test mean score in "*Reading Challenge*" (M=14.53, SD=2.59) was greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=14.26, SD=2.30), the difference was not highly significant. The result refers that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention did not significantly affect the development of "*Reading Challenge*."

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Reading Curiosity*" was insignificant, [t (38) = 0.820, *p* > 0.05]. Since students' post-test mean score in "*Reading Curiosity*" (M=18.69, SD=2.59) was found to be smaller than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=19.25, SD=2.30), the difference was not significant. The result points out that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an intervention did not significantly affect the development of "*Reading Curiosity*" and students' score in this dimension decreased from pre-test to post-test.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Reading Involvement*" was insignificant, [t (38) = 0.00, *p* > 0.05]. Students' post-test mean score in "*Reading Involvement*" (M=18.36, SD=2.43) was the same as pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=18.36, SD=2.09).Therefore, no difference could be said to be observed. The result shows that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention did not significantly affect the development of "*Reading Involvement,*" and students' score did not change from pre-test to post-test.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Importance of Reading*" was significant, [t (38) = -3.504, *p* < 0.05]. The result indicated that students' post-test mean score in "Importance of Reading" (M=9.17, SD=1.97) was significantly greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=7.82, SD=1.91). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be - 0.56 indicating

a medium effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. The result means that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an intervention has a significant impact on the development of "Importance of Reading" with a medium size.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Reading Work Avoidance*" was found to be insignificant, [t (38) = 0.653, *p* > 0.05]. Since students' post-test mean score in "*Reading Work Avoidance*" (M=9.23, SD=2.32) was smaller than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=9.56, SD=2.27), the difference was not significant. The result suggests that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention did not significantly affect the development of "*Reading Work Avoidance,*" and students' score in this dimension decreased from pre-test to post-test.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Competition in Reading*" was significant, [t (38) = -2.618, *p* < 0.05]. The result indicated that students' post-test mean score in "*Competition in Reading*" (M=14.59, SD=2.40) was significantly greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=13.33, SD=2.61). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be -0.42 indicating higher than a small-medium size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. The result demonstrates that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention significantly affects the development of "*Competition in Reading*" with higher than a small effect size.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Recognition in Reading*" was found to be significant, [t (38) = -3.86, *p* < 0.05]. The result indicated that students' post-test mean score in "*Recognition in Reading*" (M=14.69, SD=2.99) was significantly greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=12.15, SD=3.18). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be -0.62 indicating a medium effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. The result refers that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an intervention significantly influences the development of "*Recognition in Reading*" with higher than medium effect size.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Reading for Grades*" was insignificant, [t (38) = -1.88, *p* > 0.05]. Even though students' post-test mean score in "*Reading for Grades*" (M=8.74, SD=1.58) was greater than pre-test mean

score in the same dimension (M=8.28, SD=1.82), the difference was not relatively significant. The result indicates that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an intervention did not significantly affect the development of "*Reading for Grades.*"

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Social Reasons for Reading*" was found to be insignificant, [t (38) = -1.82, $p > 0.05$]. Even though students' post-test mean score in "*Social Reasons for Reading*" (M=5.92, SD=1.58) was greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=5.28, SD=1.53), the difference was not significant. The result refers that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an instructional intervention did not significantly influence the development of "*Social Reasons for Reading.*"

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Compliance*" was relatively significant, [t (38) = -2.47, $p < 0.05$]. The result indicated that students' post-test mean score in "*Compliance*" (M=13.77, SD=2.73) was significantly greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=12.69, SD=2.57). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be -0.39 indicating small effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. The result suggests that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an instructional intervention significantly influences the development of "*Compliance*" with a small effect size.

**The relationship between pre-test post-test motivation mean score for the experimental group.** In order to investigate the relationship between pre-test and post-test motivation (overall scale) mean score for the experimental group, the bi-variate correlation was performed between two scores. The relationship between pre-test motivation score and post-test motivation score was found to be significant, [$r$ (21) = .567, $p < 0.05$], referring that the higher the pre-test motivation score is, the higher the post-test motivation score will be. Alternatively, this result can also suggest that pre-test motivation score can be an indicator of post-test motivation score.

**The relationship between pre-test and post-test motivation mean score for the control group**. In order to investigate the relationship between pre-test and post-test motivation (overall scale) mean score for the control group, the bi-variate correlation was performed between two scores. The relationship between pre-test motivation score and post-test motivation score was found to be insignificant, [$r$ (18)

= .06, *p* > 0.05], referring that the relationship between the scores obtained from the same instrument, but in different administrations was not significant.

## The Effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading Instruction on Reading Performance

In order to discover the effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction on Turkish adult students' reading performance, a paired samples t-test was run by comparing pre-test and post-test results across the control and experimental groups. The t-test result was found to be insignificant, [t (38) = -1.92, *p* > 0.05 (*p* = 0.062)]. Even though students' post-test "Reading Performance" mean score (M=12.95, SD=4.87) was greater than pre-test mean score (M=11.46, SD=5.1), the difference was not fairly significant. However, the significance level of 0.062 is so close to 0.05 (%95 confidence interval), which was determined as to be significance criteria. Besides, pre-test and post-test results were compared by using a paired sample t-test for the dimensions of the reading performance. Interestingly, despite the insignificant results for overall reading performance, the pre-test and post-test comparison was statistically significant in two dimensions of the reading performance. The results are given in Table 4.

Table 4

*Paired Samples T-test Results for the Dimensions of Reading Performance*

| Dimensions | Test | M | SD | t-test |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Summary* | Pre-test | 0.36 | 0.48 | t (38) = -2.04, *p* < 0.05, |
| | Post-test | 0.59 | 0.49 | Cohen's d = -0.33 |
| Comprehension | Pre-test | 7.02 | 3.04 | t (38) = 0.91, *p* > 0.05 |
| | Post-test | 6.67 | 2.08 | |
| Vocabulary* | Pre-test | 4.28 | 2.28 | t (38) = -2.89, *p* < 0.05, |
| | Post-test | 5.72 | 2.99 | Cohen's d = -0.46 |

* The difference between pre-test and post-test was significant at 0.05 significance level.

Pre-test and post-test comparison using a paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Summary*" was significant, [t (38) = -2.04, *p* < 0.05]. The result indicated that students' post-test mean score in "*Summary*" (M=0.59, SD=0.49) was significantly greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=0.36, SD=0.48). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be -0.33 indicating small effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. The results

refer that Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction as an intervention significantly affects the development of the reading performance in relation to "*Summary*" with a small effect size.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Comprehension*" was insignificant, [t (38) = 0.91, *p* > 0.05]. Interestingly, students' post-test mean score in "*Comprehension*" (M=6.72, SD=2.08) was smaller than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=7.02, SD=3.04). The result points out that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an intervention did not significantly influence the development of the reading performance in relation to "*Comprehension*" and students' score in this dimension decreased from pre-test to post-test.

The paired samples t-test result for the dimension of "*Vocabulary*" was significant, [t (38) = -2.89, *p* < 0.05]. The result indicated that students' post-test mean score in "*Vocabulary*" (M=5.72, SD=2.99) was significantly greater than pre-test mean score in the same dimension (M=4.28, SD=2.28). The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be -0.46 indicating more than a small effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008) of intervention. The result refers that Collaborative Strategic Reading as an intervention significantly affects the development of the reading performance in relation to "*Vocabulary*" with more than a small effect size.

It is prerequisite that both groups have equal performance levels before the research for to more clearly demonstrate the difference in performance between the two groups and to accurately explain the impact of CSR on reading performance. Hence, an independent samples t-test was performed to compare the pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups for total reading performance and also for sub-dimensions of reading performance. As presented in Table 5, the t-test results for each of the sub-dimensions and total reading performance was not significant at 0.05 significance level [for the dimension of summary, t (37) = 0.352, *p* = 0.727; for the dimension comprehension t (37) = 0.580, *p* = 0.565; for the dimension of vocabulary t (37) = 0.830, *p* = 0.412; and for total reading score t (37) = 0.479, *p* = 0.635]. These results put forth that the students in both groups did not differ in terms of reading performance and were assumed to be equal in terms of such performance at the beginning of the experimentation.

Table 5

*Independent Samples T-test Results between Control and Experimental Groups for Reading Performance Pre-test Scores*

| Dimensions | Group | M | SD | t-test |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Summary | Control | 0.38 | 0.50 | t (37) = 0.352, *p* = 0.727 |
| | Experimental | 0.33 | 0.48 | |
| Comprehension | Control | 7.33 | 2.61 | t (37) = 0.580, *p* = 0.565 |
| | Experimental | 6.76 | 3.40 | |
| Vocabulary | Control | 4.61 | 2.32 | t (37) = 0.830, *p* = 0.412 |
| | Experimental | 4.00 | 2.25 | |
| Total score | Control | 11.88 | 5.14 | t (37) = 0.479, *p* = 0.635 |
| | Experimental | 11.09 | 5.17 | |

Likewise, upon completion of CSR intervention, an independent samples t-test was performed to emphasize whether there was a significant difference in reading performance of the participants in the control and experimental groups in terms' of students' post-test scores in the reading test. The results obtained by the independent samples t-test are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

*Independent Samples T-test Results between Control and Experimental Groups for Reading Performance Post-test Scores*

| Dimensions | Group | M | SD | t-test |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Summary | Control | 0.38 | 0.50 | t (37) = -2.484, *p* < 0.05 |
| | Experimental | 0.76 | 0.43 | Cohen's *d* = 0.81 |
| Comprehension | Control | 5.77 | 2.07 | t (37) = -2.659, *p* < 0.05 |
| | Experimental | 7.42 | 1.80 | Cohen's *d* = 0.85 |
| Vocabulary | Control | 4.88 | 2.54 | t (37) = -1.638, *p* = 0.11 |
| | Experimental | 6.42 | 3.21 | |
| Total score | Control | 11.00 | 4.45 | t (37) = -2.465, *p* < 0.05 |
| | Experimental | 14.61 | 4.66 | Cohen's *d* = 0.79 |

As for the dimension of *summary*, the post-test score of the students in the experimental group (M=0.76, SD=0.43) was significantly greater than that of the students in the control group (M=0.38, SD=0.5) and the difference between the groups was statistically significant [t (37) = -2.484, *p* < 0.05, Cohen's *d* = 0.81]. The

standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be 0.81 indicating a high effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008). All these results refer that the students in experimental group performed higher in the post-test of "*summary*" when compared with students in control group after intervention.

As for the dimension of *comprehension*, the post-test score of the students in the experimental group (M=7.42, SD=1.80) was significantly greater than that of the students in the control group (M=5.77, SD=2.07) and the difference between the groups was statistically significant [t (37) = -2.659, *p* < 0.05, Cohen's *d* = 0.85]. The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be 0.85 indicating high effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008). All these results imply that the students in the experimental group performed higher in the post-test of "*comprehension*" when compared with the students in the control group after the intervention.

As for the dimension of *vocabulary*, although the post-test score of the students in the experimental group (M=6.42, SD=3.21) was greater than that of the students in the control group (M=4.88, SD=2.54), the difference between the groups was not statistically significant [t (37) = -1.638, *p* = 0.11]. This result refers that students' post-test performance of vocabulary in the experimental group did not differ from the students in the control group.

As for *total reading performance*, the post-test score of the students in the experimental group (M=14.61, SD=4.66) was significantly greater than that of the students in the control group (M=11.00, SD=4.45) and the difference between the groups was statistically significant [t (37) = -2.465, *p* < 0.05, Cohen's *d* = 0.79] The standardized effect size index, Cohen's d, was calculated as to be 0.79 indicating a medium effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008). All these results demonstrate that students in the experimental group performed higher in the post-test of "*total reading performance*" when compared with the students in the control group after the intervention.

**The relationship between reading performance and motivation in pre-test and post-test administration.** In order to investigate the relationship among pre-test and post-test reading performance and pre-test and post-test motivation scores, correlation coefficients were computed among these four variables. The

results of the correlation analyses presented in Table 7 indicate that only one out of the six correlations was statistically significant.

Table 7

*Correlation Coefficient among Pre-test Post-test Reading Performance and Motivation Score*

|  | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-test reading performance (1) | .531** | .118 | -.07 |
| Post-test reading performance (2) | - | .016 | .308 |
| Pre-test motivation score (3) |  | - | .01 |
| Post-test motivation score (4) |  |  | - |

** The relationship is significant at 0.01 significance level

The relationship between pre-test reading performance and post-test reading performance was significant, [$r$ (39) = 0.531, $p$ < 0.05]. The correlation coefficient of this relationship could be interpreted as large coefficient and %28.1 of the variance (0.531$^2$) of post-test reading performance could be attributed to pre-test reading performance. The correlations of pre-test reading performance with pre-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = 0.118, $p$ > 0.05], with post-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = -0.07, $p$ > 0.05]. The correlations of post-test reading performance with pre-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = 0.016, $p$ > 0.05], with post-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = 0.308, $p$ > 0.05]. Also, the correlation of pre-test motivation score with post-test motivation score [$r$ (39) = 0.01, $p$ > 0.05] tended to be lower and not significant.

Similar procedures were performed for the experimental and control groups separately in order to calculate the correlation coefficient of the relationship among the variables above. The results of correlation analyses presented in Table 8 indicate that only one out of the six correlations was statistically significant for the control group and two out of six correlations was statistically significant for the experimental group.

Table 8

*Correlation Coefficient among Pre-test Post-test Reading Performance and Motivation Score (Experimental and Control Group)*

|  | Group | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-test reading performance (1) | Control | .672** | .443 | -.142 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Experimental | .555** | -.066 | .122 |
| Post-test reading performance (2) | Control | - | .295 | .051 |
| | Experimental | - | .028 | -.052 |
| Pre-test motivation score (3) | Control | | - | .06 |
| | Experimental | | - | .567** |
| Post-test motivation score (4) | Control | | | - |
| | Experimental | | | - |

** the relationship is significant at 0.01 significance level

As for the control group, the relationship between pre-test reading performance and post-test reading performance was significant, [$r$ (39) = 0.672, $p <$ 0.05]. The correlation coefficient of this relationship could be interpreted as a large coefficient and %45.1 of the variance ($0.672^2$) of post-test reading performance could be attributed to pre-test reading performance. On the other hand, the correlations of pre-test reading performance with pre-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = 0.443, $p >$ 0.05], with pre-test motivation score of [$r$ (39) = -0.142, $p >$ 0.05]. The correlations of post-test reading performance with post-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = 0.295, $p >$ 0.05], with post-test motivation score of [$r$ (39) = 0.051, $p >$ 0.05]. Also, the correlation of pre-test motivation score with post-test motivation score [$r$ (39) = 0.06, $p >$ 0.05] tended to be lower and not significant.

As for the experimental group, the relationship between pre-test reading performance and post-test reading performance was significant, [$r$ (39) = 0.555, $p <$ 0.05]. The correlation coefficient of this relationship could be interpreted as a large coefficient and %30.8 of the variance ($0.555^2$) of post-test reading performance could be attributed to pre-test reading performance. Furthermore, the relationship between pre-test motivation score and post-test motivation score was significant, [$r$ (39) = 0.567, $p <$ 0.05]. The correlation coefficient of this relationship could be interpreted as a large coefficient and %32.1 of the variance ($0.567^2$) of post-test motivation score could be attributed to pre-test motivation score. On the other hand, the correlations of pre-test reading performance with pre-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = -0.066, $p >$ 0.05], with post-test motivation score of [$r$ (39) = 0.122, $p >$ 0.05]. The correlations of post-test reading performance with pre-test motivation score was [$r$ (39) = 0.028, $p >$ 0.05.] and with post-test motivation score of [$r$ (39) = - 0.052, $p >$ 0.05].

**Comparison of Students' Participation in the Class During Reading Activities in the Experimental And Control Groups**

To investigate the differences of students' participation (including attendance, willingness to take part in the instructional activities and contribution to the pace of classroom instruction) in class activities between the experimental group and control group, an independent sample t-test was run for each week of students' participation. The result of t-test analyses presented in Table 9 demonstrated that students' participation in class activities significantly varied in both groups in six weeks out of seven weeks observed.

Table 9

*Comparison of Students' Participation in Classroom Activities in the Experimental and Control Group (T-test Results)*

| Week | Group | M | SD | t-test |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Week 2* | Control | 1.83 | 1.15 | $t(37) = -3.48$, $p < 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 2.85 | 0.65 | |
| Week 3 | Control | 2.22 | 1.17 | $t(37) = -0.35$, $p > 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 2.33 | 0.79 | |
| Week 4* | Control | 1.94 | 0.99 | $t(37) = -3.29$, $p < 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 2.85 | 0.73 | |
| Week 5* | Control | 1.61 | 0.78 | $t(37) = -6.95$, $p < 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 3.38 | 0.80 | |
| Week 6* | Control | 1.61 | 0.61 | $t(37) = -11.34$, $p < 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 3.62 | 0.49 | |
| Week 7* | Control | 1.89 | 0.76 | $t(37) = -7.51$, $p < 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 3.52 | 0.60 | |
| Week 8* | Control | 1.44 | 0.86 | $t(37) = -8.49$, $p < 0.05$ |
| | Experimental | 3.43 | 0.59 | |

* The difference between the experimental and control groups was significant at 0.05 significance level.

Students' participation in the class was started to be observed in the second week of the experimentation. Students' participation varied in both groups, which was also reflected in t-test results. Except "Week – 3", in all weeks that students were observed during the experimentation, those who were in the experimental group showed increased participation in the class compared with the students in the control group.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 2" was significant, [t (37) = -3.48, $p < 0.05$]. The result indicated that the students in the experimental group (M=2.85, SD=0.65) demonstrated significantly higher participation in class than the students in the control group (M=1.83, SD=1.15). This significant comparison means that the students in the experimental group showed higher attendance, greater willingness to participate in the class and more contribution to the class activities in week-2.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 3" was found to be insignificant, [t (37) = -0.35, $p > 0.05$]. The result showed that even though the students in the experimental group (M=2.33, SD=0.79) demonstrated a little bit higher participation than the students in the control group (M=2.22, SD=1.17), the difference was not highly significant in week-3.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 4" was significant, [t (37) = -3.29, $p < 0.05$]. The result indicated that the students in the experimental group (M=2.85, SD=0.73) demonstrated significantly higher participation in class than the students in the control group (M=1.94, SD=0.99). This meaningful comparison means that the students in the experimental group attended classes more and had greater willingness to participate in tasks in week-4.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 5" was significant, [t (37) = -6.95, $p < 0.05$]. The result indicated that the students in the experimental group (M=3.38, SD=0.80) demonstrated significantly higher participation in class than the students in the control group (M=1.61, SD=0.78). This significant comparison means that the students in the experimental group showed higher attendance, greater willingness to participate in the class and more contribution to the class activities in week-5.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 6" was significant, [t (37) = -11.34, $p < 0.05$]. The result indicated that the students in the experimental group

(M=3.62, SD=0.49) demonstrated significantly higher participation in class than the students in the control group (M=1.61, SD=0.61). This significant comparison means that the students in the experimental group contributed to the class tasks more and showed greater enthusiasm to participate in week-6.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 7" was significant, [t (37) = -7.51, $p < 0.05$]. The result demonstrated that the students in the experimental group (M=3.52, SD=0.60) demonstrated significantly higher participation in class than the students in the control group (M=1.89, SD=0.76). This significant comparison indicates that the students in the experimental group showed higher attendance, greater willingness to participate in the class and more contribution to the class activities in week-7.

The comparison of students' participation in the experimental and control groups using independent sample t-test for "Week – 8" was significant, [t (37) = -8.49, $p < 0.05$]. The result showed that the students in the experimental group (M=3.43, SD=0.59) demonstrated significantly higher participation in class than the students in the control group (M=1.44, SD=0.86). This significant comparison demonstrates that the students in the experimental group showed higher attendance and more contribution to the class tasks in week-8.

**Students' participation through the intervention.** In order to examine how students' participation changed through week-2 to week-8, a line graph was drawn by considering their mean scores of participation in the classes. Students' participation in both experimental and control groups shown in the graph indicated that the students in the experimental group (which had Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction) demonstrated increased participation throughout the experimentation.

| | WEEK2 | WEEK3 | WEEK4 | WEEK5 | WEEK6 | WEEK7 | WEEK8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CONTROL | 1.83 | 2.22 | 1.94 | 1.61 | 1.61 | 1.89 | 1.42 |
| EXPERIMENTAL | 2.85 | 2.33 | 2.85 | 3.38 | 3.62 | 3.52 | 3.43 |
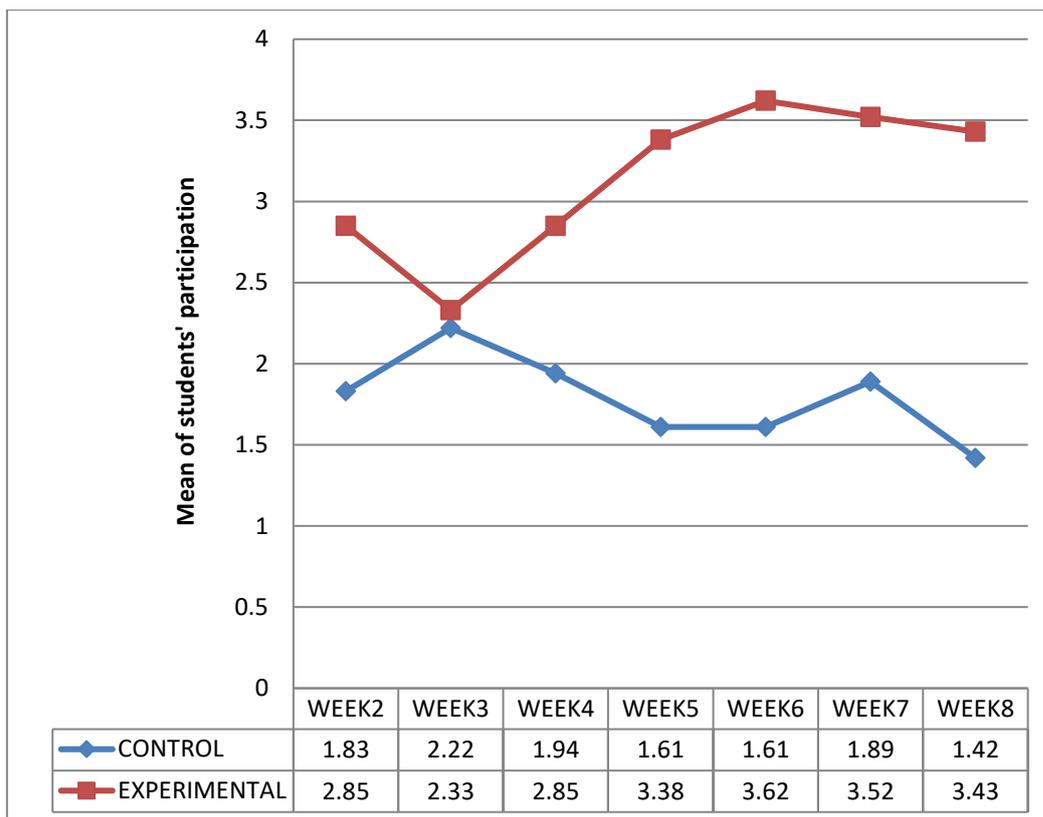
*Figure 1.* Students' weekly participation in classes

Even though their participation increased from week 2 to week 8 in general, some decreases were observed in week 3, and a little decrease in week 7 and week 8. By contrast, learners' participation in the control group (traditional teaching) decreased throughout the experimentation. In general, those in the control group demonstrated lower level of participation during the study. Very little increase was observed in week 3 and week 7, but this increase was not at a considerable level.

**The Relationship Among Reading Performance, Motivation Score and Weekly Participation in the Class**

In order to investigate the relationship among post-test reading performance score, post-test motivation score and the mean of students' weekly participation in classes, the correlation coefficient was computed among these three variables for both experimental and control groups. The results of correlation analyses presented in Table 10 indicate that only one out of the six correlations was statistically significant.

Table 10

*Correlation Coefficient among Post-test Reading Performance Score, Post-test Motivation Score and the Mean of Students' Weekly Participation*

| Variable | Group | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Post-test reading performance (1) | Control | - | 0.051 | 0.637** |
| | Experimental | - | -0.052 | 0.294 |
| Post-test motivation score (2) | Control | | - | 0.281 |
| | Experimental | | - | -0.343 |
| students' weekly participation (3) | Control | | | - |
| | Experimental | | | - |

As for the control group, the relationship between post-test reading performance and students' weekly participation was significant, $[r\,(18) = 0.637, p < 0.05]$. The correlation coefficient of this relationship could be interpreted as a large coefficient, and %40.5 of the variance $(0.637^2)$ of post-test reading performance could be attributed to students' weekly participation. This significant correlation refers that the more students demonstrate reading performance, the more they participate in the classes. On the contrary, the relationship between post-test reading performance and post-test motivation score was insignificant, $[r\,(18) = 0.051, p > 0.05]$, and also the relationship between post-test motivation score and students' weekly participation was insignificant, $[r\,(18) = 0.281, p > 0.05]$.

As for the experimental group, none of the relationship was found to be significant. The insignificant relationship was between post-test reading performance and post-test motivation score, $[r\,(21) = -0.052, p > 0.05]$, between post-test reading performance and students' weekly participation, $[r\,(21) = 0.294, p > 0.05]$, and between post-test motivation score and students' weekly participation, $r\,(18) = -0.343, p > 0.05]$.

**Students' Self-Assessment Rubric Scores**

Participants' self-perception of reading was assessed through the use of rubrics in seven of eight weeks. In the first week, the students were informed about the rubrics and how the self-assessment would be done through using the rubrics. In the following weeks, students were required to assess themselves upon

completing the reading passages given to them. Two reading passages were given in the weeks of 3 to 6 and one reading passage in the remaining weeks.

After each reading passage, the students were given a rubric to assess themselves in terms of how they perceive their performance in the associated reading passage. In order to investigate the differences of students' self-assessment in reading performance between the experimental and control groups, an independent samples t-test was performed for each of the reading assessment week-by-week. The results of t-test analyses given in Table 11 show that students' self-assessment in reading performance significantly differed in the experimental and control groups in all of these weeks, but the difference was not significant only in the fourth week after the second reading passage.

Table 11

*Comparison of Students' Self-assessment in the Experimental and Control Groups (T-test Results)*

| Week | Reading Title | Group | M | SD | t-test |
|------|--------------|-------|------|------|--------|
| W2 | Love around the world | Control | 13.72 | 2.82 | $t(37) = -2.91, p < 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 16.14 | 2.37 | |
| | Family matters | Control | 13.50 | 2.41 | $t(37) = -3.94, p < 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 16.33 | 2.08 | |
| W3 | Stars of music | Control | 11.05 | 3.33 | $t(37) = -2.18, p < 0.05$ |
| | | Experimental | 12.86 | 1.65 | |
| | Music and the mind | Control | 10.78 | 1.69 | $t(37) = -4.14, p < 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 12.81 | 1.36 | |
| W4 | What makes you happy? | Control | 12.00 | 2.11 | $t(37) = -3.37, p < 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 14.00 | 1.58 | |
| | Think positive | Control | 12.44 | 2.62 | $t(37) = -1.84, p > 0.05$ |
| | | Experimental | 13.71 | 1.65 | |
| W5 | A career in fashion | Control | 10.67 | 1.88 | $t(37) = -3.91, p < 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 12.86 | 1.62 | |
| | The pressure to look good | Control | 11.39 | 1.68 | $t(37) = -4.12, p > 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 13.62 | 1.69 | |
| W6 | Health and healing | Control | 11.67 | 1.61 | $t(37) = -2.71, p < 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 13.05 | 1.56 | |
| | Staying young | Control | 11.50 | 2.15 | $t(37) = -3.34, p > 0.01$ |
| | | Experimental | 13.52 | 1.63 | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| W7 | Time for a vacation | Control | 11.39 | 2.12 | t (37) = -2.89, *p* < 0.01 |
| | | Experimental | 13.24 | 1.87 | |
| W8 | Great explorers | Control | 11.78 | 1.99 | t (37) = -4.07, *p* < 0.01 |
| | | Experimental | 13.86 | 1.15 | |

The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*family matter*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -3.94, *p* < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=16.33, SD=2.08) assessed their own reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=13.5, SD=2.41). This result represents that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*family matter*" than those in the control group.

***Week 2.*** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "love around the world" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -2.91, p < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=16.14, SD=2.37) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=13.72, SD=2.82). This result implies that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "love around the world" than those in the control group.

***Week 3.*** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*stars of music*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -2.18, *p* < 0.05]. The students in the experimental group (M=12.86, SD=1.65) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=11.05, SD=3.33). This result means that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*stars of music*" than those in the control group.

The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*music and the mind*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -4.14, *p* < 0.01]. The students in experimental group (M=12.81, SD=1.36) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than

those in the control group (M=10.78, SD=1.69). This result indicates that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*music and the mind*" than those in the control group.

***Week 4.*** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*what makes you happy?*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -3.37, $p$ < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=14.00, SD=1.58) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=12.00, SD=2.11). This result demonstrates that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*what makes you happy?*" than those in the control group.

The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*think positive!*" in the experimental and control groups was not significant, [t (37) = -1.84, $p$ > 0.05]. The students in the experimental group (M=13.71, SD=1.64) assessed their reading performance higher than those in the control group (M=12.44, SD=2.62), but the difference was not statistically significant. This result implies that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*think positive!*" than those in the control group, but the intervention did not make any statistically difference.

***Week 5.*** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*a career in fashion*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -3.91, $p$ < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=12.86, SD=1.62) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=10.67, SD=1.88). This result means that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*a career in fashion*" than those in the control group.

The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*the pressure to look good*" in the experimental and

control groups was significant, [t (37) = -4.12, *p* > 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=13.62, SD=1.69) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=11.39, SD=1.68). This result indicates that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*the pressure to look good*" than those in the control group.

**Week 6.** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*health and healing*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -2.71, *p* < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=13.04, SD=1.56) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=11.67, SD=1.61). This result means that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*health and healing*" than those in the control group.

The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*staying young*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -3.34, *p* > 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=13.52, SD=1.63) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=11.50, SD=2.15). This result signifies that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*staying young*" than those in the control group.

**Week 7.** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*time for a vacation*" in the experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -2.89, *p* < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=13.24, SD=1.87) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=11.39, SD=2.12). This result means that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*time for a vacation*" than those in the control group.

**Week 8.** The comparison of students' self-assessment in reading performance after a reading passage on the topic of "*great explorers*" in the

experimental and control groups was significant, [t (37) = -4.07, *p* < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=13.86, SD=1.15) assessed their reading performance significantly higher than those in the control group (M=11.78, SD=1.99). This result shows that the students in the experimental group perceived themselves to have significantly higher reading performance in the reading passage on the topic of "*great explorers*" than those in the control group.

***Comparison of experimental and control group in terms of self-assessment dimensions.*** The self-assessment instrument includes four sub-dimensions, which are prediction, vocabulary use, comprehension strategies and asking follow-up questions, respectively. To uncover the differences of students' self-assessment in reading performance between the experimental and control groups, an independent samples t-test was performed for each of the dimensions. The results of t-test analyses given in Table 12 indicate that students' self-assessment in reading significantly different in the experimental and control groups in all of these dimensions.

Table 12

*Independent Samples T-test Results for the Dimensions of Self-assessment.*

| Dimension | Test | Mean | SD | t-test result |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Prediction | Control | 35.00 | 4.59 | t (37) = -4.083, *p* < 0.01 |
| | Experimental | 40.48 | 3.79 | |
| Vocabulary Use | Control | 17.50 | 2.87 | t (37) = -3.34, *p* < 0.01 |
| | Experimental | 20.14 | 2.06 | |
| Comprehension | Control | 76.11 | 9.75 | t (37) = -4.89, *p* < 0.01 |
| Strategies | Experimental | 89.09 | 6.71 | |
| Asking follow-up questions | Control | 13.28 | 2.58 | t (37) = -4.29, *p* < 0.01 |
| | Experimental | 16.29 | 1.76 | |

***Prediction.*** An independent samples t-test was performed to assess the mean differences between the control and experimental groups in terms of prediction as a sub-dimension of self-assessment in reading performance. The comparison of self-assessment in the experimental and control groups for the dimension of prediction was fairly significant, [t (37) = -4.083, *p* < 0.01]. The students in the experimental group (M=40.48, SD=3.79) assessed themselves significantly higher than those in the control group (M=35.00, SD=4.59). This result means that

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the students in the experimental group demonstrated significantly higher prediction than those in the control group.

*Vocabulary Use.* An independent samples t-test was performed to assess the mean differences between the control and experimental groups in terms of *vocabulary use* as a sub-dimension of self-assessment in reading performance. The comparison of self-assessment in the experimental and control groups for the dimension of vocabulary use was significant, [t (37) = -3.34, $p < 0.01$]. The students in the experimental group (M=20.14, SD=2.06) assessed themselves significantly higher than those in the control group (M=17.50, SD=2.87) in terms of vocabulary use. This result reveals that the students in the experimental group showed significantly higher vocabulary use than those in the control group.

*Comprehension Strategies.* An independent samples t-test was performed to assess the mean differences between the control and experimental group in terms of *comprehension strategies* as a sub-dimension of self-assessment in reading performance. The comparison of self-assessment in the experimental and control groups for the dimension of comprehension was significant, [t (37) = -4.89, $p < 0.01$]. The students in the experimental group (M=89.09, SD=6.71) assessed themselves significantly higher than those in the control group (M=76.11, SD=9.75) in terms of comprehension strategies. This result means that students in the experimental group use comprehension strategies more than the students in the control group.

*Asking follow-up Questions.* An independent samples t-test was performed to assess the mean differences between the control and experimental groups in terms of *asking follow-up strategies* as a sub-dimension of self-assessment in reading performance. The comparison of self-assessment in the experimental and control groups for the dimension of asking follow-up strategies was significant, [t (37) = -4.29, $p < 0.01$]. The students in the experimental group (M=16.29, SD=1.76) assessed themselves significantly higher than those in the control group (M=13.28, SD=2.58) in terms of asking follow-up questions. This result demonstrates that the students in the experimental group asked more follow-up questions than those in the control group.

**Students' Perceptions of Collaborative Strategic Reading Questionnaire Survey**

After CSR instruction, students completed a CSR questionnaire to reflect their perspectives about the intervention. The questionnaire consists of three categories including students' general perceptions of CSR, the students' perceptions of the implementation of CSR, and the impact of CSR on their learning.

As the researcher who developed the questionnaire used, the data was entered into the SPSS version 16.0 statistical package and descriptive findings were uncovered. The data obtained from the questionnaire items was given in, respectively, Table 13, 14, and 15 below.

The first part of the questionnaire comprises students' general perceptions and preferences. On the basis of the data gathered, a large majority of the students expressed that they liked CSR practice (66.7 %).  There are no students who do not like CSR.  In addition, 95% of the students prefer CSR to traditional teaching methods. The results clearly show that the students were satisfied with the collaborative reading method.  Some of the students have stated that they did not show active engagement (14. 3%), although the rate of active engagement is high (85.8 %). Moreover, there was no student saying that she / he does not understand group discussions. Almost all students (90.5 %) agreed that discussing in groups led them to understand better. At the same time, most of the students (90.5%) think that collaborative work contributed to communication skills, but only two students do not agree with this idea. CSR not only improved students' reading comprehension, but also showed them how to work collaboratively (95.3%). Also, according to the students' answers, the students had motivation to CSR application (85.8%). Finally, most of the students thought that CSR is suitable for university level (95.2%).

The findings of this section reveal that greater number of the students express preferences for the collaborative work over teacher-directed instruction.

Table 13

*Students' General Perceptions of CSR Instruction*

| Student Questionnaire Items | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I like CSR in the class. | 0 | 2 | 5 | 14 |
| | 0 % | 9.5 % | 23.8 % | 66.7 % |
| 2. I prefer CSR to traditional large classroom teaching. | 0 | 1 | 9 | 11 |
| | 0 % | 4.8 % | 42.9 % | 52.4% |
| 3. I am actively engaged in group discussions. | 1 | 2 | 9 | 9 |
| | 4.8 % | 9.5 % | 42.9 % | 42.9 % |
| 4. By discussing with my group members, I understand better about what I read. | 0 | 2 | 9 | 10 |
| | 0 % | 9.5 % | 42.9 % | 47,6 % |
| 5. I enhance my communication ability in CSR. | 2 | 0 | 11 | 8 |
| | 9.5 % | 0 % | 52.4 % | 38.1 % |
| 6. I learn how to cooperate with others in CSR. | 0 | 1 | 11 | 9 |
| | 0 % | 4.8 % | 52.4 % | 42.9 % |
| 7. I am self-motivated for learning in CSR. | 0 | 3 | 9 | 9 |
| | 0 % | 14.3 % | 42.9 % | 42,9 % |
| 8. I think it is feasible to implement CSR in the university English class. | 0 | 1 | 10 | 10 |
| | 0 % | 4.8 % | 47.6 % | 47.6 % |

In the second section of the questionnaire, the students were asked about their perceptions of CSR implementation. As specified by the students' responses, majority of the students (90.5 %) acknowledged that the reading materials used in the classroom were appropriate for their current language level. The following four questions concern the role distributions within the group. All students thought that role distribution within the group increases group communication. When the appropriate number of roles was asked, 94 % of the students stated that having four or five different roles were eligible for CSR groups. Likewise, many students had a positive view of changing roles in the groups, although 14.3 percent of students think that student roles in the groups should remain the same. In response to the question of the appropriateness of the number of students in the group, more than half of the students (52.4 %) strongly believed that groups of 4-5 people are of a good size. Furthermore, cue cards had been distributed in CSR groups during the research in order to remind the students the roles in the group and the strategies they should use. When asked if these cards were useful, all students, except one student, made it clear that cue cards helped them understand the CSR procedures. Moreover, the students were asked the effectiveness of the learning logs which students kept the record of their ideas and unknown vocabulary during pre-while-post- reading

process. According to the responses given by the students, 85.8 % of the students stated that learning logs helped them during the reading activities. Reading strategies is one of the basis of the present research and students' perceptions about the strategies used in CSR were also effective on their interest and motivation during CSR implementation. For this reason, the students were asked about the strategies taught by CSR. In answer to this question, all students agreed that reading strategies taught in CSR were useful. Finally, most of the students (85.8 %) thought that CSR is the implementation procedures of CSR were appropriate for their classroom.

Table 14

*Students' Perceptions of CSR Implementation*

| Student Questionnaire Items<br><br>I think | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. The reading materials used in the class are suitable to my level. | 0<br><br>0.0% | 2<br><br>9.5 % | 11<br><br>52.4 % | 8<br><br>38.1% |
| 10. The assigned roles in groups help group discussion. | 0<br><br>0.0% | 0<br><br>0.0% | 8<br><br>38.1 % | 13<br><br>61.9 % |
| 11. It is appropriate to have four/five different roles in a group. | 0<br><br>0.0% | 2<br><br>9.5 % | 9<br><br>42.9 % | 10<br><br>48 % |
| 12. It is appropriate to rotate the roles. | 1<br><br>4.8 % | 2<br><br>9.5 % | 9<br><br>42.9% | 9<br><br>42.9 % |
| 13. It is a good size to have 4-5 people in a group. | 0<br><br>0.0 % | 2<br><br>9.5 % | 8<br><br>38.1 % | 11<br><br>52.4 % |
| 14. Cue cards help me understand the procedures of CSR. | 1<br><br>5 % | 0<br><br>0.0 % | 5<br><br>25.0 % | 14<br><br>70.0 % |
| 15. Learning logs help me keep the record of my English learning. | 0<br><br>0.0 % | 3<br><br>14.3 % | 9<br><br>42.9 % | 9<br><br>42.9 % |
| 16. The reading strategies taught in CSR are useful. | 0<br><br>0.0 % | 0<br><br>0.0 % | 12<br><br>57.0 % | 9<br><br>43.0 % |

| 17. I think the implementation procedures of CSR are appropriate in our classroom. | 0 | 3 | 9 | 9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0.0 % | 14.3 % | 42.9 % | 42.9 % |

The final category of the questionnaire consists of items which can explain the impact of CSR on students' learning in depth. According to the students' responses, all of the students thought that CSR increased their interest in learning English. The vast majority of the students also stated that CSR affected their motivation to read. However, 23.8 % of the students thought that CSR had little effect on their reading concentration, 47.6 % of these students indicated that CSR increased their concentration in some extent and 29.0% of the students believed that they showed more concentration in reading with CSR. In the remaining part of the questionnaire, questions about reading strategies were covered. Nearly all students (95.7%) agreed that CSR was helpful for background knowledge activation. Moreover, all students thought that CSR yielded positive effects on finding the main ideas in the paragraphs. However, the proportion of the students responding to strategies for finding main ideas and supporting ideas varies. While 17.8 % of the students thought CSR was not helping to discriminate the main idea and supporting idea, 52.2 % of the students thought that CSR was a little helpful, and 30.0 % of the students thought that CSR was quite effective. When asked about the strategy of "click and clunk", 14.0% of students thought that CSR was not very helpful in terms of understanding difficult words, while 33.0 % thought it was quite helpful and 48.0 % of the students thought CSR was very beneficial. As to the strategy of summary, while 19% of the students thought CSR was also helpful in summarizing, 81% of the students thought either CSR was quite helpful or very helpful for summarization. In addition, the vast majority of the students (95.7%) agreed that CSR implementation helped students recognize the study methods that they can follow during reading. However, for vocabulary learning, 19.0 % of the students thought that CSR had not contributed much to their vocabulary learning, while 33 % of the students said that it contributed a little, and 48.0 % said that their vocabulary knowledge developed after CSR instruction. As to dictionary use, 52.4 % of the students stated that they were dependent on the dictionary to find the meanings of the unknown words. In addition, CSR was found effective on the

strategy use with a percentage of 85.7. Finally, 90.9% of the students expressed that their general reading comprehension in English enhanced via CSR instruction.

Table 15

*The Impact of CSR on Students' Learning*

| Student Questionnaire Items | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. CSR increases my interest in learning English. | 0 | 0 | 11 | 10 |
| | 0.0% | 0.0% | 52.0% | 48.0% |
| 19. CSR increases my motivation to read. | 0 | 2 | 10 | 9 |
| | 0.0% | 9.5 % | 47.6 % | 43.0 % |
| 20. I am more concentrated on the class in CSR. | 0 | 5 | 10 | 6 |
| | 0.0% | 23.8 % | 47.6 % | 29.0 % |
| 21. CSR helps me activate my background knowledge about the topics before I read. | 0 | 1 | 14 | 6 |
| | 0.0% | 4.8 % | 66.7 % | 29.0 % |
| 22. CSR helps me understand the main ideas of the articles I read. | 0 | 0 | 9 | 12 |
| | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 43.0 % | 57.0 % |
| 23. CSR helps me distinguish between the main idea and supporting information of the articles I read. | 1 | 3 | 12 | 7 |
| | 4.8 % | 13.0 % | 52.2 % | 30.0 % |
| 24. CSR helps me understand difficult words in the articles I read. | 0 | 4 | 7 | 10 |
| | 0.0 % | 19.0 % | 33.0 % | 48.0 % |
| 25. CSR helps me summarize the articles I read. | 0 | 4 | 10 | 7 |
| | 0.0 % | 19.0 % | 48.0 % | 33.0 % |
| 26. CSR helps me realize study methods that I can benefit from. | 0 | 1 | 14 | 6 |
| | 0.0 % | 4.8 % | 66.7 % | 29.0 % |
| 27. After CSR, my vocabulary has improved. | 0 | 4 | 7 | 10 |
| | 0.0 % | 19.0 % | 33.0 % | 48.0 % |
| 28. After CSR, I don't rely on dictionaries to look up the meaning of unknown words. | 1 | 10 | 5 | 5 |
| | 4.8 % | 47.6 % | 23.8 % | 23.8% |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. After CSR, I use reading strategies more. | 0 | 3 | 10 | 8 |
| | 0.0 % | 14.3 % | 47.6 % | 38.1 % |
| 30. After CSR, my English reading comprehension has improved. | 0 | 2 | 13 | 6 |
| | 0.0 % | 9.5 % | 61.9 % | 29.0 % |

**Conclusion**

In this chapter, data collected from various instruments was analyzed and the findings gathered from the quantitative and qualitative data were examined. Based on the statistical results of the paired sample t-test analysis, it was found out that CSR implementation was effective on students' motivation during reading instruction. In addition, the results gained from the independent samples t-test analysis demonstrated that the students' initial performance level were the same, and, for the post-test comparison, the experimental group, which followed CSR instruction, outperformed the students in the control group in terms of summary and comprehension aspects. Although the comparison of vocabulary dimension was statistically insignificant, the total comprehension performance of the students' in the experimental group was found greater than the students' in the control group. For students' participation, the analyses of participation rubrics showed that students' participation significantly differed in both groups in six weeks out of seven weeks. It was also found that the learners who worked in small groups collaboratively participated more actively than the learners who had whole-class instruction.

# Chapter 5
## Conclusion and Recommendations

**Introduction**

In this final chapter, a brief summary of the research, the evaluation of the findings obtained by the experiment, and the pedagogical implications of the main findings for educational practice are provided. This chapter also presents the limitations of the study and the recommendations which can guide the future research. The chapter concludes with a section summarizing the potential benefits of CSR instruction in ESL/EFL reading comprehension.

**Summary of the study**

The present study aims to investigate the impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction on university-level EFL reading classes. In order to triangulate the data, various instruments were used during the data collection procedure. First of all, a reading comprehension test and the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) were administered with both experimental and control groups so as to determine whether the students had the same reading comprehension skills and reading motivation at the beginning of the research. During the research, the experimental group students had reading lessons in small groups collaboratively. The group used pre- while- and post reading strategies by using cue cards and recording their use of the comprehension strategies on their learning logs. While studying in these small reading groups, students also had different roles to maintain the participation of every student. Although pre-while-post reading strategies were also practiced in the control group, this group had their reading classes with traditional teacher-led instruction. As another data collection instrument, a teacher observation rubric was used to measure students' participation throughout the research period. Additionally, students evaluated their own understanding and employment of the reading strategies by using self-assessment rubrics. These rubrics were collected after each text was studied to find out which students in these two groups feel more competent about their reading comprehension and strategy use. At the end of the research, the post-reading comprehension test and post-Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) were administered. Besides, a

questionnaire reflecting the experimental group students' perceptions and thoughts about Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction was applied. Consequently, the statistical analysis revealed that CSR significantly increased the experimental group students' motivation and engagement towards reading. CSR also improved the students' performance in terms of comprehension and summarization.

**Summary and Evaluation of the Findings**

This study was conducted to find out the impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading on EFL adult learners' motivation, engagement and performance in reading comprehension. A quasi-experimental design and multiple types of data were collected by means of various instruments including pre and post-reading comprehension tests, the participants' responses to the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire, teachers' observational rubrics for student participation, students' self-assessment rubrics, and a questionnaire about students' perceptions of CSR instruction.

As reported in the present study, CSR was found feasible for reading instruction and the results gained through the analysis supported that it has favourable effects on students motivation, especially on giving importance to reading, getting recognition from others, compliance and competition in reading. For reading performance, the students' overall reading performance was significantly affected by the CSR instruction, and comprehension and summary strategies were found to be improved via CSR. In addition, students who had reading classes with CSR instruction were found to participate more actively in comparison to the students who had whole-class reading instruction. Furthermore, the analysis of the students' answers to CSRQ indicated that the students benefited from collaborative group work. However, those students still opted to use dictionaries and got reference from others in lieu of guessing difficult words or using vocabulary strategies even if they stated that they found CSR efficacious for reading strategies. A more detailed evaluation of the findings is given in the following sections.

**What Is the Effect of CSR on the EFL Learners' motivation?** To measure students' motivation during the study and to discover the impact of CSR on students' motivation during the intervention, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) was utilized in both classes which had either CSR or whole-class traditional

instruction. The examination of the questionnaire results was carried out in two phases. The first step was to measure the general reading motivation levels of the students in both experiment and control groups at the beginning and end of the study. Since the MRQ includes eleven constructs that are established to assess students' motivation in reading, the second step was to analyze the differences of the constructs of the questionnaire for both groups.

First of all, for the experiment group, the bi-variate correlation was performed between their pre-test motivation score and post-test motivation score. The findings of the analysis was found significant with $r$ (21) = .567, $p$ < 0.05. Thus, it can be stated that students' motivation had elevated since the beginning of the research. On the other hand, the analysis of the relationship between pre-test motivation score and post-test motivation score of the control group was found insignificant, with $r$ (18) = .06, $p$ > 0.05.  The relationship between the scores obtained from the same instrument, but in different administrations was not significant. Furthermore, a paired sampled t-test was used by comparing pre- and post- questionnaire administration results across control and experimental groups. The t-test result was significant, t (38) = -2.21, p < 0.05. The result indicated that CSR as an intervention significantly affect the development of motivation toward reading.

As stated before, the second stage of the data analysis included the examination of the dimensions of reading motivation. MRQ comprises of a particular set of scales, including efficacy, challenge, curiosity, involvement, importance, recognition, grades, social, competition, compliance, and work avoidance. Among these, giving importance to reading, getting recognition from others, compliance, and interestingly, competition in reading were found significantly effective on students' motivational levels during the CSR implementation.

Returning to the hypothesis posed at the beginning of this research study, it is now probable to set forth that the students' motivated behavior increased during CSR intervention. However, when the students' responses to the questionnaire's motivational constructs were examined, it might be inferred that students' motivation was mainly emerged from external factors. As proposed by Wang and Guthrie (2004), the motivational constructs of competition, compliance, recognition for reading, reading for grades, and social reasons for reading are linked to extrinsic motivation. In this research study, three of the four constructors, which were found

to be significantly effective on students' motivation, were associated with extrinsic motivation. Therefore, it can be deduced that extrinsic motivation for reading in English is a significant factor which motivates the participants in this study to read.

This was also an interesting finding that students in the study had a high degree of competitive motivation while doing collaborative work. Readers who are extrinsically-motivated are generally believed to read so as to meet academic requirements, outperform peers, and achieve recognition from peers and the teachers (Komiyama, 2013). In this respect, the findings in this research are concurrent with the study done by Blay et al. (2009), which unfolded that competition and challenge have a close link with reading comprehension achievement. As for the students' high competitive motivation, exam-centric education students have received for language learning over the years can be considered as the main reason. It can be assumed that the exam-oriented educational methods that students have been trained up to now includes high-stake tests which usually lead students to compete with other students. Therefore, recognition from peers might have a direct role in students' high motivation in during collaborative work. In addition, students' in prep-classes usually have instrumental motivation because their main reason to learn a foreign language in university is basically to fulfill the requirements of the academic departments they enroll in and go on to their academic education. Although Guthrie, Klauda, and Ho (2013) assert that the instructional practices which provide peer collaboration are directly linked to students' intrinsic motivation, the participants in the present study can be said to have extrinsic and instrumental motivation due to these factors. Along with these, the students also stated that they show importance for the reading activities, which can reinforce their internal motivation and achievement in reading comprehension.

Consequently, these outcomes of the study are compatible with the studies which administered the MRQ in foreign language learning contexts. In Komiyama's (2013) study, extrinsic academic compliance was found as the most important motivational construct for reading. Moreover, in Tercanlioğlu's (2001) study, it was found out that Turkish EFL students have great degree of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation since grades and competition were found as the most effective motivational factors for students' reading comprehension.

**What Is the effect of CSR on the EFL learners' participation?** As previously mentioned in the introduction, the present study was also conducted to find out the effectiveness of the CSR in terms of engagement, willingness to take part in the instructional activities and contribution to the pace of classroom instruction. While measuring students' engagement, students' cognitive engagement in reading tasks, which includes the use of reading strategies, answering comprehension questions and student-generated questions, was the main focus.

To measure students' participation, a classroom participation rubric was used in which the teachers could record the students' involvement in tasks on a weekly basis. After the data collection procedure, an independent samples t-test was run for each week of students' participation. The result of the analyses pointed out that the students who received CSR instruction demonstrated increased participation throughout the experimentation whereas the students' participation in the control group decreased throughout the experimentation. While the decreased attention in the control group might be caused by various motivational, personal or educational factors, the reasons why the students in the experimental group showed increasing participation might depend on CSR instructions' distinguishing features. As Boardman et al. (2015) outlined in their study, distinguishing features of CSR comprise group study, efficient allocation of participation among learners, and more voluntary actions. In this particular research, for example, the fact that all students were given specific roles and shared responsibilities for comprehension may have enabled the students in the experimental group participate more actively. As another feature of CSR, group work allowed students to share more of their strengths and challenges during reading. Since one of the group roles is an *encourager*, students learned to emphasize the strengths of their peers during group study. Besides, the students who were assigned as group *leaders* called their friends to give feedback about their comprehension and group work after each reading so that they could overcome the challenges they faced during comprehension. As mentioned by Bossert (1988), peer encouragement can enhance task involvement and raise students' interest. In addition, peer-learning feature of CSR also helped to decrease face threatening factors. As Panitz (1999) points out, collaborative learning environments reduce anxiety because a particular student chosen by a teacher does not become the central focus of the class. Instead, the product completed by a group

becomes the main focus. For this reason, students in the CSR class may have showed more contribution in the tasks. Additionally, CSR also helped students keep track of their learning by means of learning logs. CSR enabled students to use reading strategies explicitly by recording their use of strategies in the logs, so it was easy for the instructor to follow how and how much these strategies were employed. All of these features could contribute students' participation in CSR instruction since students were able to observe themselves communicating, comprehending and applying reading strategies, rather than only reading and answering comprehension questions. As a result, the task engagement became visible not only for the instructor but also for the students themselves.

**What is the effect of CSR on the EFL learners' performance?** Concerning the third research question, the present research findings prove that CSR is mostly effective on reading comprehension. To analyze the effect of CSR implementation on reading performance, an independent samples t-test was used by comparing pre-test and post-test results across control and experimental groups. Data analysis displayed that the students in both groups had the same performance level prior to the research. In order to determine the extent of the reading performance of the students after the application of CSR, the post reading test scores of the control and experimental groups were analyzed with an independent samples t-test. The findings uncovered that CSR was effective in terms of overall reading comprehension, comprehension and summarizing strategies of students, yet students in both groups had similar levels of performance in vocabulary-related questions. In the light of these results, it can be summarized that CSR improved students' reading performance, but vocabulary strategies were ineffective for the students in this study.

The results of the effect of CSR on performance are somehow consistent with Fan's study (2009). In her study, the statistical results also verified that the learners' reading comprehension was improved by means of CSR instruction.

From another point of view, when the correlation of the students' motivation and performance levels were analyzed, for pre and post reading comprehension tests and the MRQ results, no significant correlation was observed between the performance levels of the two groups and their motivation. Besides, it was revealed by the analysis that the control group's pre-test performance and post-test

performance scores, and the experimental group's pre-test performance and post-test performance scores were significantly related. However, while the correlation of the control group's pre-test motivation and post-test motivation were insignificant, the experimental group's pre-test motivation and post-test motivation scores were significantly related. Although the students' motivation in the experimental group was found to be improved during the study, it can be concluded that their performance levels cannot be directly linked to CSR instruction and motivation.

According to Bandura (2006), how learners perceive their own success directly affects the students' proficient performance and the outcomes of the pupils' self-assessment are indicators of how much effort they will produce for learning. To bring out more data about the students' performance and how the students' perceive their performance during CSR, self-assessment rubrics were used to measure regarding the reading texts they read throughout the study. Participants' self-perception of reading was assessed via rubric implementation in seven weeks. So as to draw out the differences in students' self-assessment in comprehension between experimental and control groups, an independent samples t-test was used for each of the reading performance week-by-week. According to the findings, except one week, students in the experimental group perceive themselves more competent in reading. Moreover, a self-assessment rubric was designed in accordance with the reading strategies that students practice. Students' self-beliefs about using prediction, vocabulary use, comprehension and follow-up question strategies were analyzed for both groups. Independent samples t-test analyses denoted that students' self-assessment in reading significantly different in experimental and control groups in all of the dimensions. Students in the experimental group found themselves more competent in applying reading strategies in the course of comprehension. Furthermore, it can be mentioned that the scores of the students' self-assessment in the experimental group are higher because of the fact that the students had more opportunities to study the reading strategies functionally, regularly and actively. As Zimmerman (1990) states effective use of learning strategies is firmly connected to the improvement of self-efficacy which leads to the desire of achievement. It can be interpreted from the findings of this research that CSR is helpful for students' use of pre-while and post-reading

strategies, which can enhance their confidence and self-efficacy needed for proficient performance.

**What are the EFL learners' perceptions of the CSR approach?** Responses collected from CSR implementation questionnaire offer some insights about the efficacy of the CSR instruction in foreign language learning. As stated by 95% of the students, they preferred CSR to traditional teaching methods and there were no students who did not like the CSR instruction. Besides, students expressed that CSR improves their engagement in reading classes. (85.8 %). The benefits of group discussions were also stated by the students. Almost all students (90.5 %) agreed that discussing in groups enhance their understanding in the lessons. Another important result of the survey is that CSR increased the motivation of the students. Referring to the students' questionnaire responses, students had motivation to CSR implementation (85.8%). Regarding reading strategies in CSR, all students agreed on that reading strategies, particularly activating background knowledge and summarizing, which were taught during CSR instruction were quite useful. Although students practiced a lot about vocabulary strategies such as guessing the meanings of difficult words by looking into the prefixes, suffixes, and getting help from the context, they still maintained their habit of accessing the meanings of difficult vocabulary by taking advantage of dictionaries, translating into the mother tongue, and asking more knowledgeable others. 52.4 % of the students expressed that they still depend on dictionaries so as to look up the meanings of the unfamiliar words.

Considering the questionnaire results, it may be interpreted that students enjoyed CSR method. As to the implementation of CSR, the students believed that it would be beneficial to apply CSR in the university context since almost all of the students (90.9%) in the study stated that their general English reading comprehension had developed in the course of CSR instruction.

**Pedagogical Implications**

The findings of the present study have some pedagogical implications for teaching and material design in Turkish EFL reading classes at preparatory schools and in other similar teaching environments. In light of the positive outcomes that the study yield in terms of reading motivation, engagement and performance; the

teaching context, and the roles of the teachers and learners in reading classes may also be altered with the implications drawn from the findings of the study.

The first set of implications relates to the effect of CSR on instructional practices in EFL reading classes. As a research-based instructional method, CSR was developed to improve students reading comprehension by using reading strategies in small groups cooperatively. CSR is an adaptable instructional method since it can be applied to different disciplines, levels of instruction and age groups. Furthermore, it can be used effectively in both small and large classes as long as heterogeneous reading groups are formed to understand and analyze expository or narrative texts. Therefore, CSR constitutes a suitable and flexible tool that any educator and any class can benefit from. In this study, almost all participants found CSR implementation feasible at university level English courses. Based on this finding, CSR can be a resource for teachers who wish to give personal attention to the students' comprehension and monitor students reading progress especially in crowded and large class settings.

Additionally, as Klingner and Vaughn (1999) asserts, CSR provides a learning context where students are progressively capable of employing reading strategies and co-construct meaning collaboratively with the help of a teacher and peers in the groups. The findings of this study also yielded positive results about CSR's collaborative group work and strategic training. Considering group work, students in CSR groups are believed to spend more time engaged in discussions and help each other (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). That is to say, CSR increases student participation and helping behaviors. The survey results in the current study pointed out that students' active engagement was found to be high, students had high motivation to CSR application, and almost every student expressed that collaborative work contributed to their communication skills. In CSR implementation, group work does not consist solely of forming groups. Group work includes role distribution by means of role cards which ensure the participation of students and shared responsibility for learning. As believed by Klingner and Vaughn (1998), roles are a vital part of CSR as collaborative learning is beneficial when all group members are given a meaningful task. In this premise, the present study also provides evidence that assigned student roles improve student participation. In addition, all students in the present study agreed that role distribution within the group increases group communication. During group discussions, students also

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help one another understand the meaning of unfamiliar words, acquire the main idea, generate and respond to questions, and establish ties between the new information and their previous knowledge (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). Based on the effectiveness of CSR in group work, it is worthy of recommendation for EFL instructors to organize group tasks to consolidate learning in any skill classes. Additionally, group work activities can be a practical tool for silent classes or classes with low motivation. However, teachers need to bear in mind to assign roles within the groups and to give constructive feedback so that students can fulfill the roles distributed to them. Moreover, teachers need to support peer-feedback and peer-assessment in classes to increase learner autonomy and social interaction among students. When students develop habits of collaborative work, they can transfer this habit to other future learning contexts.

Furthermore, CSR is also reported to be pedagogically effective in terms of reading strategy training in EFL reading classes. Dhieb-Henia (2006) describes that learning strategies are made up of social-affective, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Social-affective strategies involve interaction and cooperation with others; cognitive strategies comprises thinking skills such as summarizing and guessing meaning from context, and metacognitive strategies help students reflect on their thinking processes by observing and assessing their learning. The importance of strategic reading was explained by Carrell (1998) as followed;

> *Strategic reading is a prime characteristic of expert readers because it is woven into the very fabric of "reading for meaning," and the development of this cognitive ability. Reading strategies--which are related to other cognitive strategies enhancing attention, memory, communication and learning--allow readers to elaborate, organize, and evaluate information derived from text. Because strategies are controllable by readers, they are personal cognitive tools that can be used selectively and flexibly. And, reading strategy use reflects both metacognition and motivation, because readers need to have both the knowledge and the disposition to use strategies.*

In line with the ideas proposed by Carrell (1998), Abidin and Riswanto (2012) underlines the potency of strategy training in CSR, pointing out that CSR offers both dual reading approaches of top down and bottom up strategies as well as metacognitive strategies such as planning learning and self-monitoring. CSR has many distinctive tools which support the use of these strategies, helping students

guide, integrate, and track their strategic reading. Learning logs constitute one of these tools. Learning logs are the study sheets which display pre, while, post reading stages with the strategies that students need to employ in each stage. While using learning logs, students need to activate their pre-existing knowledge, look for the linguistic features, take marginal notes, and underline the important information, answer and ask follow-up questions, and write summaries. In this sense, learning logs serve as a map to guide students which strategy may be applied in pre, while, and post reading stages, and how to overcome comprehension breakdowns in relation to the vocabulary use. Also, learning logs encourage students to write summaries, which includes going over the main ideas of a reading, rephrasing the content by referring to vocabulary and grammar. Regarding these, the findings of CSR questionnaire in this research shows that the students found learning logs helpful to keep the track of their language learning, and they believed that the reading strategies taught in CSR are beneficial for comprehension. Furthermore, students' summary skills were found to be improved after CSR instruction. In this premise, learning logs' pedagogic value is respectively high.

Another tool that can be added to the reading instruction is clunk cards. Clunk cards are used to overcome problems related to vocabulary in while reading stage. At this stage, students try to co-construct meaning with their group members in order to understand unfamiliar or difficult vocabulary items they encounter while reading with the help of clunk cards. Clunk cards are effective in reading comprehension because they are adaptable in terms of students' level of knowledge and learning pace. In addition to formal vocabulary exercises and dictionary use, these cards make students ponder over words with their peers. As the meanings of the words are discussed in groups collaboratively, the acquisition and retention of new vocabulary items improve. Considering these characteristics of clunk cards, the students in the present study also agreed on that CSR assisted them understand ambiguous words. Students' answers to the questionnaire also show that their vocabulary knowledge improved after CSR. It can be deduced that reading strategy training with the aforementioned tools will increase the quality and continuity of learning, so instructional practices and scope of reading courses can be improved by adapting these tools into existing EFL reading classes. Moreover, it is recommended for teachers to include these tools into any instructional practices in any disciplines if students struggle to implement reading strategies, or when they

need additional work on vocabulary and summarization. Additionally, reading comprehension strategies, which are used regularly in CSR, contribute to the students' actual implementation of these strategies in tasks that they encounter in real life. Foreign language learners may solve their comprehension breakdowns and word-level problems in extensive reading with the use of CSR tools which help them cultivate their self-esteem and enable them reflect on the strengths and weaknesses in comprehension. In sum, learning logs, cue cards and clunk cards in CSR can help students to become autonomous in using strategies in extracurricular reading.

One more set of implications are related to EFL reading comprehension curriculum, coursebooks and reading materials. As Grabe and Stoller (2013) asserts, "The (reading) curriculum should combine explicit comprehension instruction with the development of the strategic reading. It should also support student involvement and motivation for reading." Concordantly, CSR offers a comprehension curriculum which systematically integrates content learning, reading strategies and engaging tasks. CSR is a systematic instruction with the application of the same reading strategies on expository or narrative texts. Providing this kind of reading routine support students' comprehension and students' future use of the strategies without the need of teacher guidance. In this sense, CSR provides support to any reading curriculum and help students acquire a comprehensive reading routine. Also, CSR is based on the reading strategy training in which strategies are presented, practiced and monitored regularly. CSR guides students learn and practice fundamental reading comprehension strategies: brainstorming and predicting (preview), monitoring understanding (click and clunk), finding the main idea (get the gist), and generating questions and reviewing the main ideas (wrap up). A reading curriculum which aims to develop strategic readers is believed to be the one that students can benefit from most (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). Besides, CSR is found engaging since it incorporates small group work with specifically assigned roles so that each student should participate actively and engage in the tasks cognitively. In these premises, CSR can be incorporated into existing reading curriculum by practitioners and teachers, or can be used in a new EFL reading curriculum design which holds its grounds on CSR. Another implication drawn from CSR instruction is that it offers a well-developed research-based cognitive, metacognitive and affective support for current coursebooks. Since language

coursebooks represents various aspects of language instruction such as the learners' type, age, learning objectives, interest; the language presented; the language skills aimed to be developed; the methodology and instructional approach to be adopted, and the teachers' attitudes of teaching and learning, selecting an appropriate coursebook which meets the needs of learners and teaching objectives is an important task. When coursebooks for EFL reading comprehension considered, from the 1970s onwards, reading coursebooks have been designed by the findings of psycholinguistic and schematic theories. The contemporary coursebooks depending on these theories have included reading tasks which learners follow top-down processing. These type of coursebooks include meaningful exercises which enable readers to connect information in the written material with the knowledge that they already possess. These type of reading exercises help activate and assess relevant schemata through the use of pre, while, and post reading activities (Dhieb-Henia, 2006). However, it is advisable to adjoin top-down strategies with the bottom-up strategies in the aspects of vocabulary development, extensive reading, and discourse knowledge. Along with these, in current foreign language pedagogy, communicative teaching methods and tasks are added to the coursebooks (Bruton, 1997). Considering the coursebook used in this study, the reading passages were also designed in pre, while, post stages and students were able to use top-down strategies such as predicting, and finding the gist. However, only the students in the experimental group had a chance to focus on vocabulary strategies by means of clunk cards. These students were able to discuss the meanings of the unknown words with the help of affixation and contextual clues provided in these cards. By doing so, they had opportunities to work out bottom-up strategies as well. Furthermore, learning logs helped students record their learning individually and present the learning outcomes. By filling in their learning logs for every reading task, students could take meaningful notes, check their own understanding after the classes, and regulate their own learning. This process enabled the students to use metacognitive strategies. In the study, communicative needs were met by role cards which was used as a tool to stimulate peer-interaction and negotiation of meaning. In short, CSR instruction can be used to address or improve the shortcomings of coursebooks as it contains many aspects that meet the requirements of current pedagogy. It is therefore recommended that teachers should adapt the reading tasks provided by the books with CSR tools such as

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learning logs or cue cards, taking into account the needs of students for cooperation and strategy implementation. In addition, as Dülger (2016) emphasizes, ELT coursebooks in Turkey need to undergo necessary revisions in terms of motivational factors. The design of coursebooks should help students develop the metacognitive strategies and reflect on their learning. Besides, reading skills should be supported by speaking skills with authentic and engaging tasks. Therefore, it would be practical to design contemporary coursebooks with the inclusion of CSR techniques.

The last set of implications is about the roles of teachers in reading classes and teachers' professional development for CSR. As Yang (1998) states "When implementing strategy instruction in the language classroom, teachers should also adopt new perspectives." Unlike their traditional roles in teacher-led classes, teachers should be aware of their roles in CSR so that they can meet the instructional objectives of CSR, guide the instruction effectively, and maintain classroom interaction through which students can develop strategies to become successful learners. Therefore, teachers in CSR classes need to act as encouragers, observers, facilitators, counselors and active participants. As Vaughn and Klingner (1999) explains, in CSR lessons, teachers at first display the reading stages and strategies, and provide exercise and opportunities for strategy use. After students start to use these strategies effectively, teachers' role is to model the implementation of the strategies to show how students can incorporate reading strategies into reading tasks. Teachers additionally facilitate the collaborative groups and provide dynamic support for students' active participation. While students are working in groups, teachers should guide the students and give necessary assistance when required. Also, teachers should provide feedback on students' strategy use, comprehension or participation. In brief, teachers should be active in all stages of CSR practices to foster reading comprehension, strategy use and task engagement. For this, it is necessary to consider possible in-service trainings, workshops and seminars which can help teachers and teacher trainers understand the roles of the teachers in current reading comprehension instruction and to deepen their understanding of CSR practice. Only when teachers discern CSR instruction and learn how it works in EFL classes, they can implement CSR accurately. Due to the positive outcomes of the present study, in addition to many more credible research findings on the effectiveness of CSR (Fan, 2010; Fitri, 2010;

Huang, 2004; Klinger & Vaughn, 1998; Wang, 2008), teachers and school administrators may want to add this method into their repertoires to tailor teaching and adapt lessons accordingly so as to consolidate students' use of necessary comprehension strategies, or to stimulate a motivating and meaningful reading routine with engaging communicative tasks.

To conclude, the pedagogical implications drawn from the findings in the current study highlight the significance of CSR application in EFL reading classes as it promotes meaningful student interaction, strategic reading comprehension and motivated student behavior. Regarding curriculum, coursebook design and lesson plans, CSR calls for necessary modifications in EFL reading instruction in Turkish context. Additionally, it should be noted that teachers' role in EFL reading instruction and their knowledge in collaborative reading has an impact on successful CSR application. Therefore, it is believed that the research results reported here have significance to EFL educators, school administrations, curriculum designers, material developers, policy makers, researchers and other stakeholders in the advancement of foreign language teaching.

**Recommendations for Further Studies**

Referring to the results of the present study, a few suggestions are necessary to be made for future investigations on CSR instruction in L2 reading comprehension. Initially, the students participating in this study were Turkish prep-school students who had B1 level English language proficiency. Future investigations may consider using more intensive training and investigating the impact of CSR on students reading performance at different levels. If future studies are carried out with students at various language levels, the effectiveness of CSR among these levels may be compared. Differences in motivation and participation can be put forward in the use of strategies, especially when students with advanced language skills are employed. Secondly, only two classes of students who were taking English Language Classes in prep-school participated in the study. As a result, the number of participants was quite limited, and the results of this study have remained dependent on the context. In order to demonstrate the effectiveness of CSR instruction, it is necessary to note that homogeneous groups with a considerable number of participants ought to be incorporated in further studies.

Moreover, CSR instruction was administered for seven weeks in the present study. However, it needs to be noted that becoming proficient in reading in a foreign language takes a long time since reading skills cover lots of components such as vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and cultural information. For this reason, longitudinal studies can be implemented in order to analyze the development of reading abilities and comprehension with the use of CSR instruction. In addition, investigating students' use of CSR strategies such as finding gist, dealing with clunks, generating follow-up questions on reading performance would be valuable. Another suggestion that emerged as a result of the present study is that the use of video recording could be more beneficial to obtain detailed participation patterns of learners. That students do not participate verbally during the lesson does not justify that they are not engaged in the reading process mentally. Conversely, the verbal participation of learners does not indicate that they do not have motivational problems in the classroom. For this reason, behaviors in the class during the implementation of CSR should be observed to get a complete picture of active participation of the students. Lastly, in future studies, observations for participation or engagement can be supported by detailed interviews that can be carried out with the teachers as practitioners and students as learners.

## Conclusion

The results of this research study demonstrate that teaching reading strategies in an interactive classroom environment brings great benefits for students' learning. Based on the findings of the research, some pedagogical implications for foreign language teaching in Turkish settings can be recommended. To start with, the findings of the present research display some positive outcomes of CSR on the university level language learners' improvement of reading comprehension strategies especially for certain reading strategies such as predicting, summarizing, and guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words. Also, CSR-specific tools such as learning logs, cue cards and clunk cards are found to elevate student motivation and participation in the reading class.

Although the present study offers useful findings for teaching reading strategies collaboratively in a short time, previous research has suggested that the longitudinal comprehension strategy instruction can offer more benefits (Song,

1998; Grabe, 1991). In addition, it need to be the top priority of English language teachers to include reading strategy training along with interactive activities that can motivate and engage students in reading classes. To conclude, research-based reading instruction frameworks such as reciprocal reading instruction, concept-oriented reading instruction (CORI) and CSR offer alternative teaching methods to the traditional teacher-centered teaching. The inclusion of these methods in reading instruction in Turkey is believed to create a substantial impact on students' reading comprehension, achievement, motivation and engagement in the long run.

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# APPENDIX-A: Motivations for Reading Questionnaire

We are interested in your reading.

The sentences tell how some students feel about reading. Listen to each sentence and decide whether it talks about a person who is like you or different from you. There are no right or wrong answers. We only want to know how you feel about reading.

For many of the statements, you should think about the kinds of things you read in your class.

Here are some ones to try before we start on the ones about reading:

I like ice cream.

| Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

If the statement is **very different from you**, circle a 1.

If the statement is **a little different from you**, circle a 2.

If the statement is **a little like you,** circle a 3.

If the statement is **a lot like you**, circle a 4.

I like spinach.

| Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

If the statement is **very different from you**, what should you circle?

If the statement is **a little different from you**, what should you circle?

If the statement is **a little like you,** what should you circle?

If the statement is **a lot like you**, what should you circle?

Okay, we are ready to start on the ones about reading. Remember, when you give your answers you should think about the things you are reading in your class.

There are no right or wrong answers, we just are interested in YOUR ideas about reading. To give your answer, circle ONE number on each line. The answer lines are right next to each statement.

Let's turn the page and start. Please follow along with me while I read each of the statements, and then circle your answer.

| | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I like being the best at reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I like it when the questions in books make me think. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I read to improve my grades. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. If the teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I like hard, challenging books. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I enjoy a long, involved story or fiction book. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I know that I will do well in reading next year. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. If a book is interesting I don't care how hard it is to read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. I try to get more answers right than my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. I have favorite subjects that I like to read about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. I make pictures in my mind when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. I don't like reading something when the words are too difficult. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I enjoy reading books about people in different countries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I am a good reader. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I usually learn difficult things by reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. It is very important to me to be a good reader. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. My teachers often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. I read to learn new information about topics that interest me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I learn more from reading than most students in the class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. I read stories about fantasy and make believe. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I read because I have to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. I don't like vocabulary questions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. I like to read about new things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. In comparison to other activities I do, it is very important to me to be a good reader. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. I like having the teacher say I read well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. I like mysteries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. Complicated stories are no fun to read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. I read a lot of adventure stories. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. I do as little schoolwork as possible in reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. I feel like I make friends with people in good books. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. Finishing every reading assignment is very important to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. My friends sometimes tell me I am a good reader. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. Grades are a good way to see how well you are doing in reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. I don't like it when there are too many people in the story. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. I am willing to work hard to read better than my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 38. I like to get compliments for my reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. It is important for me to see my name on a list of good readers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. I always try to finish my reading on time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. I am happy when someone recognizes my reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. I like being the only one who knows an answer in something we read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. I look forward to finding out my reading grade. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. I always do my reading work exactly as the teacher wants it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. I like to finish my reading before other students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. I like to help my friends with their schoolwork in reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 47. I talk to my friends about what I am reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## APPENDIX-B: CSR Instruction Questionnaire

We are interested in your experiences about Collaborative Strategic Reading in your reading classes.

The sentences tell how some students may feel about Collaborative Strategic Reading. Read each sentence and decide whether it talks about a person who is like you or different from you. There are no right or wrong answers. We only want to know how you feel about Collaborative Strategic Reading.

For many of the statements, you should think about the kinds of things you read in your class.

Here is a statement to try before we start on the ones about CSR:

I like ice cream.

| Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|:---:|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

If the statement is **very different from you**, circle a 1.

If the statement is **a little different from you**, circle a 2.

If the statement is **a little like you,** circle a 3.

If the statement is **a lot like you**, circle a 4.

Now we can start on the statements about Collaborative Strategic Reading. To give your answer, circle ONE number on each line. The answer lines are right next to each statement.

Please circle ONE number which best suits you.

### A. Your General Perceptions of CSR Instruction

|  | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|:---:|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| 1. I like CSR in the class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I prefer CSR to traditional large classroom teaching. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I am actively engaged in group discussions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| 4. By discussing with my group members, I understand better about what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I enhance my communication ability in CSR. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I learn how to cooperate with others in CSR. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I am self-motivated for learning in CSR. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I think it is feasible to implement CSR in the university English class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## B. Your Perceptions of the Implementation Procedures of CSR

| I think | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 9. The reading materials used in the class are suitable to my level. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. The assigned roles in groups help group discussion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. It is appropriate to have four/five different roles in a group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. It is appropriate to rotate the roles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. It is a good size to have 4-5 people in a group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. Cue cards help me understand the procedures of CSR. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. Learning logs help me keep the record of my English learning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. The reading strategies taught in CSR are useful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. I think the implementation procedures of CSR are appropriate in our classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## C. The Impact of CSR on Your English Learning

|  | Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. CSR increases my interest in learning English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. CSR increases my motivation to read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I am more concentrated on the class in CSR. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. CSR helps me activate my background knowledge about the topics before I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. CSR helps me understand the main ideas of the articles I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. CSR helps me distinguish between the main idea and supporting information of the articles I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. CSR helps me understand difficult words in the articles I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. CSR helps me summarize the articles I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. CSR helps me realize study methods that I can benefit from. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. After CSR, my vocabulary has improved. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. After CSR, I don't rely on dictionaries to look up the meaning of unknown words. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. After CSR, I use reading strategies more. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. After CSR, my English reading comprehension has improved. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

# APPENDIX-C: Students' Self-assessment Rubrics

2nd WEEK

Topic:   Love around the world

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I can skim the text to answer the comprehension questions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I can scan the text to find out references | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. I can ask follow-up questions about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I can recognize the key words in a text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Topic:   Family Matters

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I can skim the text to answer the comprehension questions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I can correct the incorrect information about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. I can scan the text to find out references | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. I can infer the meaning from the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

3rd WEEK

Topic:   Stars of music

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | I CAN DO THIS with difficulty | | | easily |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. I can scan the text to find specific information | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I can scan the text to find out references | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I can ask follow-up questions about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Topic:   Music and the mind

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS with difficulty | | | easily |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. I can correct the mistakes about the text in the questions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. I can find out the author's opinion about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. I can separate facts and opinions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

4th WEEK

Topic:   What makes you happy?

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS with difficulty | | | easily |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I can infer the meaning from the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. I can find synonyms in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I can infer the main idea (gist) in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Topic:   Think positive!

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS with difficulty | | | easily |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. I can scan the text to find out specific details | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. I can correct the mistakes about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. I can choose the main idea (gist) of the text from given ideas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

5th WEEK

Topic:   A career in fashion

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. I can scan the text to find out specific details | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. I can answer comprehension questions about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. I can identify the reference words and what they refer to in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Topic:   The pressure to look good

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. I can scan the text to find out specific details | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. I can ask follow-up questions about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. I can identify the main idea of the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

6th WEEK

Topic:   Health and Healing

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. I can select the information I need in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. I can ask follow-up questions about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. I can skim the text to find out the general idea | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Topic:   Staying young

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | with difficulty | | | easily |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. I can select the information I need in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| 41. I can correct the mistakes about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 42. I can separate facts and opinions in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

7th WEEK

Topic:   Time for a vacation

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS<br><br>with difficulty easily<br><br>1 2 3 4 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 43. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. I can select the information I need in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. I can find the references in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. I can scan for the details | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

8th WEEK

Topic:   Great Explorers

| Reading | I CAN DO THIS<br><br>with difficulty easily<br><br>1 2 3 4 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 47. I can predict what the text is about before I read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. I can select the information I need in the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49.I can ask follow-up questions about the text | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 50. I can identify the text organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

### APPENDIX-D: Student Weekly Participation Rubric

| GRADE | CRITERIA |
|-------|----------|
| **0** | *Absent. |
| **1** | *Present, not disruptive.<br>*Tries to respond when called on but does not offer much.<br>*Demonstrates very infrequent involvement in reading activities. |
| **2** | *Offers straightforward information (e.g. straight from the reading), without elaboration, or does so very infrequently (perhaps once a class).<br>*Seeks frequent teacher assistance to understand what is being read, does not mostly apply reading strategies (e.g. prediction, skimming, scanning, etc.) .<br>*Does not offer to contribute to reading activities, but contributes to a moderate degree when called on.<br>*Demonstrates sporadic involvement. |
| **3** | *Offers interpretations and analysis of reading material (more than just facts) to class.<br>* Seeks occasional teacher assistance to understand what is being read, sometimes uses reading strategies (e.g. prediction, skimming, scanning, etc.).<br>*Contributes well to reading activities in an ongoing way: responds to questions, and listens other students' points.<br>*Demonstrates consistent ongoing involvement. |
| **4** | *Offers analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of reading material.<br>*Uses reading strategies (e.g. prediction, skimming, scanning, etc.)  to understand what is being read.<br>*Contributes in a very significant way to the reading activities: keeps analysis focused, responds to questions, listens to other students' comments very carefully, contributes to the cooperative meaning-building, and helps the class.<br>*Demonstrates ongoing very active involvement. |

| STUDENT | WEEK 2 | WEEK 3 | WEEK 4 | WEEK 5 | WEEK 6 | WEEK 7 | WEEK 8 |
|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|         |        |        |        |        |        |        |        |

# APPENDIX-E : CSR Learning Log

| Name: | Class: | Date: |
|---|---|---|

| Topic: |
|---|

**Before Reading**

**Brainstrom:** What do you already know about the topic?

**Prediction:** What do you predict you will learn by reading this passage?

**During Reading**

**Clunks:** Please list your clunks.

Clunks                                                                   Fix-up strategies

_____ = _____ 1 2 3 4

_____ = _____ 1 2 3 4

_____ = _____ 1 2 3 4

**Gist (main idea) :** Write the gists of the paragraphs you read.

**After Reading**

**Wrap-up:** Write questions about the important ideas in the passage, Ask your group members to check if the members in your group understood what they read.

**Review:** What did you learn from this reading passage?  Write a summary.

| **Clunk card 1** | **Clunk card 2** |
|---|---|
| Reread the sentence with the clunk and look for key ideas to help you figure out the unknown word. Think about what makes sense. | Reread the sentences before and after the clunk looking for clues. |
| **Clunk card 3** | **Clunk card 4** |
| Look for a prefix or suffix in the word that might help. | Break the word apart and look for smaller words that you know. |

**HIGH MATHS ABILITIES BAD SCHOOL LIVES**

Teachers first noticed Cameron Thompson's talent for numbers when he was four years old and at pre-school. **Throughout** primary school, Cameron Thompson's best subject was maths. Then, when he was eleven, he took a maths test **prior to** entering secondary school. The test was out of 140; Cameron scored 141. 'I broke the system,' he recalls.

Since then, he has continued to progress quickly. He passed two GCSEs (maths and further maths) at the age of eleven and then got the highest grade in his maths A-level before the end of that same academic year. He is now fourteen years old and studying for a degree in maths, a remarkable achievement **bearing in mind his age.**

But his academic achievements have not always been matched by social success. 'I have the social ability of a talking potato,' he admits. In other words, he feels more at ease with numbers than **among** other teenagers. 'Most people my age do despise me. I've been like this for years.'

Communication is not one of Cameron's strong points and, **aside from** the problems this causes socially, it is now beginning to affect his marks in mathematics. This is because, at undergraduate level, he is expected to give reasons for his answers **alongside** the answers themselves. Cameron's difficulty is that he often doesn't know how he has arrived at the answers, even though the answers are usually correct.

Cameron and his family have recently moved house and Cameron is due to start at a new school. He regards it as a chance to make a fresh start and make some friends. But his mother, Alison, has a few worries **concerning** his lack of social skills. While she describes Cameron as 'very sensitive', she also acknowledges that he is socially naive and often oblivious to signals from other people. The new school specialises in dealing with students who, like Cameron, excel academically but find it difficult to relate to other students. And indeed, on his first day, Cameron did make a new friend – a boy called Tim – mainly **owing to** a shared dislike of Justin Bieber's music.

Recently, a maths professor from Cambridge University has been looking at Cameron's work. His advice to Cameron is perhaps surprising. Professor Imre Leader thinks Cameron should slow down, stop taking maths exams, and wait until he is eighteen before doing a degree. 'There's quite an important distinction,' he explains, 'between taking lots of exams as fast as you can, and relaxing and enjoying the level that you are at – what we call enrichment.' Professor Leader believes Cameron will do better in the long run if he stops trying to progress so quickly. And although Cameron does want to finish his current degree, he isn't making any academic plans **beyond** that. He goes to a weekly karate class after school. And recently, he went to a computer games convention with some friends from karate.

Since turning fourteen, Cameron's feelings **towards** girls have changed. As he puts it, 'I started to like them instead of being disgusted by them.' He's even been on a first date – without his parents. And in general, he feels less isolated and unusual than he did before. 'There are other people like me – high maths abilities, bad school lives – I am not alone. Spooky.'

1. **Read and choose the correct answers for the questions (1–5).**

**1** Between the ages of four and ten, Cameron ……
a demonstrated outstanding ability in maths.
b allowed his passion for numbers to dominate his life.
c excelled at various school subjects.
d didn't really fulfil his promise at maths.

**2** Cameron's problems with communication..………
a have been getting worse recently.
b haven't been affecting his popularity at school.
c are irrelevant when he's doing maths.
d have been interfering with his ability to do maths work.

**3** Cameron met a boy at his new school who …..…
a has something in common with him.
b has even more severe problems with communication.
c is even better at maths.
d took a strong dislike to him from the first day.

**4** Professor Leader thinks Cameron should ……….
a continue with his degree.
b have a temporary break from his degree.
c give up maths completely for a few years.
d try to increase the speed of his progress.

2. **Look at the prepositions and prepositional phrases (1 10) below. Match them with the highlighted prepositions in the text.**

1 considering of …………………………

2 together with ……………………………
3 about…………………………
4 with……………………………
5 before……………………………
6 apart from ……………………………
7 past/further than ……………………………
8 right through……………………………
9 because………………………….
10 regarding……………………………

**SECRET MILLIONAIRE Secret Millionaire is a reality TV show with a difference. The participants come on the programme to possibly give away thousands of pounds.**

In the programme, millionaires go undercover to deprived areas of Britain, where they volunteer in the local community. For a fortnight they give up their affluent lifestyle and live with little money in substandard accommodation. Their experiences often prompt them to hand over life-changing sums of money to deserving individuals and institutions. At the end, they reveal who they actually are.

There have been eight series of the programme in the UK so far, with millions of pounds being given away to good causes. While watching the programmes, it's sometimes hard to tell who is benefiting most from the relationship. All of the people involved have talked about how it has changed their lives. But interestingly, it seemed that it was the millionaires who found their experiences the most rewarding. Some discovered that there are more important things in life than making money, and forged lasting relationships with the people they met.

**A HILARY DEVEY,** who, as a single mother, risked everything to start up a now hugely successful transport company, lives on her own in her enormous mansion. She returned incognito to the place she grew up in, and one of the projects she got involved in was a local community support centre which was in danger of closing. The centre provides marriage counselling, support for single parents and homeless people and so on. She funded the centre and provided more facilities for it. Hilary is still a regular

visitor to the centre, and feels she now has friends who value her for the person she is, not her money.

**B NICK LESLAU** is one of Britain's wealthiest property tycoons and lives in luxury with his family in London. He went to Glasgow and worked in a poor area with severely disabled people. He was astonished at how friendly and kind everyone was, even though they didn't know anything about him. Although he has always donated money to various charities, he found it immensely rewarding to get involved directly for once. He said he felt privileged to have met some of society's genuine heroes – people who work tirelessly to help others.

**C KAVITA OBEROI** is a 38-year-old IT millionaire whose sole interest in life, apart from her family, was making money. Her views completely changed when she went to a centre for disadvantaged girls in Manchester. She used to believe that people were poor because they didn't try to improve their lives. When she got involved with the girls' centre, she realised that people often need help and support to do their best. She realised that her own mother had sacrificed a lot so that Kavita could have a good education. Kavita became a director of the group and is helping it to go national to support more young women.

**D JAMES BENAMORE**, a tough financial dealer now worth £77 million, used to have a drug problem himself. He waved goodbye to his wife and children and went to a crime-ridden area of Manchester. He worked in a centre for teenagers who were excluded from mainstream education and found that they had no confidence in themselves, nor any belief that any effort they made would make any difference. James donated money to the centre so that children who worked hard earned rewards in the form of trips and outings. He also offered some teenagers a month's work experience at his company. He was delighted to see how their attitudes changed, and has set up the scheme permanently.

3. **Then read questions 1–10 below. Read text and match A–D to the questions. Which millionaire ...**
   1 met young people who believed they were unable to improve their lives?

   2 had changed his/her opinions by the end of the programme?

3 presently lives on his/her own?

4 was really impressed by the charity workers he/she met?

5 found it was better to get involved rather than just donate money?

6 went back to his/her hometown?

7 gave people the chance to work for him/her?

8 had been greatly helped by a member of his/her own family?

9 was surprised that people who didn't know him/her were so nice to him/her?

10 had to overcome addiction problems in his/her youth?

**4. Read the whole text and choose the best summary.**

A) In a reality show, the millionaires had a 14-day experience with the people in need. They gave away large sums of money to the charities and they found that experience worthwhile.

B) In a reality show, the millionaires had to donate a large amount of money to socially disadvantaged people. The people who met the millionaires had a life-changing experience.

**1. Read the whole text and choose the best summary (a or b).**
a Obese children can learn to lose weight permanently by addressing their psychological needs.
b Obese children need to learn that exercise and a good diet are the only ways to reduce their weight.

> **CHANGING BODIES, CHANGING LIVES**
>
> Research shows that over the past twenty years, obesity among children and adolescents in America has risen dramatically. This increase in body weight can be explained by greater inactivity at home, a decrease in physical education at school, and an increased use of cars and buses for getting to and from school. Add to this, missing breakfast and inconsistent meal patterns throughout the day, consuming less than five servings of fruit and vegetables, drinking sugary soft drinks, and the result is that obesity is now the most common chronic paediatric illness.
>
> There is also evidence to suggest that people are not prioritizing their health. The increased trend for eating out strongly correlates with obesity. Apparently, the priority when eating out is value for money.
> This has resulted in larger portions being chosen over the healthy options, and the same applies to supermarket shopping. People tend to choose larger quantities of cheap food over smaller quantities of
> healthy, better quality food.
>
> The health risks associated with being overweight at any age are well documented. It is believed to contribute to five of the leading causes of death in America: heart disease, strokes, high blood pressure, cancer, and diabetes. What isn't fully appreciated is the psychological effect that obesity has on overweight teenagers. Indeed, research shows that overweight teens often face social and psychological challenges that can have permanent consequences.
>
> In America, where obesity is prevalent, an increasingly popular solution to the problem is weight-loss camps. These camps are designed to maximize long-term changes, which result in substantial and sustained weight loss. Therefore, as well as hoping that many children will lose 4–5 pounds each week, the camps also try to provide young people with the necessary tools, decision-making skills, and strategies to control their weight permanently.

Not only do the weight-loss camps want children to lose weight, they want them to have a good time while doing so. Consequently, in between therapy sessions, they provide instruction in adventure-based sports such as white-water rafting, rock climbing, surfing, and hiking. In addition, some camps offer individualized educational programmes that take advantage of the children's expected increase in energy and self-esteem. Hopefully by the time school starts again, they'll be leaps and bounds ahead of their classmates.

**2. Read the text carefully. Answer the questions (1–5) by choosing one of the options that matches the information in the text. Circle a, b, c, or d.**

1 What is the result of the change in lifestyle in American children?
a A campaign has started to increase activity at home and physical education at school.
b People's diets are now becoming healthier and more consistent.
c Obesity has overtaken all other medical problems among young people.
d There has been a fall in the number of obese children.

2 What other factors do consumers consider when deciding about their diet?
a Whether healthier options are more available in restaurants or supermarkets.
b If eating out is less expensive than cooking from fresh ingredients.
c If supermarkets serve larger portions than restaurants.
d Whether it is worth spending money on small quantities of better food, or large amounts of cheap food.

3 What fact are many people unaware of?
a Five leading causes of death are probably linked to obesity.
b Being overweight affects people of different ages.
c That for many people, obesity is permanent.
d Obesity is the source of psychological and social issues for teenagers.

4 What is the primary aim of weight-loss camps in America?
a For each child to lose a few pounds while staying at the camp.
b For young people to learn ways to manage their weight in the long run.
c For children to come to terms with their weight issues and to share these with others.
d To raise awareness in young people about the importance of managing their diet.

**3. Read the text and find words in the text with the meanings. The paragraph numbers are in brackets.**

**A nation of immigrants**

**1** If you walk down a street in Britain, especially in the bigger cities, you will usually see a very diverse mix of people. These people of different races and colours are all part of multicultural Britain. About 8% of the population is originally from

another country – that's about 4.6 million people – and in London more than 300 languages are spoken.

**2** What many people don't know is that Britain has always been a mixed-race society. The first people to settle in Britain were Celts, who probably came from Spain. But it was the Romans who brought the first big changes to the culture of the island, building an effective road structure, towns, and houses. The Roman occupation, which lasted from 43 ad to 410 ad, was followed by invasions by Saxons (from Germany), Vikings (from Scandinavia) and Normans (from France). The Normans, who invaded in 1066, had the greatest influence on Britain, establishing a legal and administrative system in the country. French was the official language in Britain for over 300 years!

**3** In the 1660s, as Britain's trading empire grew, the slave trade began to bring many people from Africa to work in the houses of rich British families. By the end of the 1700s, there were about 20,000 black people living in London, but in 1833 the slave trade was abolished throughout the British Empire.

**4** The British Empire during the 1700s and 1800s was very powerful. It controlled many places across the world, such as India, several African countries, and the West Indies (the islands of the Caribbean, including Jamaica). As a result, many aspects of British culture, such as sport, were imported there, and the people learnt English. They also fought for Britain, most notably in the First and Second World Wars.

**5** In the 1880s Jewish people from Russia came to Britain to escape prejudice in their own country. Irish settlers arrived during the same period, to find a new way of life away from the poverty and famine in Ireland. And new trade with India and China brought people from these countries to the main ports in Britain – Liverpool, Bristol, and London.

**6** From 1948 until the 1970s, Britain experienced a period of mass immigration. After the Second World War, Britain needed help to rebuild the country. In 1948, a boat called the Empire Windrush arrived from the West Indies, carrying the first of many thousands of West Indians who settled in Britain during the 1950s and 1960s, mostly in the industrialized cities of London, Birmingham, and Manchester. Workers also arrived from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh.

**7** Inevitably there were tensions between some of the new immigrant communities and the white British population, and race relations laws were introduced in the 1960s to make it illegal to refuse housing, employment or public services to people because of their ethnic background. The British government also began to restrict immigration, and by 1972, only holders of work permits, or people with parents or grandparents born in Britain could settle there.

**8** Nevertheless, since 1970 there has been a continuous flow of people into Britain. Many of them have been refugees, escaping from wars and persecution in places such as Uganda, Bosnia, Somalia, and Albania. In 2006, 143,000 people were allowed to settle in Britain. As the European Union expanded, allowing for the free movement of people, there was a huge increase in the number of temporary immigrant workers from Central and Eastern Europe. The Polish community in particular grew faster than any other, and the total number of Poles living in Britain in 2007 was estimated to be ¾ of a million. At the same time, of course, many British people continue to settle in other EU countries, and beyond.

**9** Being a multicultural society has had an enormous impact on Britain's history and identity: its immigrants have established the systems of government, added to its wealth, commerce, and industry, and influenced music, art, sport, and diet (many people now consider curry to be Britain's national dish!). Everyone in Britain is descended from immigrants – it's just a question of how far back you want to go.

1 different from each other
2 the main groups that humans can be divided into because of their physical appearance
3 decide to live somewhere permanently
4 dislike of people because of their race, religion, etc.
5 lack of food in a country
6 going into a country to live there
7 belonging to a particular race of people
8 a steady movement in one direction
9 people who have to leave their country because of danger
10 cruel treatment of people because of their race, religion, etc.
11 people who join together because of religion, nationality, interests, etc.
12 related to people who lived a long time ago

**4. Why did large groups of these people leave their countries to come to Britain? Match the ethnic groups (1–8) to the reasons (a–h).**

1 Romans, Saxons and Normans .............

2 Africans ..............
3 Russian Jews ..............
4 Irish..............
5 Chinese ..............
6 West Indians and Asians ..............
7 Bosnians and Somalis ..............
8 Poles ..............

a to do trade with the British
b to get away from prejudice
c to work as slaves
d to invade Britain
e to work elsewhere in the EU
f to help Britain after the war
g to live in safety from war
h to escape extreme hunger

# APPENDIX-I: A Learning Log Sample

Ek 4                    CSR LEARNING LOG

**Name:** Rabia Terzi      **Class:** 3-B1      **Date:**

**Topic:** Creating that winning image

**Before Reading**

**Brainstrom:** What do you already know about the topic?

I already know for winning image is necessary creating

**Prediction:** What do you predict you will learn by reading this passage?

I think this passage is telling us that we should wear
in business life.

**During Reading**

**Clunks:** Please list your clunks.

| Clunks | | | Fix-up strategies |
|---|---|---|---|
| purse | = | a women's handbag | 1 2 3 4 |
| conservatirely | = | disposed to preserve exciting condition | 1 2 3 4 |
| candidates | = | a person who is selected by others | 1 2 3 4 |

**Gist (main idea):** Write the gists of the paragraphs you read.

* Our appearance and image at an interview are very
  important.

**After Reading**

**Wrap-up:** Write questions about the important ideas in the passage, Ask your group members to check if the members in your group understood what they read.

which color men can wear for suit?
  → navy blue or dark gray suit.

**Review:** What did you learn from this reading passage? Write a summary.

→ I learned if we want increase our choice of
success, we should wear appropriate.

# APPENDIX-J: Ethics Committee Approval

**T.C.**
**HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ**
Rektörlük

3 0 Ekim 2017

Sayı : 35853172/ 433 _ 3566

### EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi:   06.10.2017 tarih ve 2057 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden **Sinem BALYALI**'nın **Yrd. Doç. Dr. İsmail Fırat ALTAY** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü **"Türk Yetişkin Dil Öğrencilerinin İşbirlikçi Stratejik Okuma Derslerinde Motivasyonu, Katılımı ve Performansı /Turkish Adult EFL Learners' Motivation, Participation and Performance in Collaborative Strategic Reading Classes"** başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **10 Ekim 2017** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Rahime M. NOHUTCU
Rektör a.
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# APPENDIX-K: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that…

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

21 / 06 / 2019

Sinem BALYALI YILMAZ

# APPENDIX-L: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

## HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY

### Graduate School of Educational Sciences

### To The Department of Foreign Languages Education

Thesis Title : Turkish Adult EFL Learners' Motivation, Participation and Performance in Collaborative Strategic Reading Classes

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

| Time Submitted | Page Count | Character Count | Date of Thesis Defence | Similarity Index | Submission ID |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 06/07/2019 | 147 | 276,010 | 21/06/2019 | 18% | 1127887461 |

Filtering options applied:
1. Bibliography excluded
2. Quotes included
3. Match size up to 5 words excluded

I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

| | |
|---|---|
| **Name Lastname:** | Sinem BALYALI YILMAZ |
| **Student No.:** | N13226028 |
| **Department:** | Department of Foreign Languages Education |
| **Program:** | Program of English Language Teaching |
| **Status:** | ☒ Masters    ☐ Ph.D.    ☐ Integrated Ph.D. |

Signature

## ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED
Assist. Prof. Dr. İsmail Fırat ALTAY

# APPENDIX-M: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan **"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına ilişkin Yönerge"** kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. [1]

- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren ... ay ertelenmiştir. [2]

- o Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. [3]
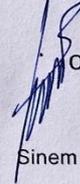
09 / 07 / 2019

(imza)

Sinem BALYALI YILMAZ

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"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

(1) Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü tezle ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.

(2) Madde 6. 2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.

(3) Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir*. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.
Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir

* Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.