EFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES ON READING STRATEGIES AND STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN UNIVERSITY LEVEL READING CLASSES

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Thesis Abstract

Burcu Varol, "EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices on Reading Strategies and Strategy Instruction in University Level Reading Classes"

The present study aimed to explore EFL teachers' beliefs on reading strategies and the instruction of them and to investigate their actual classroom practices on pre, while and post-reading types. In order to identify teachers' beliefs regarding reading strategies, a questionnaire was administered to forty two reading teachers teaching at the DBE (Department of Basic English), YTU (Yıldız Technical University) at the beginning of the second term of the 2008-2009 academic year. The questionnaire consisted of three different parts with the first of them questioning teachers' individual background. There were five points Likert-type items in the second and third parts adapted from Chou (2008), Grabe and Stoller (2002), Sallı (2002) with the necessary adjustments made after piloting the questionnaire. Following the collection of the questionnaire, three teachers were chosen for the observations by looking at the distribution of answers they reported in the questionnaire. The lessons of these three reading teachers were observed weekly throughout the spring term of the 2008-2009 academic year. With the end of the observations, semi-structured interviews were conducted with these three observed teachers and two other teachers taking the questionnaire in order to capture a deeper understanding of teachers' beliefs and the rationale behind their practices. SPSS 16 was used to complete the quantitative analysis; accordingly frequencies and percentages were run for the questionnaire. Furthermore, to decide which type of strategies (i.e. pre, while or post) was favored and practiced by teachers most, one way within subjects ANOVA was computed. NVivo 8 software was employed for the qualitative analysis of the observations and interviews. The recurring themes provided more detailed insights into teachers' beliefs and classroom applications of reading strategies.

It was recorded that on the whole reading teachers of the DBE, YTU valued pre-reading strategies more than while or post-reading types. In response to the question how teachers' beliefs were reflected in their classroom practices, pre and while reading strategies were discovered to be equally employed types whereas post-reading strategies did not get much attention. Specifically, teachers reported both valuing and practicing guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context strategy the most. In addition to these, the participants of this study were noted to conform to the steps of strategy training lessons as they are suggested by the literature. Accordingly, they performed explicit strategy instruction, modeling the strategy, guided and free practice stages in the observed sessions. Moreover, the reading department of the DBE, YTU was acknowledged to put much emphasis on extensive reading through a variety of different activities. The participant teachers also expressed their appreciation of these extensive reading activities since they help extend the internalization of reading strategies and in turn lead to successful reading skills. Finally, the findings of this study were discussed in comparison to similar studies in the literature and pedagogical implications for EFL teachers were drawn.

Tez Özeti

Burcu Varol, "İngilizce öğretmenlerinin üniversite düzeyi okuma sınıflarında okuma stratejileri ve okuma stratejileri öğretimi hakkında inançları ve uygulamaları"

Bu çalışma İngilizce öğretmenlerinin okuma öncesi, okuma esnası ve okuma sonrası stratejilerine dair inançları ve uygulamalarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Öğretmenlerin okuma stratejileriyle ilgili inançlarını belirlemek amacıyla, 2008-2009 akademik yılı ikinci yarı yıl başında YTÜ (Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi) Temel İngilizce Bölümü'nde (TİB) görev yapan kırk iki okuma dersi öğretmenine bir anket uygulanmıştır. Anket ilk kısmı öğretmenlerin bireysel geçmişini sorgulayan kısımla birlikte üç farklı bölümden oluşmaktadır. Anketin ikinci ve üçüncü kısmında Chou (2008), Grabe ve Stoller (2002), Sallı (2002)'den uyarlanıp pilot çalışmasının ardından gerekli ayarlamalar yapılan beşli skalalı Likert-tipi maddeler bulunmaktadır. Anketin toplanmasını takiben anketteki cevaplarının dağılımına bakılarak üç öğretmen gözlemler için seçildi. 2008-2009 akademik yılı bahar yarı yılı boyunca bu üç öğretmenin dersleri haftalık olarak gözlemlendi. Gözlemlerin bitmesiyle birlikte öğretmenlerin inançlarına ve uygulamalarının arkasında yatan mantığa dair daha derin bir kavrayış yakalamak için gözlemlenen bu üç öğretmen ve ankete katılan iki başka öğretmenle yarı planlanmış görüşmeler uygulanmıştır. Niceliksel analizi tamamlamak için SPSS 16 programı kullanılmıştır, bu doğrultuda anketin sıklık ve yüzde hesaplamaları yapılmıştır. Bundan başka, öğretmenler tarafından hangi tip stratejilerin (örn. okuma öncesi, okuma esnası ya da okuma sonrası) daha çok beğenildiği ve uygulandığına karar vermek için katılımcılar arası tek yönlü ANOVA testi uygulanmıştır. Gözlemlerin ve görüşmelerin niteliksel analizi için NVivo 8 yazılımından faydalanılmıştır. Tekrarlayan temalar öğretmenlerin okuma stratejilerine dair inançları ve sınıf içi uygulamalarıyla ilgili daha derin anlayışlar kazandırmıştır.

YTÜ, TİB okuma dersi öğretmenlerinin genelde okuma öncesi stratejileri okuma esnası ya da sonrası stratejilerden daha değerli bulduğu kaydedilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin inançlarının sınıf içi uygulamalarına nasıl yansıdığı sorusuna cevap olarak, okuma sonrası stratejileri çok da fazla ilgi çekmezken, okuma öncesi ve esnası stratejilerinin eşit bir şekilde kullanıldığı görülmüştür. Özellikle, öğretmenler içerikten yararlanarak bilinmeyen kelimenin anlamının tahmin edilmesi stratejini hem daha çok takdir ettikleri ve daha çok uyguladıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Bunlara ek olarak, bu çalışmanın katılımcılarının strateji eğitiminde izlenen adımlara literatürde de önerildiği şekliyle uyduğu belirlenmiştir. Bununla birlikte, gözlenilen öğretmenler stratejilerin açık bir şekilde öğretimi, strateji modelleme, destekli ve serbest strateji pratiği aşamalarını gerçekleştirmişlerdir. Dahası YTÜ, TİB'in okuma bölümünün çeşitli aktiviteler yardımıyla kapsamlı okumayı oldukça vurguladıkları fark edilmiştir. Katılımcı öğretmenler de okuma stratejilerinin içselleştirilmesinin arttırılmasına yardımcı olarak başarılı okuma becerileri sağlayan bu kapsamlı okuma aktivitelerini takdir ettiklerini ifade etmişlerdir. Son olarak bu çalışmanın sonuçları literatürdeki benzer çalışmalarla kıyaslanarak tartışılıp İngiliz dili eğitimi öğretmenleri için pedagojik sonuçlar çıkartılmıştır.

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To my family

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Reading is one of the most important language skills for both first and second language learners. Urquhart and Weir (1998) describe reading as "the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print" (p. 22). In reading literature, process models to reading are the most commonly referred theories. Starting with Gough's (1972; as cited in Urquhart & Weir, 1998) bottom-up model which takes reading as a sequence of activities that go on after the completion of the previous one, there has been many debates onto the nature of reading. Reading research in first language, especially the theories of Goodman (1967) and Smith (1994) who conceived reading not only as a linear process but as a process in which readers constantly make guesses, test their predictions and use their prior experience to attach meaning to the text, constituted the base of second language studies. Following this theory of reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game, early second language researchers also approached reading as an active process of readers' text comprehension through his/her background knowledge or appropriate strategies (Clarke & Silberstein, 1977; Coady, 1979). More recent theorists, however, have seen reading as an interactive process in which there is a two-way interaction between the text and the reader together with his/her prior knowledge (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988; Carrell, Devine & Eskey, 1988).

In second language reading, some linguistic and cognitive constraints may interfere with meaning. That is why it is highly urgent to provide learners with the necessary skills to overcome these obstacles. One way of this for language teachers is to equip learners with reading strategies that will help them in the comprehension process.

Reading research both in first and second language has recently put much emphasis on effective strategies that readers use in the comprehension process. Strategies have gained various definitions and their distinction from "skills" is seen hard to make (Paris, Wasik & Turner, 1996). Carrell, Gajdusek and Wise (1998) point out that "the term 'strategies' emphasizes the reader's active participation and actual way of doing something, or the reader's performance, whereas the term 'skills' may suggest the reader's competence or only passive abilities which are not necessarily activated" (p. 97). For Wallace (2003) also reader strategies are "the varying ways of dealing with problems confronted in the course of reading" (p.20). Taking these definitions into account, reading strategies in this study are defined as the process of how readers deal with a task, how they understand the text they read and what they do when they do not understand. Readers use these strategies to improve reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures (Singhal, 2001).

Research has proved that there is a close relationship between reading comprehension and the frequency plus variety of reading strategies made use of (Bimmel & Van Schooten, 2004). For instance, Ness (2009) claims that "when teachers explain and model a single comprehension strategy or multiple strategies, as well as provide guided and independent practice with feedback until students begin to use the strategy independently, the reading levels of middle and high school

students improve" (p.144). In the light of this vast amount of evidence, she puts forward that it is wise to increase reading comprehension through explicit instruction on comprehension strategies. Also, the relationship between reading strategy application and successful or unsuccessful reading has been substantiated by several research studies (Block, 1986; Hosenfeld, 1977). Successful readers or ("proficient") are defined by Goodman (1988) as readers who are effective and efficient in reading as proficient readers that make use of assimilation and accommodation processes to get the message of a text.

Although numerous studies have shown a substantial relationship between reading strategy use and the success or nonsuccess of reading, this relationship is not always straightforward. Anderson (1991), for instance, exemplified in his study with Spanish learners of English that successful and unsuccessful readers may happen to use similar strategies. However, it was revealed that the group of successful readers demonstrates a higher proficiency in reading comprehension test. Therefore, he concludes that it is not only the type or number of strategies that readers use what matters, but how readers make use of those strategies is also a necessary component of a successful reading. Teachers can help students improve efficiency in reading by encouraging them to use a combination of top-down and bottom-up processes. In fact, Urquhart and Weir (1998) argue that overusing either top-down or bottom-up processes over the other can impair reading.

In Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, it is emphasized that adults improve cognitive development systematically and purposefully based on meaningful and challenging activities. Self-dialogue and interaction with others are indispensible elements for human cognition as dialogue is seen as the basis of individual's interaction and learning from each other.

Metacognition also takes a crucial part in this theory for adults dwell on how they think and use cognitive processing to remember. In terms of reading, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory means students' involvement in the reading process. According to this theory, systematic and intentional cognitive development is advocated via real-world experiences to direct human beings to teach themselves through inner-dialogue and interaction with others. Consecutively, metacognitive awareness has been explained as planning and consciously employing proper strategies to reach a specific target (Auerbach & Paxton, 1997; Carrell, Pharis & Liberto, 1989).

Following Urquhart and Weir's (1998) definition, in this thesis reading strategies possess these features: (a) they are in essence problem-solving, (b) they are goal-oriented, (c) they are intentional, (d) they are selective and effective, (e) in some cases speed is involved, (f) they are consciously employed, and (g) they are teachable.

Researchers distinguish strategies as cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and in strategy training metacognitive ones hold as much importance as cognitive ones. As Carrell et al. (1998) point out: "One reason metacognition is significant is that if learners are not aware of when comprehension is breaking down and what they can do about it, strategies introduced by the teacher will fail" (p. 100). They elaborate on metacognitive skills by making it distinct that there are two components involved in metacognition: one is knowledge; the other one is control. Knowledge component constitutes what readers know about their cognitive resources, whereas control includes the regulation of cognition, in such situations where the awareness of and ability to realize contradictions in a text, knowledge of different strategies to

use through different text types, and the ability to distinguish important from unimportant information are required (Carrell et al; 1998).

Carrell (1987) has also identified the function of self-regulatory metacognitive strategies as:

> (a) clarifying the purposes of reading, that is, understanding both the explicit and implicit task demands; (b) identifying the important aspects of a message; (c) focusing attention on the major content rather than trivia; (d) monitoring ongoing activities to determine whether comprehension is occurring; (e) engaging in self-questioning to determine whether goals are being achieved, and (f) taking corrective action when failures in comprehension are detected. (p. 239)

As reading strategies have proved to be related to successful reading behavior and with the integration of metacognitive component to the reading research literature, the issue of direct explanation of strategies has gained momentum. Winograd and Hare (1988, as cited in Carrell et al, 1998) draw a sketch of the steps of strategy training. In their list first comes the teacher explanation of what strategy is, in that teachers should provide the definition or description of the strategy. Next, teachers should make it clear why students should learn a strategy by explaining its purposes and benefits to lead way to self-control of students over the strategy. Thirdly, teachers should explain how to apply the strategy and provide various examples where explanation is only not sufficient. The fourth step is to state where and when it is appropriate to use the strategy. Lastly, teachers should explicate how students can evaluate whether their use of strategy is successful or unsuccessful.

Research studies have also proved that good and poor readers differ in terms of strategies they use and how they implement those strategies. Therefore, it has been suggested that the strategies "can be compared to the strategies of successful readers and the results of this comparison can appear on a 'computer print-out' specifying the students' strategies that are in good working order and those that are defective" (Hosenfeld, 1977; p. 111).

On the other hand, in recent years, researchers have come to an agreement on that teachers' personal beliefs and philosophies on teaching together with their perceptions on how students learn play a critical role in their decision-making process and actual classroom processes (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Smith, 1993). Bandura (1997) also claims that teachers' instructional practices, their choice of activities, their willingness for teaching and persistence are dependent on their beliefs in their skills to instruct and effect students' performance.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the belief systems that teachers have can in turn affect their perceptions and judgments as well as their teaching behavior in classrooms (Brookhart &Freeman, 1992; Goodman, 1988; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Weinstein, 1989).

There is a bulk of differing terms for naming teachers' "mental world", including *beliefs, perceptions, cognition* and *views*. Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984), for instance, preferred the term *perspectives* which they believe to include both teachers' beliefs related to their job and the representations of these beliefs in their teaching environment as an important factor in determining their actions.

Following the work of Williams and Burden (1997), a constructivist view on language teachers' beliefs was adopted for this study. In this vein, teachers are perceived as knowing and meaning-making creatures, and this knowledge and meaning components are accepted to influence their practices. These beliefs are also seen as specific to situations and action oriented compared to other general ideologies, and they are comprised of teachers' beliefs about their work together with the ways they assign meaning to these beliefs through their classroom practice (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Rueda and Garcia (1994) assert that it is urgent in exploring teachers' belief systems that more private and unrecognized beliefs which are

reflected in specific situations or practices must be taken into consideration as well as their reported general statement.

In the setting of this study which is Yıldız Technical University (YTU from now on), the coordinators of reading courses integrate reading strategies into every step of the course. They present almost all of the useful cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the reading pack which was initially prepared to accompany reading course book. Therefore, teachers should be knowledgeable about these strategies and believe in their effectiveness in enhancing reading comprehension in order to provide instruction on them in the classrooms.

Statement of the Problem

The School of Foreign Languages at YTU has two branches: Department of Basic English (DEB from now on) and Modern Languages Department (MLD from now on). In DEB students receive preparatory English education prior to their education at their major departments. They continue to take Advanced English courses at MLD when they start their undergraduate programs. At the beginning of each academic year, students are distributed into three levels of classes: A, B or C according to their proficiency level determined by the exemption test. This study's focus is on students at level C who have four hours of reading lessons each week. There are four different courses for each level: course book, reading, writing, listening and speaking. In reading courses, which are our focus, classes are designed around various activities. There is a regular reading course book they follow, *Issues for Today*, and a complementary reading pack which was prepared to present missing strategies and to provide practice opportunities in them and in vocabularies that are presented in the

course book. They read the complete texts from the course book and study strategies on paragraph basis from the workbook. In addition to this, as extensive reading activities there are reading circles, article presentation and graded readers. In reading circle activity, students are provided with 2 to 4 pages long texts which are carefully chosen in accordance with their interests. The tasks are to read and study the text in-depth at home and participate in the vocabulary, comprehension and creativity activities in class upon which they are graded. In article presentation tasks, students choose an up to date article, read it and present it to the class, like the graded reader activity.

As it can be seen, in all of the stages of this course, students are involved in reading, therefore comprehending. The place of strategies in increasing reading comprehension is undeniable now that it was proved by a plethora of research. To make use of these reading strategies effectively, learners must be instructed and provided with many opportunities to practice what they have learned. Teachers, on the other hand, have to possess necessary skills and knowledge to provide instruction on reading strategies and to model them. However, the teachers at DEB may sometimes complain about the intensity of reading strategies and activities of reading classes. Some of them state their doubts on the usefulness of training students on reading strategies.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to investigate what the perceptions of teachers on explicit reading strategy instruction are, how they implement strategy instruction in their classes and specifically which strategies they emphasize in their reported beliefs and in their instruction. Specifically, this study will address these research questions:

1. What are EFL teachers' beliefs on reading strategies and explicit reading strategy instruction for reading comprehension in reading classes?
2. Is there a difference in the degree of importance teachers attach to pre-, while, and post-reading strategies?
3. What are the actual reading strategy instruction practices reported by the teachers in reading classes?
4. Is there a difference in the actual application of pre-, while and post-reading strategies reported by teachers?
5. Is there a correlation between teachers' beliefs and reported practices?
6. How do actual classroom practices of teachers, who attach high, moderate, and low importance to reading strategies, show similarities and differences?

In order to find answers to these questions, the study aims to find out reading teachers' beliefs on strategy training and their classroom practices regarding strategies as they report and observe their actual employment of reading strategies in their courses.

Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to explore EFL teachers' beliefs on explicit strategy instruction in reading classes at YTU and their classroom practices. This study also targets to reveal teachers' actual classroom instances as regards to reading strategies as well as investigating the most and least used strategy types (including the preferences between pre, while and post reading strategies).

Significance of the Problem

Reading strategies as an instrument of reading comprehension have an immense place in promoting effective reading skills since it is believed that "students who monitor their reading comprehension, adjust their reading rates, consider their objectives, and so on, tend to be better readers" (Grabe, 1991, p.394). Therefore, it is highly important for foreign language students to be trained and practice reading strategies during their education. On reading strategy instruction Grabe and Stoller (2002) argue "... the goal of reading instruction is not to teach individual reading strategies but rather to develop strategic readers, a development process that requires intensive instructional efforts over a considerable period of time" (p.82).

Hence, in order to help students solve their comprehension problems and ease their reading comprehension, they should be presented with appropriate reading strategies on the way to become a strategic reader. Teachers have an immense role in promoting students the use of effective strategies. Therefore, they should have the necessary knowledge and willingness to instruct students on strategies. They should know which strategy to teach, in what steps they should present strategies and how to evaluate students' proper use of those strategies.

Bearing these in mind, it is highly urgent to investigate how teachers perceive the issue of strategy training and how they report making use of these strategies in their classroom environment. In order to reveal teachers' underlying beliefs and their actual practices, an in-depth study is required whose results would depict how teachers actually implement reading strategies. Therefore, this study aims to provide information on these aspects as it is accepted that the change starts with the teacher.

The results of this study demonstrate teachers' beliefs and practices on reading strategy which could direct the reading coordinators to revise the course books or supplementary materials in the light of findings. These changes could improve the quality of L2 reading instruction and contribute to students' becoming lifelong strategic readers as reading is not only an academic requirement but a lifetime enjoyment also. In addition to these, this study could contribute to the literature on teachers' perception on reading strategy instruction by revealing the discrepancies or matching points between teachers' beliefs and their practices. This can inform us about the strategies which are believed to be useful and which are not to integrate them into the textbooks accordingly.

Overall, the present study contributes to the research field on both teachers' perceptions and reading strategy instruction. As a comparatively recent field, teacher cognition has made great progress over the last years and showed the substantial need for uncovering teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2003). Though there were studies on the relationship between teachers' perceptions of reading strategies and their classroom practices, no examples of studying teachers' perceptions on individual reading strategies by separating them as pre, while and post-reading types were recorded. Furthermore, there were few instances of triangulation of data with the help of such a detailed questionnaire, systematic observations and immediate interviews.

Conclusion

The following chapter of this study will cover the related literature review and some examples of related research studies. In chapter three, the methodological design of this study together with the participants, settings, research instruments and their

implementation will be presented. In the next chapter, the results of the data obtained through questionnaires, observations and interviews will be discussed. Finally, the last chapter will summarize the study, discuss the findings, present the limitations of the study and the pedagogical implications obtained.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

At the beginning of this chapter the description of reading in the both first and second language is provided together with the theoretical basis of the present study. Then, the chapter continues with different approaches to reading, such as bottom-up, top-down and interactive approaches. Next, a brief explanation of schemata theory is explicated followed by issues, like automatic word recognition, and motivation in reading. Learner strategies in general and reading strategies are the following topics covered in this chapter. The place of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading strategy instruction is discussed next. The chapter ends with a brief elaboration on teachers' perceptions of reading strategies and reading instruction in general.

Reading

Reading is without doubt one of the most important of all four skills. It gains even much more importance in a second language context as linguistic constraints such as limited vocabulary or grammar knowledge interfere with meaning. Reading is described by Grabe (1991) as fluent, purposeful, interactive, flexible, improving step by step and including comprehension. Also, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) conceive reading as the interaction between the text, the reader and the context in which

reading occurs as well as being a process in which metacognitive knowledge and the deliberate use of strategies take part. Reading research in first language in part was inspired from Goodman's (1967) theory of reading which sees it as a psycholinguistic guessing game involving "an interaction between thought and language" (p.127). According to Goodman, reading is a selective process which progresses by making partial use of visual information based on the reader's expectations to later on confirm, reject or refine the decisions taken. Reading is not sequential decoding of graphical information step by step, but anticipation is in the center of meaning reconstruction for this theory.

For Urquhart and Weir (1998), reading is "a language activity" which involves all cognitive components related to linguistic performance at a certain time. In their framework, reading integrates cognitive aspects, like reading strategies of making inferences, memorizing, activating prior knowledge, and decoding skills with syntactic and lexical knowledge of language.

Kintsch (2004) proposes three different levels of representation of reading comprehension: micro-level, macro-level and situation models. Micro structure represents proposition level understanding of the networks of propositions. Macro structures, on the other hand, are mental representations of a text at a global level (e.g. gist level) which include hierarchies of propositions. Macro propositions generally include inferences made by the reader with regard to the parts not explicitly stated in the text. It is most frequently based on the conventions of rhetorical text organization. Finally, situation models take goals, interests, beliefs and prior knowledge of the reader account. It is at this phase the interplay between readers' goals, background knowledge and texts contributes to ultimate comprehension.

Second language reading has to be fluent in order to move smoothly. Fluent reading is described by Alderson (2000) as "rapid, purposeful, motivated, interactive (in terms of component skills as well as in the relation between knowledge and the printed word), it is comprehending… , flexible, and it develops gradually" (p.14). Reading also requires conscious use of strategies with the purpose of reaching necessitated skill or knowledge in the process of reading.

According to Pressley (2002), reading is an active process in which good readers are actively involved by using a number of strategies, and before reading they have a goal to read that text. He defined the strategies that good readers make use of during reading as reading the text from the beginning to the end, skimming some parts, but spending more time on others, pausing, taking notes when necessary, paying attention to the main ideas, especially the ones that are related to their goals, making inferences, monitoring reading activity and using repair strategies and evaluating the text. After finishing reading, they sometimes reread some parts, make a summary and reflection of the text.

Hudson (2007) describes reading as "a complex activity that involves combination of factors, such as: grapheme recognition, phonological representation (perhaps), syntactic structure, background knowledge, processing strategies, text structure, understanding vocabulary (mixed with background knowledge?), and the context of reading act" (p. 289). Alderson (2000) also puts forward that reading is a cognitive, problem solving skill including all linguistic abilities, even the ones that are not related to reading, like listening.

According to Maria (1990), there are several factors that affect the reading process, such as reader, text and teacher. 'Reader' component involves (1) decoding ability, (2) world knowledge, (3) linguistic knowledge, which are vocabulary,

sentence structure, and narrative-expository schemata, (4) metacomprehension (knowledge about a) reading and different reading tasks, b) oneself as a reader, c) use of reading strategies for comprehension and monitoring), (5) interest and motivation. 'Text' component operates at (1) readability level, (2) content and topic, (3) language used, like vocabulary, sentence structure and text coherence/ structure, (4) texts and their purposes, such as basal readers, content area texts and trade books. The 'teacher' on the other hand has management and teaching skills and manage classroom climate.

As reading does not lend itself to easy definitions and conceptualizations, researchers have suggested studying it under components of skills, such as: (a) automatic recognition skills which mainly refers to automaticity in word identification skills for the purpose of fluent reading, (b) vocabulary and structural knowledge which are inevitable components to comprehend written messages in second language, (c) formal discourse structure knowledge, namely being knowledgeable about text organization, (d) content/world background knowledge, in other words prior knowledge about the information in the text, (e) synthesis and evaluation skills/ strategies- the ability to evaluate the texts and synthesize it with other information from different sources, (f) metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring which can be defined as knowledge about and self regulation of cognition. All of these components are accepted as prerequisites for fluent and successful second language reading (Grabe, 1991).

According to this view, reading is no longer just decoding written letters or words nor is it only a "psycholinguistic guessing game" which is formed mainly by the reader's predictions and guesses. It is an interactive process that requires automaticity in word-recognition for the purposes of fluency at one hand, and

readers' content or background knowledge to give sense to reading at the other. Reader is an active participant who has the necessary metacognitive skills to control his/her cognition, not just a passive decoder anymore, and it is this view of reading that this thesis subscribes to while dealing with reading strategies.

Theoretical Background of the Study

A constructivist view to education takes learning as an interactive process, when applied to reading, there must occur an interaction between the reader and the text. In this vein, reader is as important as the text with what background knowledge s/he brings to it. According to social constructivists, meaning is constructed with the help of dialogues, and learning occurs at a step just beyond the learner's current competence. Therefore dialogical learning is important in which at first learning takes place at an interpersonal level, then intrapersonal learning occurs. In social constructivist approach to reading, then, meaning is re-constructed through dialogues between a novice and expert reader. Thus, scaffolding the readers during this construction process by creating opportunities to negotiate the meaning must be the task of the teacher. As Vygotsky's *Zone of Proximal Development* (as cited in Chaiklin, 2003) theory suggests the construction of meaning should be mediated with the use of dialogues and by presenting knowledge which is within the reader's developmental stage. In constructivist terms, therefore, the act of learning is more important than the learning itself (Zhang, 2008). That's why, Zhang (2008) claims that to develop reading strategies of learners with their cooperation in an interactive environment could prove more successful than just developing decoding or vocabulary automaticity. In this study also reading is viewed as the construction of

meaning in a social context in which the reader makes sense of the written material through dialogues and with the help of reading strategies.

Reading in Second Language

Reading in first language differs from reading in second language in many ways, like: second language proficiency, L1 reading ability, reading purpose and age; that's why although second language reading research is informed by first language reading research, there needs to be second language specific research contexts in order to reach valid conclusions. Grabe (1991) states that reading research on second language has taken great attention since the beginning of 1980s. However, he believes that second language reading researchers should focus on what fluent L1 readers do and try to determine how to lead second language readers to that developmental direction. Therefore, one has to look at the development of various approaches in first language reading before analyzing the aspects of second language reading (Hudson, 2007)

Regarding teachers' place in second language reading, Silberstein (1994) noted that teacher acts as a facilitator in a successful second language reading class where students are assigned with problem solving tasks and independently work on efficient strategies to reach their goals. Therefore, the teacher, she says, should make oneself "dispensible".

Different Approaches to Second Language Reading

Bottom-up Model

Bottom-up or data-driven models of reading put the major emphasis on the text. Since the reader is seen to operate from letters to words, then to overall meaning linearly, the process is called lower-level (Anderson, 1999). The history of second language reading was largely occupied with the word-level, bottom-up views of reading which sees reader as a passive decoder. As Carrell (1988) points out reading "was viewed primarily as a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning via recognizing the printed letters and words, building up a meaning for a text from the smallest textual units at the 'bottom' to larger and larger units at the 'top'" (p. 2). Moreover, as Hudson (2007) states, in a bottom-up approach to reading the reader makes sense of the text in a linear manner; that's, deals with the letters, words, clauses and sentence in a sequence and then extracts the meaning.

Top-down Model

In top-down approach, however "a reader approaches a text with conceptualizations above the textual level already in operation and then works down to the text itself" (Hudson, 2007, p.33). In other words, the reader makes use of background knowledge to build the meaning.

In line with this area of research, Goodman's (1967) description of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" has also taken great attention in second language reading literature. In this vein of understanding, meaning is reconstructed through the

constant predictions made by the reader regarding the passage based on his/her background and linguistic knowledge. According to this theory reading is a receptive, psycholinguistic process which embodies language and thought. The definition of a proficient reader is the one which includes efficiency and effectiveness. Therefore an "effective" reader is the one who can construct the meaning by "assimilating" or "accommodating" it in a way to be mostly consistent with the author's intended meaning. In Goodman's (1967) model, reading is a cyclical process where the reader can employ the cycles in sequence to pass one meaning to another. This means that based on his/her understanding from the text and based on his/her already existing knowledge related to that topic, the reader forms hypotheses on the text. If these reconstructions are confirmed by the reader's knowledge, reading flows smoothly. If not, the reader applies some compensatory strategies, like re-reading or holding on to the existing belief.

Without doubt, after the early approaches to reading which handled it as a decoding process, Goodman's theory put the reader into an active place where s/he constructs and confirms predictions based on the relevant linguistic background knowledge s/he has.

Bottom-up and top-down processes are two prominent approaches of reading which have attracted much attention and been the subject of many research studies (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). According to the bottom-up model, as explained above, reading follows a linear path, starting with the recognition of written words going to decoding of meaning in which the reader has a passive role as a decoder. On the contrary, in top-down view, the reader is an active participant in the reading process with the background knowledge s/he brings to the text and upon which s/he constructs meaning (Smith, 1994). Schemata theory forms the center of this approach

since it is the reader who activates the network of related prior knowledge to make sense out of the incoming information. With Coady's (1979) model of top-down reading, the emphasis on reader's background knowledge has greatly increased as in top-down approach the reader is an active participant in the reading process with the interplay of his/her predictions and the text as well as the support from his/her prior knowledge.

Interactive Models

Although top-down approaches to reading have changed the perception of reading researches radically, it is not without faults. According to Eskey (1988), being too much oriented in the reader's abilities to construct meaning through contextual or their background knowledge, top-down approaches underestimate the role of lower order processing skills, like automatic identification of words or grammatical structures. Building on Rumelhart's (2004) interactive model to reading, Eskey (1988) previews the blend of bottom-up and top-down models. Therefore, the good reader turns out to be both a 'decoder' and 'good interpreter' who makes use of every source of information equally to reconstruct the message. With the advent of interactive models in reading, the reader is no longer seen as a passive and receptive decoder, but an active participant in the reading process who reconstructs the meaning that the writer has constructed based on his/her prior knowledge (Anderson, 1999; Maria, 1990).

Researchers now agree that it is neither possible nor adequate to define reading only as lower-level or higher-level processing, but it is a complex process which includes the elements of both (Grabe, 1991). These interactive models assume

the interplay between the text content and the reader's general knowledge to reach the ultimate comprehension.

The interactive approaches which necessitate the interaction both between the text and the reader's prior knowledge and between lower-order processing skills and higher-order processing skills have been the subject of later discussions on reading. Interactive approaches to reading is generally acknowledged as the interaction of bottom-up and top-down processes with differing degrees of each processes in different models (Hudson, 2007). Nuttall (2005) also explains interactive reading as the blend of top-down and bottom-up processes in which the reader can shift the direction from top-down to bottom-up processing in accordance with their needs.

The most important focuses of concern in interactive approaches are the application of lower level skills automatically without worries about comprehension, along with the interaction between background knowledge and the text, and the effect of social, political, contextual factors on understanding the text (Hudson, 2007).

Grabe (1988) describes the assumption behind the interactive model of reading as the availability of all the skills during the interaction process for text interpretation. In his study, Grabe (1988) summarizes five interactive models of reading process, which are McClelland and Rumelhart's interactive-activation model, Stanovich's interactive-compensatory model, Taylor and Taylor's bilateral cooperative model, LaBerge and Samuel's automatic-processing model, and Perfetti's verbal efficiency model. He briefly defines interactive-activation model as the activation of all related linguistic, contextual and background knowledge for the automatic process of comprehension. As regards to the interactive-compensatory model, compensation strategies play an important role at the time of the failure in

comprehension. In bilateral cooperation model, there are parallel processes which complement each other during the meaning building process. In the forth model, the reader makes use of both higher and lower level processing to spare cognitive space for elaborating on the meaning of what is read. The basis of the arguments for the last model is on the understanding that reading comprehension should not be only dependent on thought related processes, instead, there should be more reading-specific processes, like "lexical access, proposition integration, and text model building" at work to reach verbal efficiency (p. 62).

Furthermore, Grabe (1988) lists the merits of interactive models as their emphasis on higher order processing skills as well as taking lower level skills as basis, the requirement of 'receptive' vocabulary, and their combining contextual inference with word-recognition processes.

Schema Theory

Reading comprehension instruction has also been reshaped after the notion of schema theory which puts the claims that reader's background knowledge in memory plays an important role during higher order comprehension processing. In other words, this theory accepts the existence of readers' prior knowledge and its effects on reading comprehension.

The contribution of background knowledge in meaning making process is called *schema theory* (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988). This theory assumes that the text itself does not present the knowledge, but it directs the reader to construct the meaning in accordance with their previous experiences which are also formulated as 'background knowledge'. Therefore, meaning construction is seen as an interaction

between the text and the reader's background knowledge. To be able to reconstruct meaning, the reader should have relevant prior knowledge about the written material, thus the reader with the more background knowledge has the chance of comprehending more. It should be the responsibility of the teacher to provide the necessary background knowledge or direct the readers to the relevant resources for meaning reconstruction to take place.

The role of schemata in reading comprehension cannot be underestimated as it is the device which helps the interaction between the new information and the already stored information take place (Anderson & Pearson, 1988; Anderson, 1999). For Maria (1990) "when schemata theory is applied to reading, the result is the interactive theory of reading process- the recognition that reading, like all learning, is a holistic constructive process that involves making inferences" (p. 87). Therefore, she contends that the purpose of pre-reading instruction should be to build or activate necessary prior knowledge. Context schemata have an enormous effect on reading comprehension. Studies have revealed that the amount of recall and comprehension is increased by activating or providing necessary content related knowledge compared to comprehension when no background knowledge is activated nor provided before reading even with two parallel texts (Alderson, 2000).

Anderson and Pearson (1988) describe schema as "an abstract knowledge structure" (p. 42). According to them, to get a true picture of a schema construction there should exist relationships among components; inference is a prerequisite for a complete theory of schema activation, and specific instances of schema are needed for comprehension to take place as well as abstract- that is the knowledge of the variety of cases for differing situations- and general schemata- general knowledge about the case. Schemata are employed during reading process to integrate new

information into the existing knowledge. For Alderson (2000), they are also effective on how readers make sense out of this newly acquired knowledge. In his critical paper on schemata theory in reading comprehension Nassaji (2007) presents the ways how knowledge is employed in comprehension as follows: schemata are already existing knowledge stored in the mind, comprehension process is the placing new information coming from text into prior knowledge, and these processes are predictive and reader-driven.

The place of background knowledge in reading comprehension research has also been backed up by Coady's (1979) model of ESL reader which depicts the comprehension process as a combination of 'conceptual abilities', 'process strategies' and 'background knowledge'. Conceptual abilities are described as the intellectual abilities, like to be able to analyze, synthesize and make inferences. The role of background knowledge is also claimed to be important as learners who have Western background knowledge have been observed to learn English faster compared to non-Westerners. Processes strategies are considered to be mental processes which are employed for different purposes. Some examples of process strategies related to reading are "grapheme-morphophoneme correspondences, syllable-morpheme information, syntactic information (deep and surface), lexical meaning and contextual meaning, cognitive strategies", and lastly "affective mobilizers" (p. 7).

Wallace (2003) describes schema theory as reader's efforts to match the input from the text with the already existing notions in the mind regarding that concept, situation or explanation. For her, schema is both a cognitive and social construct, thus activating existing schema requires a compilation of social identities into action.

Automatic Word Identification Skills

Automaticity in reading and word identification has also been widely investigated areas in reading literature. Sinatra, Brown and Reynolds (2002) claim that good readers are not strategic on word recognition as they have a good deal of vocabulary knowledge, thus they are strategic on the occasions of unknown or difficult words, sparing their resources for conscious and intentional processing.

Vocabulary knowledge is obviously an integral part of reading skill, but whether every word should be known to understand a text or it is necessary to be able to infer the meanings of words from context has been subject to various research studies in the literature. In recent years, more and more researchers have been convinced that rapid and automatic recognition of words is an indispensible part of successful reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Sinatra et al., 2002). Especially cognitive psychologists have contended that reading requires automatic identification of words to continue reading fluently. To have the knowledge of vocabulary and structural systems of a language has been proven therefore central to reading. On the other hand, Parry (1991) and many others have demonstrated that students who are able to guess the meaning of words from context comprehend texts better and develop better reading skills. Nuttall (2005) believes that while reading when students encounter unknown and difficult words, it is both "acceptable and necessary" to ignore them (p.65). Hosenfeld (1977) also advocates the efficiency of guessing meaning from context strategies as she states: "when a student has the background of a reading passage in mind as he interacts with the foreground-the immediate sentence he is decoding- he appears to be able to distinguish important from unimportant words" (p. 121).

Motivation in Reading

In addition to automatic word recognition skills, reader motivation is another issue which is closely related to the ability to read. Whether the learner has intrinsic or extrinsic motivation also matters to determine the quality of comprehension. Alderson (2000) argues that extrinsically motivated readers mostly do surface reading to find some details or facts rather than pay attention to main ideas, the topic of the text, the organization of information or the background knowledge they have about that content. Fransson (1984) attempted to show the effect of intrinsic motivation of the employment of higher level processing abilities. He provided readers with a text in which some of them- he guessed- would be interested, but some of them would not, and the results indicated that readers with intrinsic motivation both used more higher-order processing and recalled better.

Learner Strategies

Strategies are defined as goal-oriented cognitive processes on the accomplishment of a particular task (Sinatra et al., 2002). Learning strategies are described by Oxford (1990) as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). Similarly, for Wenden (1987) learner strategies are language learning behaviors of learners to learn and regulate language learning, the learners' knowledge about those strategies as well as the knowledge of aspects of their own learning. In that chapter, Wenden (1987) also provides multiple definitions of strategies which are compiled as: "techniques", "tactics", "potentially conscious

plans", "consciously employed operations", "learning skills, basic skills, functional skills", "cognitive abilities", "language processing strategies", "problem solving procedures" (p.7). Furthermore, strategies are depicted to be specific actions which are sometimes observable, problem-oriented, directly contributory to learning, sometimes conscious and automatic, and liable to change.

Williams and Burden (1997) contend that learners are actively involved in learning process and employ some strategies when they encounter failures in making sense of the tasks. They also express that those learning strategies are "purposeful and goal-oriented" (p. 145).

Regarding the skill-strategy dichotomy, Hudson (2007) suggests that differentiating them only in terms of skills' acting subconsciously and strategies', on the other hand, consciously is an easy and not completely correct depiction. According to him, we can call the same type of activity as skill sometimes but strategy at other times. Strategies are not only repair methods, they are also active in guiding, monitoring or regulating the reading process. Also, research results show that the strategies used by proficient readers are not different from strategies used by poor readers, only the level of success in applying those changes although proficient readers tend to use more strategies than weaker ones (Hudson, 2007).

Reading Strategies in Language Learning

For Hudson (2007) reading strategies can be interpreted as the interaction process between the text and reading skills involved to reach the meaning. Furthermore, it is evident by research that readers who are less competent as readers can improve their

reading skills through the instruction of strategies which are employed by successful readers (Carrell et al. 1989).

Trabasso and Bouchard (2002), on the other hand, describe comprehension strategies as to the point, "learned procedures" leading to active, skillful, self-controlled and purposeful reading. In classrooms, those strategies are taught through demonstrations, modeling, and guided practice giving way to independent and competent use of those strategies. They also advocate constant practice of learned strategies for the mastery of those skills. One function of reading strategies according to Hudson (2007) is alleviating the burden of working memory by helping comprehension processing.

For Sinatra et al. (2002) also asking students to perform concrete evidence, like a story map, after strategy instruction to display a strategy, like finding the main ideas, functions dually, both in providing students with guided practice and in allowing teachers to assess it. Thompson (1987) goes further and suggests a list of strategies to improve second language reading comprehension as follows: (a) using flowcharts or hierarchical summaries to recognize text organization, (b) before starting reading being able to provide titles to texts, (c) making use of subtitles as information organizers, (d) dealing with pre-reading questions, (e) creating schemata for story-type readings from general problem solving schemata, (f) using visual help, and (g) reading stories from another person's point of view.

Since it was proven that reading strategies improve reading comprehension and leads to fluent reading, and that they can be taught to less proficient readers, they have been integrated into reading programs. For such programs, Hudson (2007) provides a description of successful strategy training programs as involving modeling and demonstrating in a constant manner and providing ample opportunities

for practice across different texts and tasks rather than simply giving lists of strategies. For Janzen and Stoller (1998) in order to develop a successful strategy training program four criteria have to be met, which are choosing a text appropriate for students' level, selecting strategies for training, planning lessons for the presentation of strategies, and adapting the instruction of strategies in accordance with students' needs and reactions.

As Hudson (2007) remarks explicit training of strategies and metacognitive skills is probable and production oriented as long as they are accompanied with modeling practices, and not just pure presentations of strategy lists. Additionally, Duffy (2002) contends that explicit teaching of strategies is deliberate and direct because it is assumed that poor readers help themselves better to control their comprehension with clear and unambiguous instruction on how strategies work. He also distinguishes explicit teaching of strategies from other means of comprehension instruction, such as indirect demonstration of strategies, since it provides learners with specific techniques in the name of "strategies" for better comprehension.

Simpson and Nist (2002) are also from the convention of direct and explicit instruction of reading strategies by emphasizing declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge. Their model of strategy instruction follows these processes: first modeling the process, next providing examples, practicing the use of strategy and last evaluating strategy use. The steps of teaching reading strategically then should follow the steps of first teacher's modeling the strategy, next teacher's scaffolding and support and then students' independent use of strategies gradually for better comprehension (Grabe, 2004). Williams and Burden (1997) also suggest a similar model for strategic teaching which includes assessing strategy use, explaining strategy by mentioning how to apply, modeling strategy by demonstrating it,

scaffolding during initial strategy practice, and lastly developing motivation for using strategy.

The effects of strategy training on readers' comprehension and strategy use have been the subject of many studies (Anderson, 1999; Carrell et al. 1989; Janzen & Stoller, 1998; Zhang, 2008). In one of these, Kern (1989) investigated strategy gain in both comprehension and word inference after a certain period of strategy instruction. The participants of the study are fifty three students of French who are at the third semester of their education. Kern distributed these students into control and treatment groups. In the treatment group, strategy instruction is provided as well as the regular course content. The results of the study depict that there is a significant difference between the control and treatment group in terms of their overall comprehension rates and word inference abilities compared to their pre-test records. In their study on the effect of direct explanation of strategies on total comprehension and strategy use, Duffy et al. (in Duffy, 2002) found out that explicit instruction of reading strategies increased the effectiveness of strategy use and their total grades on comprehension for poor readers. In their longitudinal experimental study, they introduced treatment groups' teachers with the necessary intervention, and treatment group students received systematic and explicit instruction of reading strategies. Their intervention included teachers' explanation of strategy before reading phase, providing students with a model, scaffolding students during practice and gradually making them apply learned strategies to increase comprehension independently. The results depicted that strategies can be directly taught with teachers' clear and explicit explanation, with the following strategy application, with teachers' continual modeling and scaffolding and creating as many opportunities as possible to apply those strategies. It was also emphasized that the more teachers make connections

between the previous and new strategy, the more awareness students gain on the metacognitive nature of strategy use.

Another example on the effectiveness of strategy instruction on learners' reading skill come from Janzen and Stoller (1998) who found out that students read more effectively and become autonomous readers as a result of their systematic strategy instruction. The relationship between specific strategy instruction and reading comprehension is also supported by a study from the Netherlands. Bimmel and Van Schooten (2004) unraveled that reading strategy instruction on specific strategies leads to mastery on those strategies together with reading comprehension.

In her three case studies with ninth graders which investigate whether unsuccessful readers can learn the strategies of successful readers, Hosenfeld (1984) depicts some of the strategies that successful readers mostly use, which are always having the meaning of the text in mind, reading with larger chunks, skipping unnecessary words, and being aware of their own good reader concept.

The place of critical reading cannot be underestimated for both strategy training and practice of strategies. Alderson (2000) remarks that critical reading is assumed to include ample opportunities for strategy practice to identify the parts of writer's subjectivity in writing. Therefore, "identifying the function of a piece of writing, recognizing authors' presuppositions and assumptions, distinguishing fact from opinion, recognizing an intended audience and point of view and evaluating a point of view are all important to critical reading" (p. 320). Wallace (2003) claims that critical reading is a social process in which negotiations are interpreted within community and they need not to be in line with the expected reading outcomes.

Cognitive Strategies in Reading

Cognitive strategies are the strategies which provide readers with sources to accomplish the reading task. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) describe cognitive strategies as:

> …the actions and procedures readers use while working directly with the text. These localized, focused techniques are used when problems develop in understanding textual information. Examples of cognitive strategies include adjusting one's speed of reading when the material becomes difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and re-reading the text for improved comprehension. (p.436)

According to Urquhart and Weir (1998) compared to metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies are more familiar procedures used while reading, like extracting the meanings of words or skimming to get the main idea of a text. They also state there is a wide range of cognitive strategies, changing from macro-level activities, like skimming to micro-level ones, such as trying to understand the meaning of a word with the help of translation or cognates. Furthermore, while metacognitive strategies are directed to regulation of cognitive efforts, cognitive strategies are more concerned with information processing, storing, retrieving or using information (Wenden & Burden, 1997).

In the light of all of these, cognitive reading strategies are seen to include all perceptual and regulation skills, ranging from skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from context to paying attention to rhetorical organization of texts. On the whole, cognitive strategies are determined and tuned according to the task at hand and allow the control of information and strategies to be learned by the learners.

Hudson (2007) states that "metacognitive skills play a strategic role in such problem solving cognitive activities as reading comprehension, writing, language acquisition, and logical reasoning" (p.112). He further explains metacognition as cognition regarding cognition; that's having the knowledge or control of cognitive processes. Anderson (1999) also indicates that being metacognitively aware of the reading process is one of the most important skills that second language readers should possess. In their study whose aim was to find out the differences between native and ESL students in their perceived and rated metacognitive strategy awareness, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) define metacognitive strategies as: "those intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading. Such strategies include having a purpose in mind, previewing the text as to its length and organization, or using typographical aids and tables and figures" (p. 436).

Metacognition in reading acts in the processes of planning, monitoring and evaluating reading, where planning means setting goals for reading and choosing the appropriate means to reach those goals, monitoring includes controlling the reader's actions towards his or her goals, and evaluating is the reader's assessing his or her actions to reach these goals (Hudson, 2007).

Hudson (2007) further provides some examples of metacognitive skills which can be represented like this:

Understanding the conditions under which one learns best
Analyzing the problem at hand
Allocating attention
Identifying which important aspects of a message apply to the task at hand
Separating important information from less important information
Understanding explicit and implicit task demands
Determining what performance components are important for the particular task

Determining how to strategically proceed
Monitoring to track attention and comprehension
Internal checking to determine success of achieving goals
Revising, modifying, or terminating activities strategically
Determining what internal and external feedback to explore
Initiating and maintaining repair.

(Hudson, 2007, p. 113)

Metacognition thus involves the reader's awareness of his or her progress in reading and any comprehension failures and the application of suitable repair methods. Likewise, metacognitive knowledge is described as the knowledge about cognition and self-regulation of cognition.

Baker (2002) describes metacognition as the knowledge and control on our own cognitive resources. The knowledge component in this definition refers to reader's ability to reflect on their cognitive processes, and their knowledge about themselves as readers, the tasks at hand and strategies. By control, it is meant that the ability of reader to regulate their cognitive efforts, to plan ahead, to check the results of those efforts, to evaluate their progress, to repair failures, to test and to revise strategies for reading (Baker, 2002; Simpson & Nist, 2002). Furthermore, Simpson and Nist (2002) point out that an accumulation of research studies have proven that students can be taught planning, monitoring, testing and evaluating reading when they are provided with multiple strategies training. For instance, Carrell et al.'s (1989) study which investigates, among other things, the effect of metacognitive strategy training on enhancing second language reading proves the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training on improving second language reading comprehension.

Carrell et al. (1998) put forward five stages to be included in strategy training, which can be summarized as first: teacher explanation, second: the rationale for learning a specific strategy, third: description on how to apply a strategy, fourth:

explaining the conditions when and where it is appropriate to use a strategy, and lastly: explicating on how to evaluate the success of strategy use. For evaluating the application of these five-step training of metacognitive strategies in ESL/EFL reading research, Carrell et al. (1998) review six studies that are based on strategy instruction. The first study they have reviewed is Carrell's 1985 (as cited in Carrell, 1998) study which seems to contain all the five steps. Another 1985 study is from Hamp-Lyons (ibid) for which they claim to be including only the "what" component. Sarig and Folman's 1987 (ibid) study, however, appears to follow only the first and second steps of the five elements above, and possibly provides how to use the strategy part. Carrell, et al.'s study which was published in 1989 (ibid) involves all the steps except for the last one. Likewise, Kern's 1989 (ibid) training program omits the why, when and where and evaluation components. Lastly, Raymond (1993, ibid) claims to integrate all the five stages in her study.

Reading Strategy Instruction

Cognitive and metacognitive strategies are indispensible components of reading strategies. Hence, they should be integrated into reading strategy instruction. As already stated, the aim of reading strategy instruction should be to develop strategic readers. However, in order to reach this goal, first of all individual reading strategies should be described which would take part in strategy training process.

Getting help from illustrations, like semantic maps, is a way of improving comprehension. Silberstein (1994) believes that semantic maps allow students to show their understanding of the relationships in the text by giving them a chance of

demonstration through drawing. It is also a perfect way of composing their unique piece of work independently as long as they provide the text's hierarchy.

As a reading strategy, prediction gets wide attention particularly because it provides readers with the opportunity of resorting to their schema and composing related background knowledge. It is seen to be of high importance among reading strategies both before and during reading. Alderson (2000) counts one of its benefits as including background knowledge in reading process and giving an opportunity to readers to monitor their guesses while they are reading.

According to Nuttall (2005) also prediction has an important role in reading as it activates reader's schemata regarding the subject that is read as well as helping making sense out of sentences. Also, Anderson (1999) contends that making predictions on text content gives readers an opportunity to reject or verify these guesses during reading. Urquhart and Weir (1998) maintain that prediction can be used to "anticipate the content of a text; to make hypotheses about the macropropositions it might contain" (p. 185). For them, it is a way that leads to provide or activate the necessary background knowledge, which can be achieved through lectures, discussions, debates, real-life anecdotes, previewing the text or pre-teaching vocabulary.

For Carrell and Eisterhold (1988), activating or providing (in the case of absence) background knowledge and previewing the text are highly important strategies for language teachers to present in the classroom. Regarding the place of background information on understanding messages, Bransford, Stein and Shelton (1984) argue that getting the meaning of a linguistic message is not only a matter of linguistic ability, it also requires the person's background knowledge related to it with the urgent need to activate that relevant schemata. For Grabe (2004) also

background knowledge is necessary in order to employ in all types of inferences and constructing text structure at the comprehension phase.

As Steffensen and Joag-Dev (1984) pointed out in the process of reading comprehension cultural knowledge plays the functioning role, thus it's highly important that instructors should focus on activating or providing necessary background knowledge especially in the case of culturally different texts. According to Royer, Bates and Konold (1984), the elements of text comprehension include the text, the reader's relevant background knowledge, the contextual clues in the text, and the reader's purpose in reading. Here again, the place of background knowledge is underlined as a reading comprehension enhancer.

Setting a purpose for reading is another strategy which increases the chance of the accomplishment of reading goals as it is effective in reader's determining what details to pay attention to during reading (Royer, et al., 1984). For Alderson (2000) also the purpose of reading determines how we read the text, which skills are we to use, how much we understand and recall from the text.

Recognizing text organization- the relationship between paragraphs and signals from sentence to sentence- is also influential in improving reading comprehension (Anderson, 1999; Maria, 1990). The effects of recognizing text structure on reading comprehension have been investigated by a number of researchers (most of whom support its benefits). According to Silberstein (1994), students can be taught to identify different text structures- that texts have a general idea and some supporting, sub details or examples to explicate that overarching opinion. This is not to say that every text has a topic sentence or thesis statement, but most of expository prose conforms to this tradition. For learners, being able to

recognize how these are organized can help them better understand the general claim and make a more effective critique of it.

Silberstein (1994) highly suggests teaching rhetorical patterns in a reading course as these patterns can change cross-culturally and as their contribution to reading is undeniable. The rhetorical patterns she presents in her book are comparison and contrast, cause and effect, chronological order, classification, process, and definition. Text type or genre has a real influence on what readers understand from texts, even greater than the actual content of it. It has been detected that narrative texts lend themselves more easily to comprehension than do expository texts (Alderson, 2000). Thus, teaching text structures and discourse organization can be also effective in promoting better comprehension as Grabe (2004) asserts there are a number of signaling systems in texts which help readers interpret the information and discourse structures each having certain functions.

Being aware of text organizations has been seen to affect text comprehension to a certain degree. The relationship between text related background knowledge and comprehension has constantly been found significant in studies. Synthesizing information against other sources of data and evaluating it are also among the characteristics of good readers.

Post reading activities should also be given importance as well as warm-up sections of lessons. Several researches have proven that higher-order post reading questions improve the quality of learning out of texts when provided without the answers first (Alderson, 2000).

Teacher Perception in Reading

The concept of teacher cognition has been studied rigorously for the last 30 years (Borg, 2003; Freeman, 2002; Woods, 1996). The years between 1980 and 1990, however, became the era of changes when most of the terms related to "teachers' mental lives", like 'teaching as decision making process' or 'teachers' beliefs' formed their roots (Freeman, 2002). Ample amount of studies have looked for the role of teachers' beliefs, knowledge, implicit theories or assumptions on their decision-making process (Woods, 1996). Borg (1999) states that it has been explored in various educational institutions ranging from kindergarten to higher education in both pre-service and in-service levels and for a range of subjects. It is believed that teachers' beliefs, whatever their source is, are projected in most of their practices. Thus, a number of researches in the area of language education have looked into what is happening in language classrooms (Borg, 2003).

According to Johnson (1999) beliefs "have a cognitive, an affective, and a behavioral component and therefore act as influences on what we know, feel and do. All human perception is influenced by beliefs, influencing the ways in which events are understood and acted on" (p. 30). She further provides a detailed description of teachers' beliefs, as follows:

> …we can assume that they are inextricably complex, grounded in emotionally laden episodic memories from prior experiences, relatively stable and resistant to change, yet instrumental in shaping how teachers interpret what goes on in their classrooms and how they will react and respond to that. Teachers' beliefs have a powerful impact on the nature of teachers' reasoning since the ways in which teachers come to conceptualize themselves as teachers and develop explanations for their own classroom practices tend to be filtered through their beliefs (p.31).

She also contends that if teachers' beliefs are formed by their previous learning experiences, then they will certainly have an effect on their beliefs. Those images from prior learning experiences become the basis of their "epistemic" beliefs which shape teachers' perceptions, thoughts and classroom practices indistinctively. Pajares (1992) also describes teachers' beliefs as attitudes and values about teaching, learning process and students.

In an attempt to visualize what teacher cognition includes in language teaching, Borg (2003) projects a comprehensive map which includes four elements: schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors and classroom practice. According to Borg (2003) early cognitions of teachers are shaped by their schooling experiences, while professional coursework can be effective on existing cognitions- although sometimes limited, contextual factors have an immense effect on teachers' practice directly or by modifying cognitions, and lastly classroom practice is formed by the interplay between contextual factors and cognitions which then affect cognitions. All of these four components interact with each other in one way or another. Thus, Borg (2003) proposes a figure that summarizes the constituents of 'unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching' that are influenced by teachers' experiences as learners, their prior beliefs and contextual factors (p. 81).

Likewise, for Freeman (2002) context has gained a new meaning which is "more than the physical space of the classroom and school in which teachers practice teaching skills. It assumes a virtual dimension through the socializing power of the teacher's past and present experiences and communities" (p. 7).

There has been a growing interest in teacher cognition, what teachers know, think or believe and its connection to their practices since the 1980s. Borg (2006) makes the definition of teacher cognition as "an often tacit, personally-held, practical

system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic- i.e. defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives" (p. 35). Moreover, it has been empirically supported that teachers' cognition is congruent with their practices- i.e. their beliefs and knowledge guide the decision making and teaching process although it is not the case with every research result. Borg (2006) attributes this lack of consistency between cognition and practice to other external factors, like social, psychological or environmental forces.

In his review of teacher cognition research on pre-service teacher education, Borg (2006), after listing a plethora of terms emerging from language teacher cognition research, highlights common features of these constructs as their all having personal nature, being an accumulation of experiences and the existence of a two-way relationship between cognition and instructional practices.

Although teacher cognition has gained remarkable popularity in all areas of educational research, including language teaching, the ones that focus on reading, especially second language reading, are really scarce. One of those studies is Meijer, Verloop, and Beijaard's (1999) work in which they define the knowledge that is produced and known by the teachers as 'practical knowledge' to explore language teachers' practical knowledge on teaching reading comprehension. The researchers tried to elicit teachers' practical knowledge by employing structured open interviews and both structured and non-structured concept mapping techniques. They aimed at coming up with a shared pattern in teachers' practical knowledge and the content of that knowledge. In the end three categories of practical knowledge about reading comprehension emerged. These are subject matter knowledge, knowledge of students and knowledge of student learning.

The effects of teachers' belief systems on their practice have been investigated in many areas. For instance, Richards (1998) introduces a study in Hong Kong setting which compares experienced and inexperienced teachers' beliefs and use of lesson plans. Sixteen teachers first complete a belief survey, then they are observed in their classroom environment and follow up interviews are held following each lesson. The investigation of findings reveals that both groups of teachers believe in the usefulness of planning lessons; however, experienced teachers tend to follow a more improvisational procedure in their classes.

Another researcher from Oman investigates tacit beliefs of student teachers of English about reading instruction. Regarding student teachers' beliefs on reading aloud and modeling reading, El-Okda (2005) depicts that they primarily perceive these activities as a tool to improve pronunciation.

Concerning the consistency of teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of reading strategies few researches can be mentioned here. Buike and Duffy (1979) investigated whether there is a consistency between teachers' conceptions of reading and their instructional practices. At the end of a two-year's study with 23 teachers based on observations and different types of interviews, they concluded that reading conceptions of teachers and their classroom practices are not directly related in a linear or simple way, nor is their instruction guided by an implicit theory.

Sallı (2002) attempted to reveal teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the place of strategy training in reading instruction. She made use of a questionnaire in an attempt to show teachers' reported perceptions and practices on reading strategy instruction as well as their perceptions about the reading material. The researcher also conducted semi-structured interviews to have a more detailed understanding of the reasons of teachers' selection of certain strategies and their perceptions of the

reading material. It was concluded that most of teachers participating in that study know reading strategies to some extent; they mostly use pre-reading strategies in their classrooms and post-reading strategies are the least popular ones among teachers. For Borg (2006), however, it is not always a correct diagnosis to call a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their practices as inconsistency. He claims that there can be different levels of interaction between teacher cognition and their instructional practices which are shaped by both internal and external situational factors.

Another study that explores teacher cognition on reading instruction is Yurdaışık's (2007) M.A. thesis. Her study aimed at understanding the views and approaches of teachers toward reading instruction. By conducting a questionnaire which was adapted from Sallı's (2002) thesis on preparatory school teachers of one private and two state universities, the researcher tried to find out how teachers see themselves as second language readers and how this is reflected in their teaching practices, their ideal reading instruction and whether they use reading strategies or not. The study revealed that teachers use more pre-reading than post-reading strategies; they think that unknown vocabulary or unfamiliar topics are the most common difficulties in reading, and strategy instruction is a necessary component of an ideal reading lesson.

Chou (2008) explored teachers' beliefs about reading theories and strategies and looked for the existence of coordination between those beliefs and their classroom practices. A questionnaire consisting of three identical parts, each exploring a different aspect was conducted to university instructors. The first section of the questionnaire was about the importance of reading theories and strategies for teachers; Section B asked for the necessity of reading theories and strategies to be

taught in reading classes, and the last section questioned teachers' actual employment of reading theories and strategies. According to the results, the teachers favored linguistic knowledge, cognitive strategy and metacognitive strategy most. Moreover, it was uncovered that the data for all three parts correlated with each other; that's teachers' beliefs regarding reading instruction were reflected in their classroom practices.

However, teachers' belief systems are not always in harmony with their classroom practices. Duffy and Anderson (1984) for instance uncovered that of the eight teachers of reading that they observed only four of them actually acted according to their beliefs. This was found due to some reasons, like the level of students, the unavailability of some necessary material, and the necessity to pursue a pre-designed syllabus. In her qualitative study on teachers' beliefs and practices on writing instruction, Seban (2008) also found out that teachers' self-reported beliefs on how writing instruction should be contradicted with their actual practices. In fact, there are other examples in literature which demonstrate some inconsistencies between teachers' cognitions and their teaching practices. In Feryok's (2008) study, for instance, the teacher in question showed some divergence from her stated cognitions in the observation session.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the review of literature presented in this chapter depicts that to increase reading comprehension of learners, some training on cognitive and metacognitive strategies is needed. In addition to equipping learners with the

necessary strategies, they must be trained on how to act strategically, namely when and how to use those strategies should be provided to them.

Furthermore, it is obvious that teachers' beliefs are directly or indirectly reflected in their teaching, activity or material choice. That is why in order to develop strategic readers, teachers themselves first of all should believe in the efficiency and practicality of these strategies in reading.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study is to determine EFL teachers' perceptions of reading strategies and their actual classroom practices regarding reading strategies in specifically pre-intermediate level reading classes at a state university in Istanbul, Turkey.

Research Context

Yıldız Technical University School of Foreign Languages

The Department of Basic English (DEB) of School of Foreign Languages at Yıldız Technical University was the place where this study was conducted. YTU is a Turkish medium university located in Istanbul where 30 % of classes are required to be presented in English. Therefore, English has an important role at this university. Every student enrolled in this university should possess a certain proficiency level in English (which means scoring at least 60 in the Proficiency exam) to continue their education in their departments. Students who fail the Exemption exam conducted at the beginning of each academic year or fail to certify their proficiency level attend classes at the DEB to have their English preparatory education for one year.

Students are placed into their classes after their levels are determined. There are three levels at the DEB; namely A, B and C. In A classes students start their education at intermediate level and target to reach upper intermediate level at the end

of preparatory English education. Their class hours are 20 per week, and 10 of them is allotted to course book, 4 for reading, another 4 for writing, and 2 for listening and speaking lessons. In B classes they start with a pre-intermediate level of English and aim to finish the year at upper-intermediate level. Students take 13 hours of course book lessons, 4 hours of reading, 4 hours of writing and 2 hours of listening and speaking classes weekly. Lastly, students who do not have any or who have little knowledge of English attend C classes where they start at elementary level and try to reach upper-intermediate level in the end. Their course book lessons are 17 hours, reading and writing lessons are 4 hours for each one, and listening and speaking lessons are 2 hours again.

For each level, course book, reading, writing, listening and speaking courses are given. In course book lessons, students follow the lesson through sets of English File books as well as the materials prepared by the course book coordinators. Listening and speaking courses are given together as integrated skills, and they cover *Interactions 1* for C, *Interactions 2* for B and A levels. In writing classes, they follow the schedule prepared by writing coordinators with the writing books of *Successful Writing Upper Intermediate* for A levels, *Successful Writing Intermediate* for B levels, and *Reading&Writing Targets 2* for C levels.

To reading courses which are the core of the present study four hours are allocated per week. Like the other skills as well, a separate teacher covers reading classes. *Issues for today* is the selected reading book for C levels, while they follow *Headway Academic Reading* in B levels and *Concepts and Comments for Today* in A levels. In addition to reading books, supplementary materials are provided for each level to supplement the books and fill in the missing strategies.

Extensive reading also has an immense place for reading courses of the DEB, YTU because a lot of inside and outside class periods of time are allocated to them. One of these extensive reading activities is graded readers through which students are encouraged to read books outside the class. In these graded readers, students form groups of 3-4 and decide on a simplified book to study. Afterwards, they take a 90 minutes exam on the book they have studied. In the first 45 minutes of this exam, they work individually, and in the remaining 45 minutes they work in their groups to answer the questions. Also, to reinforce students' reading habits, competitions are organized across classes to choose the students who have read the most number of books. Besides, they have reading circles activities in which students are required to read an authentic text provided by the teacher. Next, they are assigned some outside the class activities about it consisting of three parts; i.e. vocabulary, comprehension and creativity. Also, article readings have been added to the curriculum in which students choose an article, read it, answer vocabulary and comprehension questions about it, and finally make an oral presentation of it for their friends.

In the course of these four hours of reading lessons each week, they sometimes read a new passage or learn a new strategy. As students are introduced to nearly all of pre-, while, and post-reading strategies during their reading classes, strategy instruction and practice is an important part of the DEB, YTU reading lessons because during this preparatory education they introduce students to nearly all of pre, while and post reading strategies. There is also constant recycling of previously covered strategies in both the reading book and the supplementary material. Therefore, they do not just teach one strategy and leave it aside; instead, they put much emphasis on repetitious practice of these strategies.

Participants

There are approximately 150 teachers at the DEB, YTU; the number of teachers giving reading courses is over 40. Since this study was particularly aimed at finding EFL teachers' perceptions and practices of reading strategies, the questionnaire was administered to only reading teachers whose number is 42. Interestingly, all of the teachers teaching reading courses were female except for one. Therefore, there were 41 female and 1 male teachers participating in the study. The only native speaker teacher of the DEB, YTU is also a reading instructor, so while 41 teachers were non-natives, only one participant was a native English teacher.

In the first part of the questionnaire, there were items about the background of the participating teachers. Table 1 below presents the distribution of years of teaching among participants.

Table 1. The Distribution of Years of Teaching

Years of teaching	N	%
1-5	5	11.9
6-10	20	47.6
11-15	12	28.6
16-20	5	11.9

n=42

Apart from frequencies and percentages, the mean score of teachers' years of experience was also calculated, and found out to be 10.2. Table 1 clearly depicts that the majority of teachers are actually experienced in the field of teaching as approximately more than three quarter of the participants have experiences above 6 years. Moreover, nearly half of the reading teachers have at least 11 years of experience. Thus, it can be concluded that most of the teachers who teach reading lessons are reasonably acquainted with teaching and classroom environment.

The answers teachers provided for their degrees of education are shown in Table 2:

Table 2. Teachers' Degrees of Education

Degree of education	N	%
Bachelor	20	47.6
Master	19	45.2
Doctorate	3	7.1

n=42

It is obvious from Table 2 that more than half of the participant teachers (52.3%) continued studying after undergraduate degree which shows that most of them continued academic learning after graduation from the college.

In Table 3, teachers' specialty for Bachelor, Master and Doctorate degrees are given.

Table 3. Teachers' Specialty Areas

Specialty Areas (Frequencies)							
	ELT	Linguistics	Literature	Educational Administration	Curriculum Design	Translation and Interpreting Studies	Other
Bachelor	27	2	12	0	0	0	1 [a]
Master	10	0	0	5	1	0	3 [b]
Doctorate	1	0	1	0	0	0	1 [c]

[a]: Primary Teaching
[b]: History, Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language, M.B.A.
[c]: Organizational Behavior

Table 3 depicts that of the 42 reading teachers 27 of them took their undergraduate degree from the department of English Language Teaching. Therefore, it can be inferred that the majority of teachers were familiar with the field of ELT when they started teaching reading at the DEB, YTU. Furthermore, the majority of teachers who pursued graduate education continued to study at an ELT department again. The next

category of specialty area with the highest number of teachers is English Language and Literature in terms of undergraduate education while the second area with the highest number of teachers is Educational Administration department with regard to master education. Although the number of teachers holding Ph.D. degrees is very small, their specialty areas are rather scattered. Only one of them seems to have attended English Language Teaching department, while the other one is from English Language and Literature department, and the last teacher with a Ph.D. degree reported to have attended the department of Organizational Behavior.

The second phase of this study consists of the observations conducted throughout the second term of the 2008-2009 academic year. Three participant teachers were chosen for the observation protocols according to the distribution of answers they provided for the questionnaire. Accordingly, one teacher from the group of teachers opting for the lowest percentages for beliefs and practices on reading strategies, one from the highest and one from the group of teachers in the middle were elected, and their lessons were weekly observed for one semester. The reading instructor who reported to attach the most importance to reading strategy instruction took her undergraduate degree from the department of English Language and Literature and has four years of teaching experience. In the course of observations, she had been attending DELTA certificate program, which gives graduate level courses on language teaching education. The reading instructor with moderate beliefs on reading strategy instruction holds a B.A. degree from the department of English Language Teaching and has a total of ten years teaching experience. The instructor who was determined to give the lowest importance to reading strategy instruction according to the questionnaire results graduated from Linguistics Department, and was pursuing her graduate education at the department

of Educational Administration. She had been teaching English for nine years when this study was conducted.

At the end of the term, in order to reach a deeper understanding of teachers' practices and the underlying reasons of some of their actions, interview protocols were conducted with three observed teachers and two of the teachers participating in the questionnaire. Like the observed teachers, all five of interviewees were female teachers teaching reading courses.

Data Collection Instruments

As data collection instruments, first of all a questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on the adaptations of some parts of the questionnaires taken from previous empirical studies. Observation protocols were followed with the focus on reading strategies in descriptive and reflective notes. Finally, semi-structured interviews were administered to gain a deeper understanding into teachers' beliefs and practices on reading strategy instruction.

Data collection for this study first of all started with the distribution of the questionnaire to all 42 reading teachers at the beginning of the spring term of 2008-2009 academic year after the necessary consent for observations and the distribution of questionnaires were granted by the directorate of School of Foreign Languages of YTU. Following the analysis of the questionnaire, three teachers were determined for observations which were launched by week five of the second semester. Observations took ten weeks till the time of the proficiency exam. Throughout this time, three different classes of these three teachers (as all teach reading in different classes) were observed in a systematic way every week. Subsequent to the

observations, semi-structured interview protocols were administered with three observed teachers and two teachers who had participated in the questionnaire. Although the duration of interviews changed according to the interviewed teacher, it took approximately 40 minutes to conduct the interviews with each interviewee.

Questionnaire

Dörnyei (2003) maintains that as the main goal of scientific research is to find out responses to questions, the popularity of questionnaires in social sciences should come by no surprise. In order to answer the first and second research questions which concern teachers' beliefs about reading strategies and their reported practices, a five point Likert-type questionnaire was administered to 42 reading teachers (See Appendix B for the questionnaire). The piloting of the questionnaire took place at YTU MLD, the other department of School of Foreign Languages since the instructors at this department also teach reading classes and reading strategies. In response to the comments of five instructors from this department, the following items were changed in order to provide clarity:

Table 4. The Results of the Piloting the Questionnaire

No. of item	The previous item	Adjusted item
1	identifying a purpose for reading	setting a purpose for reading
19	using discourse markers to see relationships	using discourse markers (e.g. transitions) to see relationships between sentences or paragraphs

Only the second part of the questionnaire needed some adjustments. Thus, for the first item, only a different verb was required to prevent misunderstanding, and for

item 19, an example was provided to ensure that teachers could understand what is asked from them.

The questionnaire consists of three different parts. The first part of the questionnaire includes questions about the individual background of the participants. Specifically, the questions target the participants' name, gender, years of teaching, degree of education, specialty for B.A./M.A./Ph.D., and native language. The aim of the first part of the questionnaire was to collect data about the personal background of the participant teachers. The rationale behind asking the name of the respondents was to determine the teachers for the observations and interviews and to be able to conveniently reach them on this occasion.

The second part of the questionnaire is specifically designed to answer the first research question. There are 36 items in this part of the questionnaire which includes three types of reading strategies: pre-reading, while reading and post-reading. Six of these items belong to pre-reading strategies, while there are twenty-one items to investigate teachers' beliefs of while reading strategies. Lastly, there are nine items in post-reading strategies section. It is made up of items focusing on teachers' perceptions of three different types of reading strategies, namely pre-, while, and post-reading. This part of the questionnaire was prepared by the researcher based on the adaptations taken from Chou's (2008) study and the suggested reading strategies by Grabe and Stoller (2002).

The questionnaire had initially been prepared to include five scales as answers of the items. Teachers were asked to choose one of the options describing their beliefs ranging from "not important at all", "slightly important", "somewhat important", "important" to "very important" in the questionnaire. There are 6 items about the importance teachers attach to each pre-reading strategy, 21 items about

teachers' beliefs regarding while reading strategies, and the remaining 9 items address teachers' perceptions of post-reading strategies.

The third part of the questionnaire aims to address the second research question which is about teachers' actual classroom practices. The 38 items in this part were taken from Sallı (2002) and adapted so that it reflects teachers' reported beliefs in the second part. In this part of the questionnaire there are five options for teachers to choose the best indicator of their teaching practices, such as 1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, 5= always. Items about teachers' practices were divided into three sections like the second part of the questionnaire: pre-reading, while-reading and post- reading practices. There are 10 items directed at pre-reading, 17 at while-reading and 11 at post-reading strategies.

Observation Protocols

Observation protocols were conducted throughout the second term of 2008-2009 academic year to investigate real classroom practices of teachers on reading strategies and strategy instruction. The researcher was in the position of observer throughout the lessons and did not take active part in any of the classes. With the help of these observations, a real picture of teachers' practices of reading strategies emerged, and this provided more data for the second research question. The focus of these observations was teachers' practices regarding reading strategies and they were noted under descriptive and reflective notes all of which were accumulated as field notes in the end. Three teachers were chosen for the observations by looking at the diversity of results they provided for the questionnaire. The results of one of these teachers yielded higher scores in terms of reported beliefs and practices while the

second teacher provided records in the middle in terms of beliefs and practices, and the last teacher was specifically chosen for presenting lower results on the questionnaire.

Interviews

Lastly, in order to reach a detailed understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices on reading strategies semi-structured interviews were conducted with five participating teachers three of whom were the observed teachers. Interviewed teachers' answers to the questions asked were audio-recorded and then transcribed. According to Dörnyei (2007), since interviews are very well-known communication methods, they are so conveniently used as a research instrument in qualitative studies. Among all types of interviews, semi-structured interviews are the most frequently administered ones in applied linguistics. The reason behind that while semi-structured interviews guide the interviewee with some questions or prompts, it also leaves a room for freely elaborating on topics or making additional comments (Dörnyei, 2007).

Data Analysis

Since this study made use of a questionnaire with Likert-type items, observations and semi-structured interviews, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods were employed. Triangulation, making use of a variety of data sources, like questionnaires and observations, has been proved useful to see different aspects and to have a wider picture of teacher cognition (Foss & Kleinsasser; 2001). Moreover,

Merriam (1998) expresses that triangulation especially enabled by multiple data sources increases the reliability as well as internal validity of a study.

Analysis of the Questionnaire

Borg (2006) contends that the reason why questionnaires are widely used in language teacher cognition research is because they give the opportunity to collect large amounts of data at once in an economical way and without requiring much effort from the researcher- apart from the design of a questionnaire.

The questionnaire had initially been prepared to include five scales as answers of the items. In order to facilitate the data analysis procedure, similar options are combined into one during the analysis stage of this part of the questionnaire. Therefore, "not important at all" and "slightly important" options were combined to represent the least favorite option, and "important" and "very important" were taken together as the most favored option. In the end, there emerged three scales to report the findings.

The questionnaire consisting of three parts was analyzed quantitatively by using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0. All of the parts of the questionnaire were analyzed separately as they required different analysis techniques. Descriptive statistics were run for three questions in the first part of the questionnaire, namely "individual background" of participant teachers.

For the second part of the questionnaire, frequencies and percentages were computed to unravel the distribution of specific strategies. Additionally, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was calculated to see the distribution of answers in terms of the types of strategies; (i.e. pre, while and post reading strategies). Because there

were six items under pre-reading strategies in the second part, the total score was calculated to be 6x5=30. For while reading strategies, 21x5=105, and for post-reading strategies the total score was computed to be 9x5=45 for the second part of the questionnaire.

In the third part of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to report their actual classroom teaching practices regarding pre, while and post-reading type of strategies. Similar to the second part of the questionnaire, options 1 and 2 were linked to each other, while options 4 and 5 were evaluated together. Therefore, there emerged three categories in the end to be reported: "never/rarely", "sometimes", and "usually/always".

Additionally, a one-way within subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the results teachers provided on their practices of reading strategies in pre, while and post reading conditions for the third part of the questionnaire. Because there were ten items under pre-reading strategies in the third part, the total score was calculated to be 10x5=50. For while reading strategies, 17x5=85, and for post-reading strategies the total score was computed to be 11x5=55 for the third part of the questionnaire.

Analysis of the Observations

As a qualitative inquiry instrument, observations provide the observer as an outsider with the understanding of the context which has become routine for the insiders. They can also be applied to triangulate other data sources, such as interviews or other documents. (Merriam, 1998). For Bartel (2005) observation is a good way of assessing whether teachers use their knowledge from applied linguistic courses or to have an idea of their schemata and routines. Observations were subjected to

qualitative analysis, and they were analyzed with the help of NVivo 8 software in this study. Descriptive and reflective notes taken in the course of observations were entered in NVivo 8 program. Recurring themes were gathered in emerging categories and their reference numbers were calculated with the help of the above mentioned program in this study.

Analysis of the Interviews

As a third data collection instrument, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 3 observed teachers and 2 other teachers who had participated in the questionnaire and randomly chosen. The transcriptions of these five teachers' interviews were then entered into N-Vivo 8 software to be qualitatively analyzed, and recurring themes were collected under merging categories on NVivo 8.

Overview of Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Table 5 below summarizes the data collection instruments and data analysis procedures used in this study together with the specific research questions they deal with.

Table 5. Types of Data Collection Instruments and Data Analysis Procedures Corresponding to Each Research Question

Research questions	Data collection instruments	Data analysis procedures
1) What are EFL teachers' beliefs on reading strategies and explicit reading strategy instruction for reading comprehension in	-The second part of the questionnaire -Semi-structured interviews	-Quantitative analysis (SPSS16) • Descriptive statistics -Qualitative analysis (NVivo 8)

reading classes?		
2) Is there a difference in the degree of importance teachers attach to pre-, while, and post-reading strategies?	-The second part of the questionnaire	-Quantitative analysis (SPSS16) • One way within subjects ANOVA
3) What are the actual reading strategy instruction practices reported by the teachers in reading classes?	-The third part of the questionnaire -Observations	-Quantitative analysis (SPSS16) • Descriptive statistics -Qualitative analysis (NVivo 8)
4) Is there a difference in the actual application of pre-, while and post-reading strategies reported by teachers?	-The third part of the questionnaire	- Quantitative analysis (SPSS16) • One way within subjects ANOVA
5) Is there a correlation between teachers' beliefs and reported practices?	-The second part of the questionnaire -The third part of the questionnaire	- Quantitative analysis (SPSS16) • Pearson's product-moment correlation
6) How do actual classroom practices of teachers, who attach high, moderate, and low importance to reading strategies, show similarities and differences?	-Observations - Semi-structured interviews	-Qualitative analysis (NVivo 8)

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study was an attempt to investigate EFL teachers' perceptions and their classroom practices with regard to pre, while and post reading strategies. 42 EFL teachers who have taught reading courses in the Department of Basic English (DBE), Yıldız Technical University participated in this study. First of all, in order to determine teachers' conceptions of each reading strategy pertaining to pre, while and post reading types and their reported practices, a questionnaire was administered to reading teachers. Next, observation and interview protocols were conducted with the purposefully chosen participating teachers.

Teachers' Beliefs and Practices about Reading Strategies and Strategy Instruction

Teachers' Beliefs on Reading Strategies

Descriptive statistics run to analyze this part provided frequencies and percentages under each option for each item. Table 6 presents the results of the analysis of the responses teachers provided for the pre-reading strategies.

Table 6. Teachers' Beliefs about Pre-Reading Strategies

Strategies	Percentages (%100)		
	Not important at all / Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important/ Very important
Setting a purpose for reading	4.8	7.1	88.1
Previewing the text	0	14.3	85.7
Using illustrations, introductory statements or titles to predict what the text is about	0	14.3	85.7

Activating prior knowledge or background knowledge	0	16.7	83.3
Posing questions about the text	4.7	14.3	81
Paying attention to the title	4.7	28.6	66.7

As Table 8 makes it clear that except for the last strategy in this group, the answers teachers provided cluster on "important/ very important" options with a percentage above 80 for all of them. The analysis of the first type of strategies, namely pre-reading strategies, showed that the majority of teachers attach importance to these strategies. Furthermore, lower percentages for the item about "paying attention to title" should not be interpreted as a lower preference because teachers reported to find it important when it is employed to make predictions on the text content as it is apparent in the item of using illustrations, introductory statements or titles to predict what the text is about. Specifically, the most important pre-reading strategy was reported to be "setting a purpose for reading". Therefore, it can be claimed that a large number of teachers give importance to setting a purpose before starting reading. The reason behind the higher values for another pre-reading strategy which is activating prior knowledge or background knowledge strategy can be explained by the comments of one of the instructors. During the interviews, the first participant expressed that activating background knowledge is really important as it motivates students to read the text. Actually, the observations also showed that activating background knowledge is the most frequently used pre-reading strategy during the lessons.

Table 7 summarizes the findings of teachers' beliefs about how important each while reading strategy is.

Table 7. Teachers' Beliefs about While-Reading Strategies

Strategies	Percentages (%100)		
	Not important at all / Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important/ Very important
Guessing the meaning of the words from context	0	0	100
Finding main ideas	0	2.4	97.6
Making inferences	4.8	0	95.2
Identifying difficulties	2.4	7.1	90.5
Asking questions to check comprehension	2.4	7.3	90.3
Scanning information	4.8	9.5	85.7
Skimming the passage	4.8	11.9	83.3
Underlining key words or phrases	2.4	16.7	81
Finding answers to a question that is asked	2.6	17.9	79.5
Paying attention to the connections of each paragraph	2.4	19.0	78.6
Connecting text to background knowledge	4.8	19.0	76.2
Using discourse markers (e.g. transitions) to see relationships between sentences or paragraphs	2.4	23.8	73.8
Reading for referential information	9.5	19.0	71.5
Predicting the main idea of the following paragraph	7.2	28.6	64.3
Monitoring reading comprehension constantly	9.5	26.2	64.3
Using visual representations to support comprehension	11.9	28.6	59.5
Checking the predictions about the text	11.9	33.3	54.7
Using dictionaries	21.9	26.8	51.3
Paying attention to the text structure	15.8	36.8	47.4
Taking notes	14.6	39.0	46.3
Reading the text aloud	61.9	21.4	16.7

On the whole, the importance teachers attach to while reading strategies differ. For instance, while preferences drop to 16.7 % in "important/ very important" options for some items, it raises to 100 % for another item. Therefore, it is observed that the distribution is rather scattered.

The only item with a 100 % for one option is item 12 which is "guessing the meaning of the words from context". All of the teachers reported that this strategy is "important/ very important" for them. It is obvious then that all of the teachers put much importance on this strategy. This belief is also in line with the observation findings since it turned out to be the most applied strategy in classroom environment. The teachers' insights provided through the interviews also confirm these findings because when asked during the interviews, all of the teachers reported its benefits for reading instruction. For example, one of the instructor's comments on this issue highlight the rationale behind teaching this strategy:

> We know that the clues are not always included in a text, but we want our students 'have a look at here, there might be a synonym, an antonym that you know, and based on that you can guess.' Basically we are trying to help them because we have limited time. How can we help them? One: we can teach them some vocabulary strategies, some flashcards or we can teach them how to make a word web, and another way is of course we have to teach them some kinds of clues. Maybe it helps, maybe it doesn't help but we believe that everything that is proved via research deserves to be applied in a classroom environment. (Interview, Instructor 5, June, 2009).

"Finding main ideas" is another strategy which has a really high percentage on "important/ very important" options. Therefore, while reading a text, identifying main ideas of paragraphs or the whole passage seems of high importance for reading teachers of the DBE, YTU. Especially, during observations finding the main idea was among the strategies which took a great attention and for which teachers provided modeling. In addition to this, one of the interviewed instructors emphasized its vital place especially for C level learners as it is highly conducive to reading comprehension even if they do not understand every detail. That's why she reported to be spending much time to the teaching and practicing of this strategy.

"Making inferences" is the third strategy that has a high percentage on behalf of "important/very important" options. As it was part of the curriculum during the time period of observations, explicit instruction, modeling and practice sequences of this strategy were also observed in all of three lessons observed. Moreover, from the interviews one of the instructors expressed its importance by saying:

> Another example, for example making an inference, I'm always talking about making an inference because I just taught them. Our students don't think over the material; they just want to see the answer in the reading text, but the answer may not be in the text. We want to make them aware of such reality. And also, in Turkish they ask such questions, and also in TOEFL, for example, there are such questions. Students should be aware of the fact that not all the answers are given in the text. Maybe they have to think over the data, then they need to infer that information. (Interview, Instructor 5, June, 2009).

This excerpt shows that teachers are aware of the fact that "making inferences" is a vital strategy and students' awareness of it should be increased. As the instructor above made it clear, one has to read between the lines in order to reach a complete understanding of the text. Thus, the ability to infer gains a great deal of importance for students to be successful readers.

The number of teachers believing in the importance of "identifying difficulties strategy" is considerably high. This suggests that teachers highly value students' identifying comprehension difficulties on their own while reading which also shows the students' metacognitive awareness of comprehension process and readiness to deal with these difficulties.

The data analysis of items "scanning information" and "skimming the passage" yielded similar results. This clearly reveals that teachers put a high value on especially scanning and skimming strategies for reading comprehension. Actually, during the interviews four teachers out of five teachers interviewed reported scanning

as their most frequently used strategy in their individual readings and one teacher reported that it is especially very useful for students and their reading comprehension. It is displayed below in the interview extract as follows:

> …scanning. It is a very useful strategy. I mean for years, I have observed its benefits, and if they learn to use it appropriately, they really got pleasure from reading. Scanning.
>
> …scanning strategies are very helpful for students because throughout the year, they learn how to use, how to read quickly… (Interview, Instructor 4, June, 2009).

For another while reading strategy which is "underlining key words or phrases", the majority of teachers reported to believe in its importance. This clustering on "important/ very important" options was also elaborated on during the interviews, and one of the teachers made these comments:

> I do it as a learner, and most of my students I observed doing that. It is a way of noticing; it is a way of catching important points. I realized that most of my students do not underline every word that they don't understand. They just underline the item or vocabulary that they need to understand; the parts that make the paragraphs difficult to understand. I can't describe it as a strategy maybe, but it is a way of noticing something. You know something like traffic lights; I want to underline it so that it catches my attention. In that sense maybe it can be a strategy. It helps when you turn back to that text, again you need to look up that word, but it's an individual strategy I think. Not all of my students apply it. (Interview, Instructor 5, June, 2009)

"Finding answers to a question that is asked" strategy is one of those items whose answers mainly cluster on "important/very important" options. This is related to both readers' themselves posing questions about the text during reading and reading the questions given beforehand. Either way, readers have some questions in mind and approach the text to find answers to these pre-determined questions. Since it also gives a purpose for reading, teachers demonstrated a preference for this strategy. Also, throughout the observations it was noticed that instructors put much emphasis

on this strategy by asking students to read the questions first before reading the text. Especially the extract from the observations below presents how teachers specifically deal with this strategy in their teaching practices as well as model the strategy for students. "'In the exam, do you look at the questions before reading the text? …I think it is more practical to read the questions before the passage because you can underline these parts while reading. Let's read the True/False questions before reading the text'" (Instructor, pre-intermediate reading classroom, April 14, 2009). In this example, they were dealing with the text *Ancient Artifacts and Ancient Air* in Chapter 10. The teacher drew students' attention to the title of the text and the picture provided, and she asked some questions about "ancient artifacts" and what "ancient air" could mean. Then, just as they would start reading, the teacher gave students this tip which is also related to training students to act strategically.

Teachers reported that paying attention to the connections of each paragraph is important/ very important. In fact, during the observations teachers were observed to dwell upon this issue a lot in order to raise students' awareness for different signals and sentence connectors. For instance, the extract below depicts how the Instructor 2 tries to make this explicit for students while asking students:

> "You use whatever the listing signals are; like what? Like, 'first, second, last' but most importantly, you can use the most handsome statement in writing classes." Then, they continue with 'Description type in which the teacher asks: 'what do we describe?' and answers: 'You describe people, places, and objects.' The teacher reads a paragraph and asks: 'What is explained here? Where could this take place? What is used in this kind of texts? You can see adjectives'. … 'While you compare you find similarities, in contrast, you find differences. So what are you going to use?' Students say: 'comparatives, superlatives, antonyms, synonyms, as, like, similar to.' The teacher further asks: 'What do we use to show contrast? But, in contrast, although, even though.' …. 'The author's purpose is to show similarities or differences.' … 'In cause-effect which structures do we

> use? Because, due to, because of, lead to, etc.' The teacher reads the explanation and examples in the book by emphasizing key words. (Instructor 2, pre-intermediate level reading classroom, April 29, 2009).

In this example, the teacher was explaining "information-organization" strategy which was one of the topics in the supplementary material. There were different text types, such as "cause-effect, comparison-contrast, chronological order, listing" and "description" under the title of "text organization". The teacher tried to provide students with some clues about identifying text structure. Therefore, the anecdote above represents a strategy instruction and training acting strategically instantiation.

Likewise, most of teachers reported that "connecting text to background knowledge" is "important/ very important" for them. This finding also complies with the answers teachers' provided for "activating prior knowledge or background knowledge" strategy in the pre-reading strategies. Thus, during reading also they believe in the efficiency of on-going activation of schemata and the accommodation of knowledge.

For another strategy (using discourse markers to see relationships between sentences or paragraphs), a significant number of teachers reported finding it really important. This result is also in line with the field notes since it is among the fifteen most frequently used strategies according to the charts NVivo 8 provided. These findings are also relevant to the reality of reading because in most of the texts although there are no visual representations present, there are always discourse markers, like sentence connectors which will help the reader during the reading process.

The answers teachers have provided for the item "reading for referential information" clusters mainly on "important/very important" options. These results

display that most of the teachers believe that identifying referrals is an important issue for reading comprehension. Also, this topic was covered in the lessons that were observed and one of the teachers' efforts to explain this strategy are given in the below extract as follows:

> The teacher writes 'Missing Information' and 'Referral' on the board. Then, she writes a sentence to refresh students' memories on "Referrals". She says: 'We have already covered this subject in the first term. Now, I am showing you an exercise which you can do by using this skill' One student asks 'How can we find the correct answer?' The teacher says: 'In order to find the missing information, we need to find the pronoun in the sentence which contains missing information or the sentences before it. If you want, first read the sentences in the options, that will help you easily. You don't need to understand the sentence. Don't be stuck there. Here, "they" is mentioned, so the missing information should be plural. ..What is the referral pronoun here: it. Then, it should be something singular. It should be something that "people like". The teacher suggests doing the first one together and they start. Here, there is 'they', so what should it be?' Students answer that option "a" is correct. The teacher says 'Let's try to for now, and go on.' Then, she tells 'What did we say, two referral pronouns should be related to each other, so can 'it' refer to 'young women'?' The teacher skips the parts that students have difficulty. In another question, one student tells there is 'product' and 'it', 'understand it', so she got the answer from there." (Instructor 1, pre-intermediate level reading classroom, April 21, 2009).

In the depicted lesson above, the class was dealing with "identifying referrals". The teacher first refreshed students' memory on referrals since they covered that subject before. Next, she gave some clues to students so that they could easily identify the referrals which is also a part of strategy training.

Not a great number of teachers reported to believe in high importance of "using visual representations to support comprehension" strategy. This strategy was neither attended by any of the participant teachers during the interviews nor was it during the observations. The distribution of answers teachers provided looks even also for "using dictionaries" strategy. Throughout the interviews four of the teachers (out of five in total) emphasized its importance for improving the quality of reading.

For instance, the instructor's comments on this issue are very enlightening to understand why they allot so much time and space on this strategy:

> Well, since they are learning English, they are in the learning process, of course they need to use their dictionaries, and I ask them to carry their dictionaries all the time in the classroom. But how do you do it appropriately is important thing. I mean, not trying to look at it all the time; just if the word is too much difficult to understand or to handle, to look at it, and trying to focusing in the example sentences in the dictionary, it's important, but not it's our main purpose, just the tool. (Interview, Instructor 4, June, 2009).

Like teachers' beliefs regarding the importance of "predicting the main idea of the following paragraph" strategy, their reported perceptions about the metacognitive strategy of "checking the predictions about the text" were also considerably low. This means that reading teachers of the DBE, YTU do not put a high value on prediction during reading nor on checking these predictions.

For another metacognitive reading strategy (monitoring reading comprehension constantly), more than half of teachers opted for "important/ very important" options. As it is obvious from the percentages not so many teachers seem to believe in the high importance of this while reading strategy although it is shown to be among the necessary components of metacognitive strategies.

Although teachers' reported beliefs about the previous metacognitive strategy were not significantly high, they reported to have a greater perception for the following metacognitive strategy which is "asking questions to check comprehension". The conflicting results for this and the previous item may stem from teachers' perceiving the word "questions" here as post reading comprehension questions asked by the book. As a result, despite its' being a kind of metacognitive strategy in the form of monitoring reading comprehension, the percentage of teachers preferring "important/very important" options increased.

For “reading the text aloud”, the majority of teachers chose “slightly important/ not important at all” options. Therefore, according to the questionnaire results, teachers do not see reading the text aloud as an important reading strategy. Nevertheless, during the interviews, when teachers asked if they read the text aloud in lessons and why they apply this strategy, there were differing answers, two of the teachers reported that previously they used to make use of this strategy a lot, but nowadays they do not prefer it because they believe that students may lose their concentration or they may want to adapt reading according to their reading pace. On the other hand, two of the teachers stated they sometimes apply this strategy because they believe that it can raise their awareness towards the correct pronunciation of words.

The remaining nine items of this part of questionnaire address teachers’ perceptions about post-reading strategies. The items are provided in Table 10 as follows:

Table 8. Teachers’ Beliefs about Post-Reading Strategies

Strategies	Percentages (%100)		
	Not important at all / Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important/ Very important
Drawing conclusions from the text	0	11.9	88.1
Reflecting on what has been learned from the text	2.4	11.9	85.7
Repairing faulty comprehension	4.8	16.7	78.6
Outlining	9.5	23.8	66.7
Summarizing	7.1	31.0	61.9
Rereading the text in case of comprehension failure	11.9	26.2	61.9
Retelling the text	4.8	35.7	59.5
Critiquing the text	26.9	17.1	56.1
Critiquing the author	34.2	17.1	48.8

As it was displayed in Table 9 - the mean scores of teachers’ perceptions of types of strategies- the mean score of post-reading strategies in total is the lowest value (77.3

%) among all three types of strategies. Therefore, as the table above depicts the percentages of individual post reading strategies are naturally low. One possible reason for this was explained as time constraints by one of the instructors in her interview:

> Well, I definitely believe that it's very necessary and this year we complain about it because last year we couldn't do it because of the time limits again, and we had to do so many things in workbook. This year, we already changed it, instead of doing, spending so much time on workbook, we decide to complete all the stages in a book because I believe that reading and writing should go together or reading and speaking should go together. I believe that we should complete it. Why? Because I think students should make connections between text and herself/himself. They should know how to, I mean, reacting their feelings, opinions. That's how they become interested in reading text. You know, like they should interact with text. If they don't interact with a text, they are not interested in a text. I believe that we should do it, and we should complete it. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

The biggest percentage on "important/very important" options among post-reading strategies is for "drawing conclusions from the text" strategy. This strategy was also instructed explicitly at the time of classroom observations, and teachers put a heavy emphasis on it. That's why they may have a higher perception for this post-reading strategy.

The last item of the second part of the questionnaire asks for teachers' opinions with regard to "reflecting on what has been learned from the text". This item has the second place in rank in terms of the clustering on "important/very important" options. It shows that teachers attach much importance on reflection after reading which also helps accommodate new information into readers' existing schemata.

The percentage on "important/very important" options for the strategy of "repairing faulty comprehension" is also rather high compared to the other post-reading strategies. However, teachers could have mistaken this with their attempts to

correct students' comprehension errors rather than students' own attempts. Either way, students can come up with some repair strategies in the case of comprehension errors.

The post-reading strategy- "summarizing"- yielded considerably lower results on behalf of important options. The relatively small percentage for "important/very important" options is also in line with observation findings since only one instance of summarizing was observed during the whole term in only one class. Apart from this summarization activity performed by Instructor 3, no other written or oral summarization was seen throughout the lessons.

For another post-reading strategy- "outlining"- similar results emerged. The percentage of teachers who believe that it is a highly important strategy is not remarkable compared to the pre-reading strategies. Similar to "summarizing" strategy above, no outlining activities were performed throughout the observed lessons.

Slightly more than half of teachers reported that "retelling the text" is "important/very important". Additionally, the results for "rereading the text in case of comprehension failure" are in a similar vein since not so many teachers declared that they find it as a remarkable strategy. Parallel to teachers' reported beliefs on the metacognitive while reading strategy of "monitoring reading comprehension constantly", they did not state holding capital beliefs on the metacognitive post-reading strategy of "rereading the text in case of comprehension failure". This may again stem from limited amount of time allotted to reading lessons, though. As a result of this, they could not focus on post-reading activities or strategies, so time consuming as rereading the passage.

On the other hand, less than half of teachers reported that "critiquing the author" is an important/ very important strategy. Besides, the number of teachers who found this strategy not important at all/ slightly important is considerably large compared to other strategies in the questionnaire. Also, in the course of observations, no instances of practice of this strategy were performed. For another similar strategy (critiquing the text), very few of teachers picked up "important/very important" options which means that teachers find critiquing the text a more beneficial post-reading strategy than critiquing the author.

On the whole, it is obvious that "drawing conclusions from the text" and "reflecting on what has been learned from the text" are the most important post-reading strategies that teachers report. Although the other strategies, like "summarizing, outlining, retelling the text, rereading the text in case of comprehension failure" and "critiquing the text and the author" did not receive much attention from the DBE, YTU reading teachers, the above mentioned two strategies were reported to be "important/very important" for reading comprehension.

The Overall Beliefs of Teachers on Pre, While and Post-Reading Types

The second research question of this study aims to find out whether there is a difference in the degree of importance teachers attach to pre-, while, and post-reading strategies. Table 9 depicts the overall descriptive statistics analysis of three types of reading strategies with the mean scores of pre-, while, and post-reading strategies. Since all of the options in the scale have numeric values, like "very important=5", "important=4", "somewhat important=3", "slightly important=2" and "not important at all=1", the mean scores for each type of strategies for each teacher were computed.

Table 9. The Mean Scores of Teachers' Perceptions of the Three Types of Strategies

	M	SD	N
Pre-reading	85.55	9.41	42
While reading	79.90	9.29	42
Post-reading	77.32	11.28	42

According to this table, pre-reading strategies has the highest mean in the group. Therefore, it can be argued that teachers value pre-reading strategies more than the others. The mean score for the while reading strategies depicts that it is the second mostly valued strategy type. On the other hand, post-reading strategies seems to be the least favorite type which means that they do not seem to be valued as an efficient way to deal with reading as much as the other types by the teachers.

In order to determine whether the means differed significantly, a One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA was conducted. The results showed that the answers teachers provided for pre, while and post-reading strategies differed significantly, $p < .01$.

Bonferoni post hoc comparisons conducted indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores between pre-reading strategies and while reading strategies ($p < .01$) and between pre-reading and post-reading ($p < .01$). However, there was no significance difference between while reading and post-reading strategies ($p > .05$).

These results suggest that there exists a significant difference with regard to the teachers' perceptions on pre-, while and post-reading strategies. Specifically, this study's results suggest that reading teachers at the DBE, YTU believe in the importance of pre-reading strategies significantly more than while and post-reading strategies. However, there is no significant difference revealed between while and post reading strategies in terms of teachers' perceptions.

Teachers' Reported Practices of Reading Strategies

The third part of the questionnaire deals with teachers' actual practices of reading strategies in the classroom. The results of teachers' reported practices are given in Table 10:

Table 10. Teachers' Practices of Pre-Reading Strategies

Strategies	Percentages (%100)		
	Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Usually/ Always
I ask students to read the titles and predict what the text is about.	0	4.8	95.2
I ask students warm-up questions related to the text before reading.	2.4	7.1	90.5
I set a purpose for reading.	4.8	11.9	83.3
I ask students to look at illustrations/ pictures and try to guess how they relate to the text.	0	16.7	83.3
I set a context before students begin reading.	2.4	21.4	76.2
I ask students to relate the text/topic to their experience.	7.2	26.2	66.6
I have students quickly look over the text before reading.	11.9	26.2	61.6
Before doing discussion or any other activity, I have students read the text.	35.7	23.8	40.5
I teach vocabulary before students read the text.	33.3	47.6	19.1
I use instructional aids (e.g. relia, music, etc.) to set a context.	50	38.1	11.9

Teachers' answers in the first four items in the above table significantly cluster on "usually/ always" options. A significant number of reading teachers of the DBE, YTU reported that they "usually/ always" set a purpose for reading. Actually, one of the instructors' comments on this strategy based on her own reading habits are really insightful:

> Well, when I hear the word strategic reading, at first reading for a specific purpose or you should have some kind of a goal, aim when you're reading strategically. If you're using some strategies while reading a text, it means that beforehand you do have a goal when you're reading that text. What kind of a goal? Maybe there are some questions afterwards or it does have some academic reason, you're analyzing that text. So, first word that comes into my mind is your goal, your aim in reading that text and afterwards determining some kind of a strategy that accompany. (Interview, Instructor 4, June, 2009).

This finding is supported by field notes to some extent since one of the instructors performed two instances of this strategy in her lessons by urging students to pose some questions to be found in the text and then guiding students to read the text.

A remarkably high percentage of participating teachers reported implementing getting help from illustrations or titles to predict what the passage is about. These results are also in line with observation findings since nine instances of "using titles, illustrations and pictures to predict text content" strategy were observed throughout lessons. To illustrate, in one of the classes observed the teacher took students' attention to the title *Ancient Artifacts and Ancient Air,* and asked students what they expect to see in this passage by looking at this title, and this in fact helped student to form accurate guesses about the upcoming information from the text and read with the awareness of text topic. Besides, the majority of teachers reported that they "usually/ always" ask students warm-up questions related to the text before reading. This is again a significant finding in terms of its' holding a higher frequency. Although the line between activating background knowledge and asking warm-up questions sometimes gets blurred, five activities in which the participant teachers directed some warm-up questions related to the text topic to activate students' prior knowledge were observed in the lessons.

Although the answers for the next three items in the above table cluster on "usually/ always" options, their percentages are relatively low compared to the previous four strategies mentioned. For instance, the number of teachers reporting that they usually/ always set a context before students begin reading is not significantly high. In fact, some of the activities coded as "activating background knowledge" hold some characteristics of setting a context for reading. To illustrate, before starting reading one of the reading passages which was about Venus and Serena Williams sisters, one of the observed instructors drew a concept map on the board and wrote concepts related to "tennis" with the help of students before starting reading. For another reading passage entitled Innocent until Proven Guilty, Instructor 2 wrote some key words about "court system" and the steps of arresting a suspect on the board again with students' constant participation. About the practice of having students go over the text quickly before reading, the number of teachers reporting to very frequently apply this strategy is considerably low. Similar to the results for some post-reading strategies, this may result from limited amount of time that teachers have to cover a text and practice reading strategies appropriately. Apart from these, not so many teachers reported implementing background knowledge activation before starting reading. Throughout observations, though, many examples of "activating background knowledge" attempts of teachers were detected. For this item, the stem of the item could have misled some teachers to choose other options since they did not explicitly urge students to activate their prior knowledge; instead they indirectly led students to activate their existing schemata related to the subject.

In the subsequent part, teachers' practices of while-reading strategies are investigated in the questionnaire. The results of analysis of this part are displayed in Table 11, as follows:

Table 11. Teachers' Practices of While Reading Strategies

Strategies	Percentages (%100)		
	Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Usually/ Always
I ask students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words.	0	7.1	92.8
I teach students how to guess the meaning of unknown words	0	9.5	90.5
I ask students to relate what they read to what they already know.	9.5	14.3	76.2
I teach students to read the first and the last paragraphs more carefully.	4.8	23.8	71.5
I ask students to underline key words and/or phrases	11.9	23.8	64.3
I ask students to underline unknown words	21.4	28.6	50
I ask students to use a monolingual dictionary.	28.6	26.2	45.2
I tell students to make guesses about up-coming information in the text.	16.7	40.5	42.8
I allow students to use a bilingual dictionary.	21.4	38.1	40.5
I ask students to try to visualize what they read.	24	38.1	38.1
I teach all the new vocabulary in the text.	35.7	26.2	38
I tell students to read carefully and slowly.	31	33.3	35.8
I ask students to read the text more than once.	35.7	33.3	31
I tell the students to skip unknown words.	28.5	42.9	28.6
I have students read aloud in class one at a time.	40.5	33.3	26.2
I ask students to take notes while reading.	45.2	31.0	23.8
I stress the importance of reading every word.	78.6	19.0	2.4

In a total agreement with the results of the while reading type of strategies in the second part of the questionnaire, the highest percentages in this table belong to strategies about "guessing the meaning of unknown words". Therefore, when teachers asked the frequency of their practices of teaching how to guess the meaning of unknown words, most of them reported applying it in their classrooms highly frequently. In line with this, the majority of teachers reported usually/ always asking

students to guess the meaning of unknown words. These findings are in complete agreement with the second part of the questionnaire since 100 % of teachers expressed that guessing the meanings of words from context is important/ very important for them. Throughout the observations also many instances of these practices were found out. Especially, one of the instructors' encouragement of students in the extract from the observations displayed below is noteworthy:

> The teacher writes two sentences on the board and warns students not to look at the dictionary: 'Some species of frogs have become extinct. They have completely disappeared from the earth.' The teacher asks students which word they do not know in this sentence and what they do when they encounter an unknown word while they are reading without looking up the dictionary. One student says that s/he tries to look at the other words. The teacher says they are surrounding words. Another student tells s/he looks at the part of the speech and decides whether it is a verb, adjective, noun or adverb and eliminates the others. Then, the teacher gives students 30 seconds to guess the meaning of 'extinct' and orders them to decide the part of the speech first. One student tells it is an adjective. The teacher asks why they think so, and the student explains. Then, she asks if it is an adjective, what its meaning can be, and gets their guesses. One student makes the right guess after s/he has learned the meaning of 'disappear' from her, and the teacher asks which clues have helped. They say 'disappear'. She says when they encounter an unknown word while reading, they should first look at the part of the speech, next look around the text surrounding the words and last use context clues. Then, she asks what context clues mean, and explains: 'There are context clues that you can see the direct meaning of an unknown word. Today we are going to learn them.' She writes 'Using context clues to guess the meaning' on the board and says they are going to look at first of all what types of clues there are in the paragraph: definition, comparison, contrast and example clues. She gives their explanations in both Turkish and English. One student reads one paragraph from the workbook in which there is the explanation of 'using context clues'. The teacher says that they do not have to know all the words; they can use the clues. She writes on the board: 'Nobody talks to me. I have no friends. I feel lynatic.' And asks the meaning of 'lynatic' and one student says that it means 'lonely'. Then, she says that there is no such word and she has made that up which means that they do not have to know all the words, and just trust in themselves. She tells that they won't have to look up the dictionary after a while. Then, she explains the meaning of context… (Instructor 1, pre-intermediate level reading classroom, April 4, 2009).

During the interviews, when asked the rationale behind this activity, the instructor provided the following answer:

> To make them believe that "you don't need to understand every word. You can understand the idea." Things like that. I think it was about guessing the meaning, right? Because, you know, again if it's just the teaching, if you just say "OK, sts, we have another strategy guessing the meaning from the context", you know they don't believe; they say "I can't do it. I can't guess the meaning from the context. I can't even do it." But if first they do it and say that "Aha, I do it", you know, then they apply it. To make them believe that they can guess it; that's why I used that exercise. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

Although the results for the next three items do not heavily cluster on "usually/always" options, more than half of teachers preferred these options for these items. For instance, quite a lot of teachers reported that they ask students to relate what they read to what they already know, i.e. to their schemata. It is still a highly practiced strategy, and it may be the result of teachers' greater beliefs on schemata activation. A comparatively big number of teachers reported that they teach students to read the first and the last paragraphs more carefully. It is apparent from this finding that quite most of the teachers value providing students with some tips to increase reading comprehension. It must be also noted as teachers' efforts to lead students to act strategically while reading which is also one of the outcomes of metacognitive strategy training. Exactly half of teachers declared their urging students to underline unknown words. Besides, in the observations, three examples of teachers' directions on underlining unknown words were illustrated which also do not seem to be frequently applied in classrooms. This means that although it is not used very frequently, teachers still believe in the benefits of this strategy.

For the remaining eleven items in while-reading strategies category, less than half of teachers picked up "usually/ always" options. Since the mean score of teachers' practices of while reading strategies is 67.3, this tendency towards

"sometimes" or "never/ rarely" options is not surprising for these items. Some of these items are about vocabularies and unknown words, and observation findings support these results as the participant teachers were not observed to "always" teach all the new vocabularies, nor were they seen to "always" encourage students to use dictionaries while reading. Nearly half of teachers reported that they "never/ rarely" ask students to take notes while reading. The reason behind this low frequency of this strategy could be explained by one of the instructors' comments during the interviews:

> For this stage it's not necessary because they have a book, they have the questions, and also they will have the handout which teaches strategies, so why do they need it to take notes? So, it's not a good strategy to teach; we can ignore that strategy. Yeah. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

For students' reading aloud in the classroom, teachers who reported to frequently apply this strategy are in minority. Additionally, during the interviews, when they are asked, two of teachers expressed that they do not apply this strategy any more. Their reason for not using it any more can be summarized as follows:

> When I first started teaching in reading classes, I liked it. But nowadays, especially with intermediate students I don't prefer it. Because, first I want them to listen from the CD, and I observed that if they are listening from the CD, they follow it. I'm always trying to make them concentrate on pronunciation; "do not just listen to the information, but also listen to some pronunciation" because the text is read aloud by a native speaker. And also, intermediate students get bored immediately with read aloud because they don't want to wait for someone else, especially for the ones who are slow readers. They want to deal with something else if a student whose pronunciation is not good, and who is a slow reader. And they lost their concentration. So, I don't prefer it with intermediate students who are my only students for two or three years. (Interview, Instructor 5, June, 2009).

The third section in the last part of the questionnaire investigates teachers' practices of post-reading strategies. There are eleven items for which teachers provided the

answers that best describes their actual classroom practices. Table 12 displays the results of analysis for this section:

Table 12. Teachers' Practices of Post-Reading Strategies

Strategies	Percentages (%100)		
	Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Usually/ Always
I ask comprehension questions about the text.	0	4.8	95.2
I ask students to draw conclusions about the text they have read.	2.4	19.0	78.6
I ask students to comment on the text.	4.8	21.4	73.5
I ask students to discuss the text after reading.	4.8	35.7	59.5
I give students follow-up activities related to the text.	16.7	23.8	59.5
I ask students to summarize the text (written or oral).	33.3	35.7	30.9
I ask students to critique the text.	38.1	38.1	23.8
I assign students tasks to do using the information in the text.	35.7	42.9	21.4
I ask students to critique the author.	47.7	31.0	21.4
I ask students to write their reflections about the text.	42.8	45.2	11.9
I give students a quiz about the text.	81	14.3	4.8

The most frequently applied post-reading strategy reported by teachers is asking students comprehension questions about the text. In fact, this finding is also verified by field notes since many examples of teachers' asking comprehension questions about the text after reading were detected. One possible reason for the higher frequency of the practice of this strategy can be that as after each reading passage the book presents some comprehension questions. Therefore, it becomes more feasible for teachers to make use of them constantly since they are ready-made.

Next, the majority of teachers reported that they usually/ always ask students to draw conclusions about the text they have read. This high percentage is also supported by field notes since many instances of inference strategy practice were observed. Besides, most of teachers reported very frequently asking students to

comment on the text which is also a relatively highly practiced strategy compared to other items.

The number of teachers reporting making use of asking students to discuss the text after reading is slightly more than half as well as their practices of giving students follow-up activities related to the text. This can again be explained with reference to time constraints. Since teachers could hardly finish the lesson by having read the text, there must remain no time for follow-up discussions or related activities. The high percentages on "never/ rarely" options for the last two items in the above table correspond to the findings of related items in the second part of the questionnaire. Since teachers do not believe in the importance of neither critiquing the author nor critiquing the text, they did not report frequently practicing these strategies.

As the overall mean score (66.3) for teachers' application of post reading strategies in the classroom environment suggests in Table 15, teachers do not seem to practice post-reading strategies as much as they do pre or while-reading strategies. This result is also supported by field notes because while few instances of post reading strategies were found out, there were plenty examples of teachers' practicing pre-reading strategies.

The Overall Practices of Teachers on Pre-, While and Post-Reading Types

For the third part of the questionnaire also a one-way within subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the results teachers provided on their practices of reading strategies in pre-, while and post-reading stages. This analysis was targeted to answer the fourth research question which aims to investigate whether there is a difference in

the actual application of pre-, while and post-reading strategies reported by the teachers or not.

The mean scores analysis of the third part of the questionnaire revealed that the most frequently practiced type of reading strategies are pre-reading strategies for the DBE, YTU reading teachers according to their reported practices. Table 13 depicts the mean scores analyzed for all types of reading strategies:

Table 13. The Mean Scores of Teachers' Classroom Applications of the Three Types of Strategies

	M	SD	N
Pre-reading	95.11	10.69	42
While reading	67.14	8.07	42
Post-reading	66.32	12.80	42

As Table 15 depicts, the means of pre-reading strategies in total overweight the means of other two types of reading strategies. This means that while most of the participant teachers usually/always practice pre-reading strategies in their classroom teaching, they do not perform such frequent practices of while or post-reading strategies.

Bonferoni post hoc comparisons displayed that there was a significant difference in the scores between pre-reading strategies and while reading strategies ($p < .01$) and between pre-reading and post-reading ($p < .01$). However, there was no significance difference between while reading and post-reading strategies ($p > .05$). In the end, the results show that the answers teachers provided for pre, while and post-reading strategies differed significantly ($p < .01$).

These results suggest that there exists a significant difference with regard to teachers' classroom practices of pre, while and post reading strategies. Specifically, this study's results suggest that reading teachers at the DBE, YTU practice pre-reading strategies significantly more than while or post-reading strategies. However,

there is no significant difference between while and post reading strategies in terms of teachers' reported practices. As it was recorded from the beginning of the Results chapter, the rationale behind this could be explained by the overwhelming workload of reading teachers which leaves little room for the proper and sufficient practice of strategies except for pre-reading type.

The Relationship between Teachers' Beliefs and Reported Practices

A Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was also calculated to determine whether there is a correlation between teachers' beliefs and reported practices which is asked in research question five. The Pearson correlation coefficient for the relationship between teachers' beliefs on pre-reading strategies and their reported practices on pre-reading strategies was computed to be r=.014 ($p<.05$). The correlation between teachers' beliefs on while reading strategies and their reported practices on these strategies was r=.00 ($p<.01$). Lastly, the relationship between teachers' beliefs on post-reading strategies and their reported practices on post-reading strategies was calculated. The correlation coefficient was found to be r=.00 ($p<.01$).

These results demonstrate that there exists a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs and their reported practices in terms of all three types of reading strategies. Therefore, teachers who participated in this study reflect their beliefs in their classroom practices as reported by them as regards to pre-, while and post-reading strategies.

Teachers' Actual Classroom Practices of Reading Strategies

The field notes entered into NVivo 8 software was analyzed qualitatively. The results of the field notes provided more data to answer research questions three and six that investigate teachers' applications of reading strategies in the actual classroom environment. Recurring themes were collected under the same codes, and the emergent codes helped to find out answers to specifically research question 3 (What are the actual reading strategy instruction practices reported by the teachers in reading classes?) Figure 1 below displays the distribution of reading strategies observed throughout the lessons.

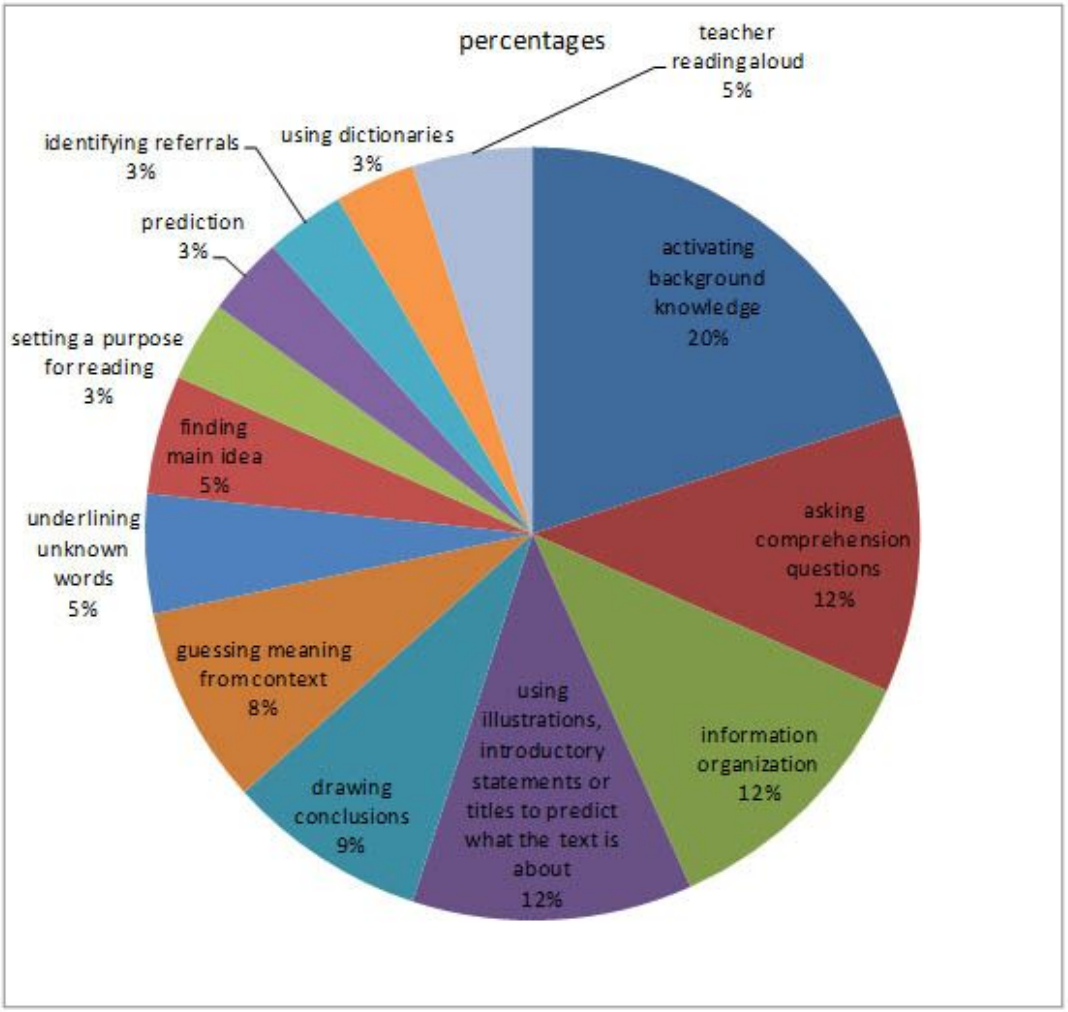

Fig. 1 The percentages of the application of individual strategies in the classrooms.

As the figure summarizes, the number of while reading strategies overpasses the others, followed by the pre-reading strategies. These findings still do not contradict with questionnaire results since the mean score of teachers' reported practices of post-reading strategies is the lowest according to the analysis of the questionnaire, and pre-reading strategies have the highest mean score. The analysis of the questionnaire had displayed that while reading strategies on the whole were the second most frequently applied ones in the classroom environment. It is also obvious from the percentages presented in the above figure that although the diversity of while-reading strategies employed in the observed classes are larger, their percentages are not actually as high as pre-reading strategies. For instance as while reading strategies, underlining unknown words or finding main idea has a percentage of 5; however, only one pre-reading strategy which is "using illustrations, introductory statements or titles to predict the text content" is 11%.

According to Figure 1, the strategy with the highest percentage is a pre-reading strategy: activating background knowledge. In accordance with this finding, it is displayed by both questionnaire and interview results that 83.3 % teachers declared finding this strategy important/ very important. Besides, 90.5 % of teachers reported that they "usually/always" ask warm- up questions related to the text before starting reading in the last part of the questionnaire. As teachers ask schemata activating questions to warm students up to the text, this item can be handled as "activating background knowledge" strategy. Throughout the lessons, also, this strategy was observed to be the most frequently practiced one as it was well depicted in the figure above. At the time of interviews one of the instructors explained the reason why she makes use of this strategy as follows:

> …but again, activating pre-knowledge makes them connect to the text because they think their own life, they think about their background knowledge about it. Yeah. For example, if you ask: 'Have you ever done any extreme sports?' They think about their life and they can make connection with the text, so it's very very good strategy. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

The strategies of "asking comprehension questions about the text" and "information organization" share the second place according to the analysis of field notes. The former strategy is generally regarded as a post-reading strategy, but it could also be employed to check comprehension during reading. In the lessons observed, it was always used as a post-reading strategy in the form of answering comprehension questions provided in the reading text book. For instance, in one of the lessons as a post reading activity, after reading the text about the famous tennis players, Venus and Serena Williams, the teacher asked students to decide which of the "Ten facts" is about which sister "Venus/Serena" by referring to the text again and students provided answers one by one again. The percentage of this strategy on the part of "important/very important" options is also high; i.e. 90.3 in the second part of the questionnaire. In addition to this, in line with the second part of the questionnaire, "asking comprehension questions" was the most frequently applied post-reading strategy as 95.2 % of teachers reported that they "usually/always" ask comprehension questions about the text in the last part of the questionnaire.

The strategy "information organization" also received as much attention during the lessons observed as the previous strategy. In one of the classes observed, the topic was "identifying text structures", and the teacher provided a detailed instruction about it as it is displayed in the extract from the observations below when teacher asked:

> "What we usually see in chronological order texts?" Students answer "time words". She further asks "like what? How do we show what

> happens before or next?" Students say with "dates, 1915, etc." Then, she asks: "What do we see in cause-effect texts?" Students: "because, so, due to, thus, therefore." She applies the same procedure for the rest of the text types by giving examples in sentences, and they go on with an exercise on identifying text organization in the workbook. She says: "Let's have a look at the examples so that it becomes permanent."… "An adjective can describe a thing or explain a concept; description type." They read example paragraphs for each text organization type. (Instructor 1, pre-intermediate level reading classroom, April 28, 2009).

As it is apparent in the example above, teachers generally provided detailed instructions on each reading strategy at the first time of teaching by modeling it when necessary. Then, in the following lessons,, when the need arises they review the strategy with the help of examples.

The analysis of descriptive notes and reflective notes taken during observations through NVivo 8 provided the qualitative analysis of this study with some numerical information. Accordingly, number of references per strategy and percentages for the most frequently applied strategies emerged at the time of analysis. Apart from detecting the mostly used strategy types and individual strategies, this program enabled to find the examples of the stages of strategy training.

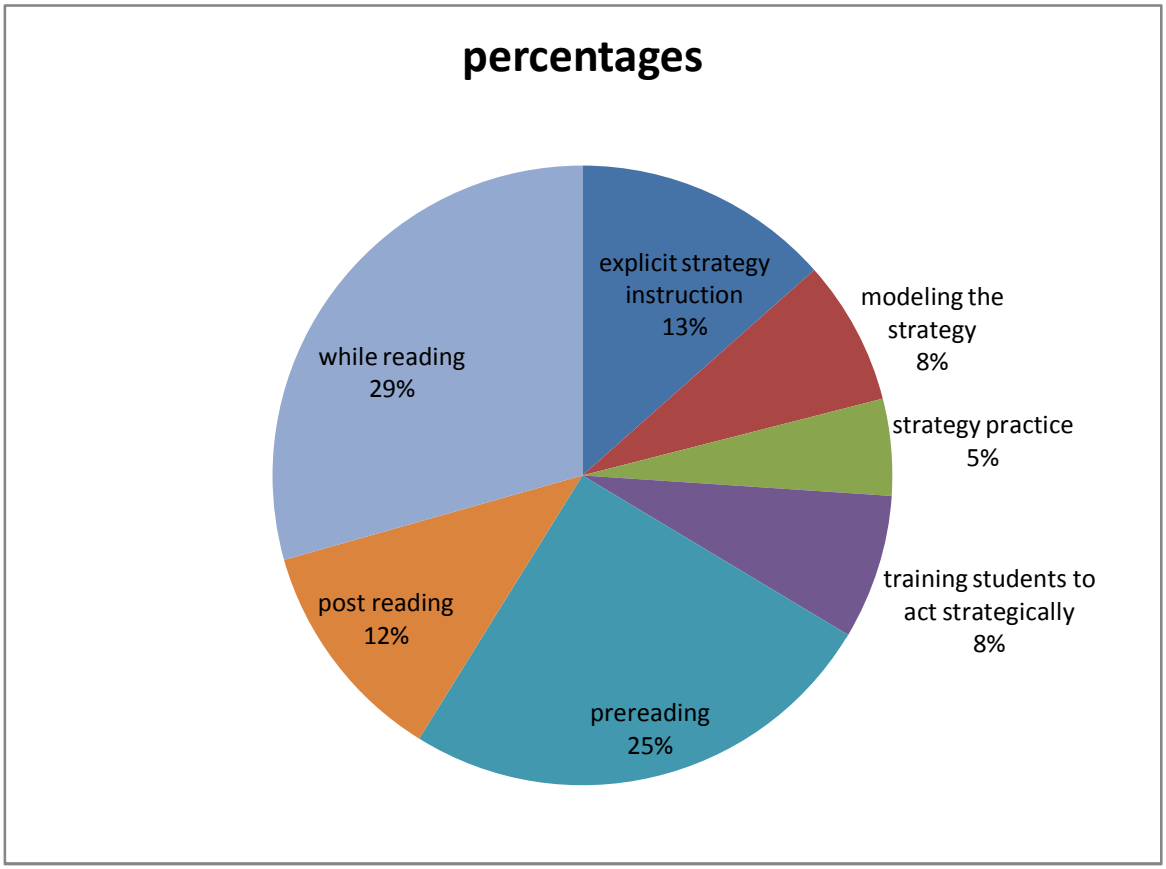

Fig. 2 The percentages of strategy instruction steps and the application of types of strategies in the classrooms.

Figure 2 makes it clear that explicit strategy instruction covers an important space in the reading classroom observed. It is also apparent that teachers occasionally provided modeling the strategy for students which is an irreplaceable component of strategy instruction. Following teacher modeling, practicing strategy took up 5% of classes observed. It is obvious from these findings that teachers perform the stages of a strategy training lesson (instruction- modeling- practice) appropriately most of the time. However, the number of instant practices of strategies after the modeling could have been greater and the reinforcement of strategy training could have been better. From the observations it is also revealed that teachers directed students to become strategic readers which would also increase students' metacognitive awareness as it took up a considerable part of the lessons observed.

The figure also shows that the percentages of pre and while reading strategies are very close to each other. However, it is also obvious that the number of the application of post-reading strategies is comparatively low. As a result, the research question 2.b. that investigates the type of strategy that is employed more than others in classroom practices finds the answer thanks to these findings and the analysis of the last part of the questionnaire. The questionnaire results showed that pre-reading strategies overweight while and post-reading strategies to a great extent. The analysis of field notes confirmed the overwhelming vantage of pre-reading strategies, however, it also displayed that while-reading strategies also go hand in hand in teachers' actual classroom practices.

The analysis of field notes also catered answers for the last research question, namely, how actual classroom practices of teachers, who attach high, moderate, and low importance to reading strategies, show similarities and differences.

Initially, all three teachers' implementations of the strategies displayed in Figure 1 above enabled to see the commonalities or differences clearly. Thus, a figure like below emerged which shows the frequencies of all teachers' applications of the strategies which were recorded to be most frequently practiced. Instructor 1 is the teacher who holds the most major beliefs for reading strategies. Instructor 2 was determined to attach moderate importance to reading strategies. Instructor 3 reported to believe in the importance of reading strategies least among the all 42 teachers who took the questionnaire.

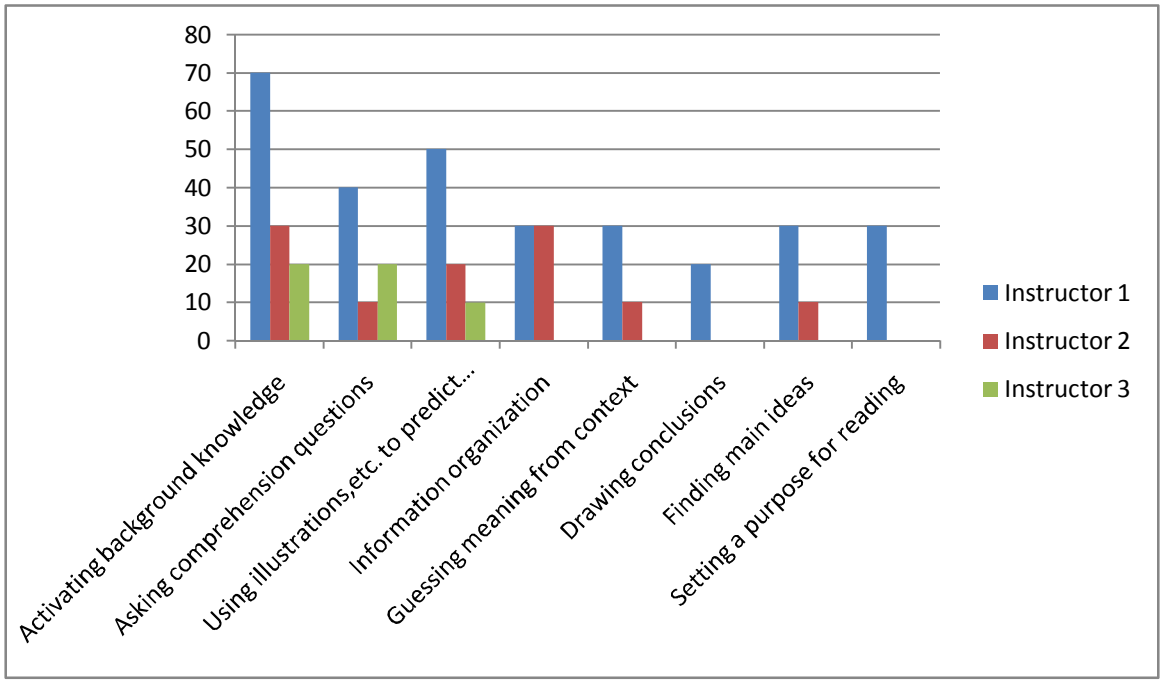

Fig.3. The similarities among the three observed teachers regarding the application of specific reading strategies in their classrooms.

Figure 3 displays that almost all three teachers' practices are consistent with their reported beliefs. Accordingly, the teacher believing in the importance of reading strategies most (Instructor 1) prevailed over the other two teachers in every single strategy depicted above in her observed practices. Hence, these results prove that the teacher who reported to attach the least degree of importance to reading strategies implement reading strategy instruction least in her lessons. The instructor holding moderate beliefs on reading strategies apply reading strategies to a moderate degree in her classroom. In the end, there exists a difference in the actual classroom practices of teachers who attach high, moderate, and low importance to reading strategies.

In addition to showing the distribution of specific reading strategies applied in the classes of three observed teachers, the field notes also enabled to see the general implementation of each reading strategy type, that is, pre-, while, and post-reading

strategies, by these instructors. Figure 4 displays the application of pre-, while, and post-reading strategy types by all of the three teachers as follows:

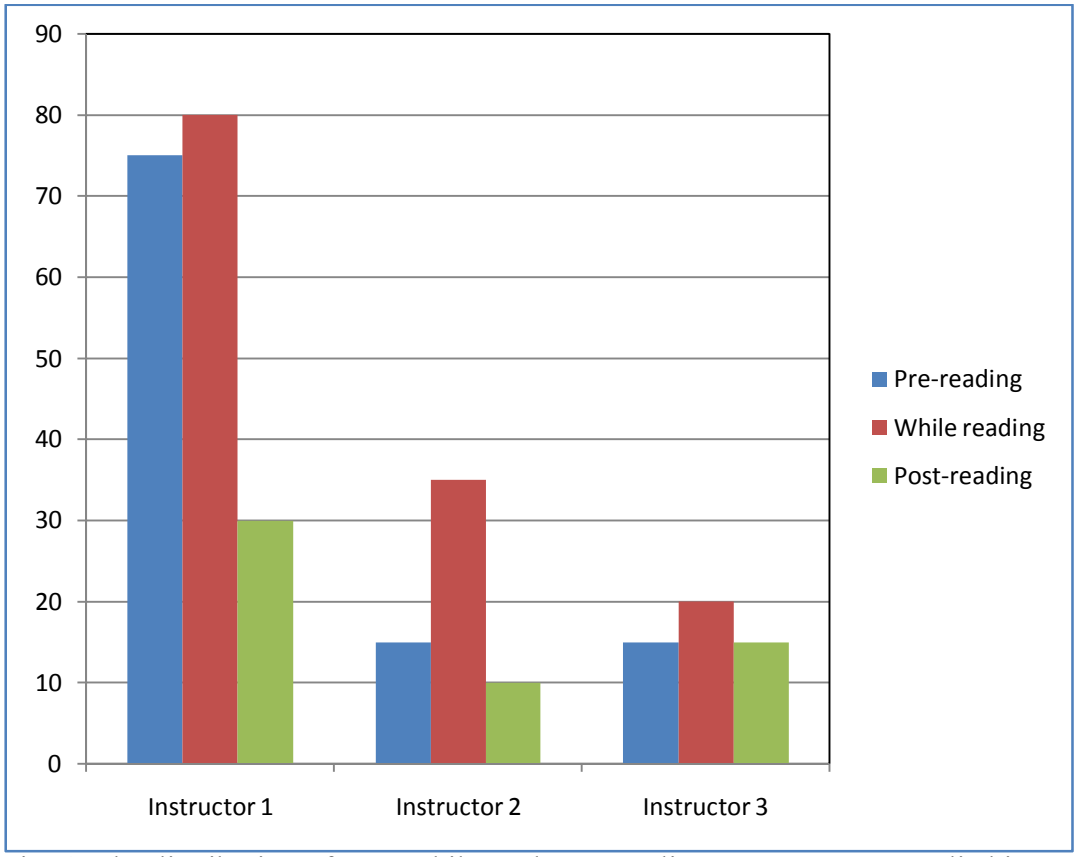

Fig. 4. The distribution of pre-, while, and post-reading strategy types applied in actual classroom practices of the three observed teachers.

Above figure clearly presents that the instructor holding highest degree of beliefs on reading strategies made the most uses of all three reading strategy types in her lessons. These results give another proof for the consistency emerged between teachers' reported beliefs and their actual classroom practices in this study.

Insights of Teachers into Their Conceptualizations of Reading Strategies and Strategy Instruction

During the analysis of interviews, the recurring forms were collected under emerging categories some of which were found out to be in line with questionnaire items and the categories emerged from the analysis of observation reports. First of all, through interviews teachers' understanding of reading, reading strategies, and strategy training were aimed to be reflected. The analysis of the interviews revealed on the part of the place of reading strategies in reading classrooms that all of the interviewed teachers believe in the importance of reading strategies for their lessons. They also reflected that in their institution (DBE, YTU) they put a heavy emphasis on reading strategies both as part of the teaching curriculum and as part of tests. Nevertheless, one of the instructors expressed during interviews that there should be more than just reading strategies in a reading lesson, like reading for pleasure or extensive reading.

> We shouldn't only focus on reading strategies. We should also do some extensive reading because it's also important for students. Because you know, like, when we're teaching reading strategies, we don't usually use authentic texts; we use simplified texts or you know things like that. I believe we should also encourage students to read authentic texts, do some extensive reading like reading graded books or original books, reading journals, magazines, and even literature; you know like maybe there should be some lessons which give importance to literature, reading in literature. You know analyzing a book like metaphors maybe, just for fun and just to encourage them to read in English. Or maybe reading song lyrics, reading a poem. I mean you know like I wish the students can be exposed to all types of texts instead of just you know reading texts which is about nature or biology, not only these, but different types of texts. Because of the time limit and syllabus we should follow, we can't do this. But, sometimes it becomes boring when you only teach reading strategies. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

In addition to observations, during the interviews teachers were asked to explain what steps reading strategy training should follow. Their answers and also observed practices were in line with what the research suggests. So, three of interviewed teachers explicitly stated that they would start by explaining the definition and function of that specific strategy at hand. One of the instructor's answer delicately illustrates this point:

> Of course we explain the meaning of making an inference or scanning. I have to teach scanning beforehand. It's not like inference. For example, I first of all ask my students to look at the definition of scanning, and I ask my students what they understand from scanning, and then we're doing some example questions. I say 'look at the question, please. What type of a question is it?' and they say 'it's about number' and I say 'you see, scanning questions are usually about number, about date, about a name. It requires very quick reading and not understanding everything in detail.' So, in that sense, first we are talking about scanning and then we look at scanning questions. (Interview, Instructor 5, June, 2009).

There were recorded a great deal of instances of strategy practices throughout the interviews. All of the interviewed teachers expressed the importance of immediate practice of the newly learned strategy and repetitious practice of all strategies afterwards. For instance, one of the instructors reflected her opinions on strategy practice as follows:

> After teaching, I think immediately students should be asked to apply strategies that they have just learned, so again, you know like you give a text and questions related to text. If you are teaching scanning for example; there can be some scanning questions, and I ask students to complete the questions using the strategies they have just learned. There should be immediate test to check if students can apply it. But you know like, if I'm teaching the strategies after one month later or two weeks later, I come back to the strategies and you know like, I mean I'm expecting my students to use these strategies whenever they need it. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

For repetitious practice one of the instructors' expressions were like this:

> What we do is, we show the strategy, we give the exercise and then we go on with another strategy, but later on in the following lessons, we go back. So, we repeat the strategies within the year. So, it's not about a

> specific time or specific hour or lesson but what we do is we teach the lessons and then within the year, we repeat the strategies again and again. So, by this way, they learn it easier. (Interview, Instructor 3, June, 2009).

For modeling the strategy following the instruction, all five of interviewed teachers expressed their enthusiasm. For instance, one of the instructors' remarks were like this:

> Okay. It's really important because when you say that, when you just give the instruction, 'find the main idea', they are just looking at you. You say something, but they don't understand anything. So, when you show it, they understand clearly. So, I think it's really important for them; modeling is really important for them because when they don't see what the teacher is talking about or when they don't understand what the teacher is saying about, they just sit still. So, they're stuck, and they can't move anything. When they see, when you do it altogether once, they say 'Ahaa, that's it, I see', then they do it or they try to do it. So it's really important. And as much as you do teach, they find it better. (Interview, Instructor 3, June, 2009).

Instead of just teaching individual strategies one by one, the importance that teachers attach to being a strategic reader was also revealed through interviews because twelve references to it were coded after the analysis of all interviews. Moreover, as this is metacognitive strategy training, it was demonstrated that teachers value teaching metacognitive strategies and turning students into strategic readers who know what strategy to use when and how. At the same time, teachers depicted their knowledge and ability of synthesis of research findings in their field during the course of interviews. To illustrate:

> … I mean they know which strategies they can apply to which question. That's what I try to do to my students; I try to raise their awareness. 'If you're looking for details, you can use scanning question. If you're looking for main idea, you can use skimming question.' So, again, when they come to exam, they can use these strategies by themselves… I think a teacher should tell them why we learn it, when we will need it and how we use it. I mean they should answer these three questions. Then they understand and they want to learn. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

Semi-structured interviews with teachers also enabled to see the underlying reason for the tendency or neglect for some strategies according to questionnaire results. For instance, when they were interrogated whether students should know the meaning of every word while reading or not, their answers actually shed light on the reason why they value the strategy "guessing the meaning of words from context" a lot. One of the instructors' answer for this question is really enlightening:

> When I teach them guessing the meaning, I mean not teach them, but when they learn that guessing the meaning from the context is a strategy, they say 'Ah, yes, I can get this', you know. And, you know, they are always suspicious about this. I mean they say 'OK, I get this, but what if it is wrong', but I say 'it shouldn't be the exact meaning' you know, 'if it is close meaning, it's OK, understand the idea', and they say 'yes', you know, like, they believe it; they believe that it works. So, they usually use guessing the meaning from context. I don't believe that they should understand every word. (Interview, Instructor 1, June, 2009).

Actually, all five of the interviewed teachers dwelled upon the importance of guessing the meaning from context strategy. Especially, Instructor 3 explained why she valued this strategy a lot by stating that when students do not understand a word during reading, they immediately give up and stop reading. She claimed that if teachers show how to give meaning to unknown words from the context, this can increase students' motivation to go on reading. For another favored while reading strategy, making inferences, three instructors expressed its importance for reading comprehension throughout the interviews, and they maintained that it is both a difficult and a useful strategy for students to learn. Additionally, scanning information and skimming the passage were also noted as important while reading strategies. In fact, during interviews, all five instructors reported scanning as their favorite reading strategy they use in their individual readings. Instructor 4 summarized the rationale behind this as if one is knowledgeable about this strategy,

then s/he is aware where to direct attention to find a specific piece of information, and therefore does not lose time or motivation. Asking students to underline key words or phrases was another favorite while reading strategies according to both questionnaire results and field notes. In accordance with this, during the interviews, all of the instructors acknowledged its importance and some of them listed its benefits. The reasons teachers provided for the frequent use of this strategy can be summarized as:

- to study those words outside the class;
- to make sure that students learn the important words;
- not to disturb the smooth flow of reading;
- to be able to place the unknown words quickly in the case of a second reading;
- to be able to notice/catch them easily.

Likewise, teachers were also witnessed to make constant use of dictionaries in their classroom contexts. They disclosed the reasoning behind teaching it during the interviews as:

- to save time while using dictionaries;
- to reinforce the habit of dictionary use;
- to make the use of dictionaries enjoyable;
- to be able to use dictionaries properly (by paying attention to part of speech, etc.).

In conclusion, the findings revealed that reading teachers of the DEB, YTU believe in the importance of pre-reading strategies more than while or post-reading strategies. The triangulation of data also made it clear that teachers reported employing pre-reading strategies more than while or post-reading strategies and

made use of while-reading strategies as much as pre-reading type in their actual classroom practices.

Consequently, the major findings of the present study are summarized below:

1. Reading course teachers of the DBE, YTU believe that pre-reading strategies are more important than while or post reading strategies.
2. Specifically, they think "setting a purpose for reading, previewing the text, using illustrations, introductory statements or titles to predict what the text is about and activating prior knowledge or background knowledge" are the most important pre-reading strategies.
3. Among all reading strategies, they think the most important one is "guessing the meanings of words from the text".
4. As for teachers' actual classroom applications of reading strategies, pre- and while reading strategies were found to be the most frequently practiced reading strategy type.
5. From the field notes, it was made evident that "activating background knowledge" and "asking comprehension questions" together with "identifying text structure" are the most frequently applied reading strategies.
6. According to teachers' self reported practices, they mostly make use of "predicting the text content by looking at titles", "guessing the meaning of unknown words", and "asking comprehension questions about the text" strategies in their reading classrooms.
7. On the whole, teachers' actual classroom practices are consistent with their beliefs in terms of reading strategies.

8. Actual classroom practices of teachers who attach high, moderate, and low importance to reading strategies show differences from each other.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The objective of this study is to investigate EFL reading teachers' beliefs on reading strategies and their actual classroom applications of these reading strategies in pre-intermediate level reading classes at a state university in Istanbul, Turkey. The data were collected through a questionnaire, observations and semi-structured interviews.

The answer to the first research question of this study came from the second part of the questionnaire. The findings revealed that "setting a purpose for reading", "using illustrations, introductory statements or titles to predict what the text is about", and "previewing the text" are reported as the most important pre-reading strategies. Specifically, reading course teachers in the DBE, YTU acknowledged the importance of using illustrations or titles to predict what the text is about as an important reading strategy. Besides, they also reported frequently making use of this strategy in their classroom practices. Similarly, in a case-study conducted in Vietnam, the participating teachers emphasized the importance of previewing the headings and illustrations before reading to get prepared for the coming text (Thu Nga, 2009). Thus, as Salatacı and Akyel (2002) suggest reading teachers at the DBE, YTU are aware that the pre-reading stage prepare students to read a text both cognitively and affectively. The reason behind the emphasis on pre-reading strategies was partly explained during the interviews by Instructor 1 as their immense role on motivating students to read the text. Especially, she remarked that if teachers skip the pre-reading stage, students will surely get bored and will not be interested in reading

the text. Therefore, she stated that to make students curious about a text and to draw their attention, one should cover these pre-reading steps.

Teachers mainly preferred “guessing the meanings of words from context”, “finding main ideas”, “making inferences”, “asking questions to check comprehension”, and “identifying difficulties” as the most important while reading strategies. In fact, the reason why the overall results for while reading strategies were not as great as pre-reading strategies in terms of their beliefs can be explained by the lower percentages given to some strategies in this part, like “reading every word”, “underlining every word”, “using bilingual dictionaries”, “reading the text aloud”, etc.. Teachers’ negligence of these strategies is also supported by literature as they are not considered to be highly comprehension promoting strategies.

When it comes to teachers’ beliefs about post-reading strategies, “drawing conclusions from the text” and “reflecting on what has been learned from the text” were found out to be the most important ones. The reason for the higher results on behalf of drawing conclusions strategy might stem from its closeness to making inferences during reading. It is, thus, obvious that teachers value inference strategy both during and post-reading stages. Apart from these two, teachers reported the importance of “repairing faulty comprehension” strategy. This means that they value the use of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension as well as cognitive ones. Therefore, inference, reflection on learning and correction of miscomprehension were discovered to be noteworthy post-reading strategies. In Sallı’s (2002) study also drawing conclusions was distinguished as a beneficial post reading strategy. Although, summarizing apparently did not receive as much attention as a post-reading strategy as others, it was still among the group of important strategies. In the literature, being able to write the gist or the summary of a

text is believed to be even synonymous to comprehension since it provides the reader to comprehend the text better as well as to process the material in a deeper way (Maria, 1990).

The second and fourth research questions of this study examine the overall perceptions and practices of teachers regarding pre, while and post-reading strategies. The questionnaire all alone responded these questions since the analyses run through it enabled to see the overall results. On the whole, pre-reading strategies were ascertained to be the mostly valued strategies with a significant difference from while or post reading strategies. In line with this finding, in Sallı's (2002) thesis, it was revealed that pre-reading strategies, like using pictures and titles to predict text content turned out to be the most important strategy for the participant teachers. Accordingly, except for a few participants, post-reading strategies were not reported among the top strategies promoting comprehension in the above mentioned study. Likewise, in the present study, post reading strategies were found to be underestimated compared to the other two types according to the teachers' self-reports in the questionnaire with regard to their perceptions of reading strategies which suggests that they emphasize post-reading strategies less than pre or while reading types. A similar finding came from Yurdaışık's (2007) study since post-reading strategies were the least attended ones by the participating teachers of her study, too. Similarly, the researcher concluded this might be because they are not familiar with post-reading strategies or do not value them much. Akin to the findings of the present study, in her study almost all six of the interviewed teachers declared making use of asking comprehension questions in their teachings.

The fifth research question mainly investigates whether there is a correlation between teachers' beliefs and their in-class applications in terms of pre, while and

post-reading strategies. As Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, and Lloyd (1991) suggest teachers' belief systems are major predictors of their instructional practices, and one can make credible guesses about teachers' practices by exploring their perceptions as long as teachers are introduced with the proper devices to openly disclose their deepest beliefs. This question aims to investigate the reflections of teachers' beliefs as they reported on their classroom teaching practices. The answers came from the third part of the questionnaire. From the questionnaire results, teachers' practices of pre-reading strategies were identified to be consistent with their beliefs about them. To specify, setting a purpose for reading, asking students to pay attention to titles and illustrations, and asking students some warm-up questions related to the topic were found to be the most frequently employed pre-reading strategies. The field notes also confirmed these findings since these strategies were the most commonly observed pre-reading strategies in classroom environments. In Yurdaışık's (2007) study also teachers were recorded to be teaching predicting the text content by looking at pictures or titles, setting a context for reading and relating text to background knowledge strategies. As reported in the literature, successful reading occurs when readers combine linguistic knowledge with their knowledge of the world. Following this, Clarke and Silberstein (1977) claim that reading materials should be suitable for students' "conceptual readiness", if not, teachers should act as mediators to provide the necessary knowledge. These results, thus, illustrate that reading teachers of the DBE, YTU are aware of the need to conceptually prepare students for the text and to activate the relevant schemata or provide it when necessary as major steps of pre-reading stage. Furthermore, they do not skip this stage in their classroom practices as they reported in the questionnaire and as far as it was observed.

Teachers' beliefs on while-reading strategies were also in a similar vein with their reported classroom practices since both teaching students how to guess the meanings of unknown words and asking students to guess the meanings of unknown words from the context were discerned to be the most repeatedly applied while reading strategies. Also, throughout the observations, many instances of the practice of this strategy were recorded as it was displayed in Figure 1 in results chapter. The findings of Sallı's (2002) and Yurdaışık's (2007) studies were also consistent with these since guessing the meaning of words from context was unraveled as one of the most common while reading strategies by the participant teachers.

Hosenfeld's (1977) claims on this issue are also in line with this:

> It's not that successful readers never look up words in a glossary. They do. But only after more efficient strategies have failed. A distinguishing characteristics of successful and nonsuccessful readers is the priority system of their word-solving strategies: While looking up words in a glossary is a nonsuccessful reader's first and most frequent response, it is a successful reader's last and most infrequent response to unknown words (p. 121).

Likewise, teachers revealed during the interviews that this strategy is especially useful as it encourages students to continue reading without encountering comprehension breakdowns. Moreover, they stated that it holds a substantial place to promote success in achievement or proficiency exams. What is more, the lower importance attached to skipping unknown words strategy might mean that instead of ignoring unknown words, teachers prefer promoting the effective strategies to predict the meanings of important unknown words at times when students cannot use their dictionaries.

In addition to these, asking students to relate what they read to what they already know, asking students to underline key words or phrases, and teaching the importance of reading the first and the last paragraphs more carefully were also

discovered to be frequently practiced by reading teachers. This means that teachers are aware of the fact that as well as instructing students on specific reading strategies, it is also vital to lead them to act strategically during reading.

On the whole, it is obvious that teachers' beliefs are generally evident in their classroom practices. In a similar vein, Chou's (2008) study in Taiwanese context also displayed that language teachers' beliefs about the necessity and importance of reading theories and strategies correlated with their actual employment of those strategies. Therefore, as Pajares (1992) suggests teachers' epistemological beliefs inform their teaching practices; that is why it must be of high priority to continue studying teachers' belief systems to be able to develop sound research agendas.

Apart from these, throughout the observations, identifying text organization was detected as a constantly practiced while reading strategy. One possible explanation of this might be that this strategy was part of the schedule that the observations covered. Therefore, in all three instructors' classes explicit instruction on this strategy, guided and free practices on it were observed. Still, it depicted how intensely teachers handled this strategy and reinforced constant use of it by their students.

Keeping the insignificant percentages on the part of taking notes while reading in mind, it was raised as a question during the semi-structured interviews. Teachers' responses exhibited that they found it as a useful reading strategy and applied it in their personal readings; however, since students have all the necessary information in already written format in their reading books, there would occur limited usages of it in classroom contexts. Therefore, it is evident that extraneous factors, like the material at hand, influenced teachers' beliefs in turn. Such a theory is also supported by theory that teachers' beliefs and practices are in interaction with each other, so affect one another (Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1999).

Similarly, although teachers' beliefs were extremely low on "reading the text aloud" strategy, in their actual classroom practices they were observed to implement this strategy to some extent. Throughout the interviews, they explained the rationale behind this inconsistency as their using it as way to improve pronunciation, not for reading comprehension. Hence, in fact there is no conflict cross data, they did not report "reading the text aloud" as an important reading strategy in the questionnaire because they do not believe in its benefits for reading comprehension. Likewise, a researcher from Oman investigates tacit beliefs of student teachers of English about reading instruction. Regarding student teachers' beliefs on reading aloud and modeling reading, El-Okda (2005) depicts that they primarily perceive these activities as a tool to improve pronunciation which also complies with the opinions of teachers of the present study. In the end, it can be said that although teachers do not believe that it is an important strategy, in their classroom practices they make use of this strategy as they believe in its benefits for some aspects, like pronunciation.

As for teachers' practices of post-reading strategies, asking comprehension questions, drawing conclusions from the text, and asking students to comment on the text were uncovered to be the most commonly applied post-reading strategies. Thus, this part also demonstrates that teachers' beliefs comply with their practices as the first two strategies mentioned above were proclaimed to be the most important post-reading strategies in the second part of the questionnaire. Along with the questionnaire results, field notes also portrayed these two strategies among the list of most frequently observed strategies (see Figure 1 in results chapter). Once again, these findings conform to the literature suggesting the consistency between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices. Buike and Duffy (1979), for instance, in

their study investigating the degree of influence of teachers' conceptions of reading on their instructional practices depicted an eminent level of harmony.

Research question 6 was targeted to determine which reading strategy type teachers employed in the classes observed more than the others. The field notes made it apparent that while reading strategies were slightly more applied than pre-reading strategies. The close percentages illustrated for them in Figure 2 in results chapter suggest that reading teachers largely utilize pre and while reading strategies in their lessons. The triangulation of data through questionnaire and interviews confirmed this finding. Through the observations, it was noticed that post-reading strategies do not cover as important a place as pre or while reading strategies. Still, "asking comprehension questions" was found out to be the second most frequently practiced reading strategy in the observations. One possible reason for this might be that at the end of each reading text, there were ready-made comprehension questions in the book, thus teachers did not have to put much effort while directing these questions to students. As a result of this, they can end up with practicing this strategy a lot although the overall application of post-reading strategies is limited. The lower percentage for post-reading strategies could be explicated by time constraints. Since it was noticed that in a 90 minutes lesson (as they cover the lessons as block hours), there was not left sufficient space for post-reading activities. Therefore, most of the post reading activities were assigned as homework in the lessons observed. As a result, not many instances of post-reading strategies occurred naturally. As Grabe (1991) points out many variables could affect the quality of strategy training, such as: the time span of training, student responsibility, the clearness of strategy training method, and strategy transfer. Furthermore, there are other examples in the literature where teachers' theoretical conceptualizations are not always reflected in their

teaching practices. For instance, in a study conducted in Chinese secondary schools, language teachers who showed a tendency toward competence-based instruction could not demonstrate as much competence-based instruction as teachers who were inclined to both competence and text-based instruction (Lau, 2007).

Concerning the overall practices of teachers' reading strategies, pre-reading strategies outweighed both while and post reading strategies in this study. There does not seem to be a significant difference in the application of while and post reading strategies. Nevertheless, from the field notes, pre and while reading strategies were identified as the most repeatedly practiced types whereas post reading type was the least observed one. This discrepancy might be explained by external contextual factors, such as time limit or motivation. Therefore, although teachers believe in the importance of post-reading strategies, they could end up infrequent utilization of them in real contexts. Another conflicting result appears on reported practices of while reading strategies and actual application of them in classroom settings. Though teachers' reported practices on while reading strategies were considerably low in the questionnaire, their actual practices were almost the same as pre-reading strategies. These contradictory findings might stem from the extremely low percentages for some items under while-reading strategies in the third part of the questionnaire, like stressing the importance of reading every word, taking notes while reading, reading aloud in class, skipping unknown words or teaching all the new vocabulary in the text. As teachers declared not frequently using these strategies, the overall mean of while reading strategies' practice dropped. Moreover, the regularly practiced while reading strategies emerged from the field notes were guessing the meaning of unknown words from context, underlining key words and finding main ideas which also hold higher percentages according to the questionnaire results. Furthermore, as

Duffy and Anderson (1984) suggest there is a complex interaction between teachers' beliefs and their instruction based on many factors. They also maintain that reading beliefs are not reflected in practice unless they are clarified in the light of teachers' opinions of their teaching contexts. Therefore, through their study, Duffy and Anderson (1984) concluded that theory does not always inform teachers' reading practice because it could show deviations from the theory in response to contextual constraints, like the grade level of students.

A further finding of this study delineated that reading teachers of the DBE, YTU followed the steps of an appropriate strategy instruction program. Accordingly, as it was reported by Winograd and Hare (1988, as cited in Carrell et al, 1998), it was observed that they first of all provided a detailed and explicit description of the specific strategy at hand, then modeled the strategy use step by step by showing students the functioning of strategy in a real text context, and enabled students with examples where they could apply the use of the newly learned strategy, lastly made sure that there were references to the previously learned strategies in the form of recycling.

One important conclusion to be drawn from this study is the emphasis put on extensive reading by the reading teachers of the DBE, YTU as it is apparent from the extensive reading activities (i.e. graded readers, reading circles, and article readings) added into the curriculum of reading courses and from the teachers' comments in the interviews. Throughout the interviews, all of the participants expressed the necessity of providing students with ample opportunities to read outside the class since class hours are not enough. They also articulated on the benefits of these extensive reading activities as they enable students to practice the reading strategies learned through courses.

This study also unveiled that reading teachers of the DBE, YTU are aware of the fact that teaching reading strategies one by one is not an end, but it is a means to train readers who approach texts strategically. This means that apart from teaching individual reading strategies, teachers realize that they should expose students to both cognitive and metacognitive strategies which will in turn lead them to both procedural and conditional knowledge of them. As a result, students will be able to decide what reading strategy to use in what specific contexts in what specific ways. As Simpson and Nist (2002) point it out students will reach the declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge of reading strategies. In the end, they will be more than just learners of reading strategies; they will become strategic readers who can make use of their cognitive and metacognitive resources in appropriate manners (Anderson, 1991; Block 1986; Jime´nez, Garcia & Pearson, 1996).

Pedagogical Implications for EFL Teachers

Reading strategies consist of such comprehension strategies ranging from relating text to background knowledge, judging the importance of information, making inferences, posing questions about the text, summarizing to monitoring comprehension. Considering the literature covered in the present study, they play an effective role in facilitating the comprehension process, thus in increasing the joy taken from reading activity. It is clear then that university level students should be introduced with these facilitative reading strategies since they will need them for both their future and academic careers. Therefore, it is the responsibility of teachers to accommodate these prerequisites of reading courses for their students. Since teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning are reflected on their classroom

practices, first of all teachers should believe in the efficiency of these strategies. The present study outlined that a great number of reading teachers in the DBE, YTU believe in the importance of reading strategies in promoting reading comprehension. Actually, most of their teaching practices were seen to represent those beliefs, however, there were also some discrepancies noticed between what teachers believe and what they actually do. This may simply result from the fact that they were going through a change as a result of their experiences in teaching (Richardson et al., 1991). Alternatively, there might be some external factors (Duffy & Anderson, 1984). Limited amount of time could be one of these reasons as it was in this situation. During the informal talks with teachers following the observations and the interviews conducted, teachers stated their complaints about the limited class hours, and that is why they could not complete all the steps of a strategy training session. Hence, it could be appropriate to suggest extending the hours of reading lessons so that teachers go through every stage of strategy instruction properly. Consequently, the room teachers spare for post-reading activities which would in turn foster the application of post-reading strategies could be enlarged. Apart from this, it was noted that teachers' both beliefs on the importance of post-reading strategies and their reported practices were considerably low, especially on strategies, like critiquing the author and/or text. That is why they can be reminded about the merits of post-reading stage in order for comprehension and long-lasting recall to take place through constant meetings or work-shop activities on these strategies.

Lack of student motivation towards learning strategies was another issue raised throughout the interviews. Teachers put it forward as one of the difficulties of strategy training lessons. One possible solution could be integrating texts which would attract students' attention to introduce reading strategies. In this way, students

could be motivated to read and apply the necessary comprehension strategies willingly. Otherwise, it would put some extra weight upon the teachers to turn the topic and the passage into an attractive one for students. In fact, the experience showed despite the teacher's all efforts to set a context, to provide a meaningful purpose to read the passage the book presented, when asked whether they wanted to read and learn about it, students responded by saying only no. Consequently, if the chosen reading textbook is suitable for students' subject area or appeals to their interest, motivation barrier in front of strategy training will be removed. To this end, a needs analysis could be administered on students in the search of texts that are more appealing to them.

Limited vocabulary knowledge was another problem pointed out by teachers during the interviews. They contended that since the number of unknown words was excessive, students could not adequately employ the strategies to solve comprehension problems. If the number of new words is decreased and if there are sufficient context clues in the text to be able to make guesses of the meanings of unknown words, students could take pleasure from reading by seeing how strategies work on the path of comprehension.

Almost all of the participant teachers uttered the importance of scanning as one of their favorite strategies and one of the best working reading comprehension strategies. They also brought out the limited space allocated to this strategy in their schedule. Taking the role this particular strategy plays in both academic and pleasure readings, it could be suggested that more emphasis should be given on this strategy and more opportunities should be created to conveniently practice this strategy in the materials.

As Grabe (1991) specified, in order to present a complete strategy training, there should be constant recycling of previously learned strategies. Therefore, the materials of the DBE, YTU should be prepared in order to provide opportunities for practicing the strategies on a regular basis. As Pressley, Goodchild, Fleet, Zajchowski and Evans (1989) mentioned:

> Ideal instruction would include systematic introduction and practice of task-limited, goal-limited, and general strategies, with new strategies taught gradually and only after "old" strategies had been mastered. Efforts would be made to develop students' metacognitive knowledge about specific strategies that were taught and to develop facilitating beliefs and styles that would support good strategy use (p. 309).

Taking Pressley et al.'s (1989) arguments into account, the introduction of new strategies should come only after the previous strategies were comprehensively covered and internalized by students. Consequently, the curriculum developers should design it in a way that first it should give enough time to teach and practice new strategies, then provide ample opportunities to master the previously learned strategies as well as presenting new ones.

Lastly, teachers' awareness to train students to become strategic readers should be increased since it is the ultimate aim of strategy instruction. In fact, throughout the interviews and observations, it was noted that some of the teachers are already aware of this fact and do the best they can to foster students' becoming strategic readers. Nevertheless, this apprehension should be spread to all reading teachers. To this end, some in-service strategy training courses might be organized so that teachers can become conscious of this terminal goal of strategy teaching. As it was suggested by Lau (2007), understanding and changing teachers' perceptions is the most effective way to facilitate teachers' implementation of a new instructional approach.

Limitations

Since this study aimed at finding the perceptions of reading teachers on reading strategies and strategy instruction, the eligible group of participants should be consisted of reading course teachers. Taking the limited number of reading teachers participating in this study (since the number of reading teachers is low) into account, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to all university level EFL teachers, but it is generalizable to the only EFL teachers of Yıldız Technical University.

Although the questionnaire was administered to all 42 reading teachers of the DBE, YTU, conducting systematic observations in all of these 42 teachers' classrooms was not possible since there was only one researcher collecting data. Purposefully, just three teachers could be chosen to represent the population for the observation, and their lessons were observed throughout the spring term of 2008-2009 academic year. A related problem is because of time limitations, observations could go on only one term of one academic year, and this led the research to make cautious claims on teachers' actual employment of reading strategies.

Suggestions for Further Research

Since the number of reading teachers is limited in one university, further studies could cover more than one university, thus would have a more comprehensive population. In order to reach more generalizable findings, this study could be replicated with more participants for all levels of data collection; i.e. questionnaire, observations, and interviews.

For observations choosing more than three teachers could enable the researcher to see whether teachers' beliefs and reported practices are in line with their actual classroom practices. Hence, in the end the discrepancies and/or consistencies could be openly seen and the necessary adjustments could be made accordingly.

Finally, in order to reach a more in-depth understanding of teachers' beliefs and their reflections on teaching, this study might be replicated over a more extensive time period. This could give more sound insights into this essential field of research which investigates teachers and their conceptions of teaching.

Conclusion

The findings of this study demonstrated that reading teachers of the DBE, YTU value pre-reading strategies in total more than while or post-reading strategies. In their classroom, practices, they were discovered to be applying pre and while reading strategies equally. However, the importance they attach to post-reading strategies and their classroom practices of them, in turn, were realized to be rather scarce. Their most favorite reading strategy was detected to be guessing the meanings of unknown words from the context.

EFL teachers participating in this study mainly complained about students' reluctance to learn and apply reading strategies. Another issue raised was limited amount of time to teach and practice strategies, thus insufficient enjoyment taken from reading and incomplete mastery of the taught reading strategies. Thus, major obstacles in front of training students to become strategic readers, namely motivation

and timing problems, remain to be addressed by material designers, teacher trainers and curriculum developers.

Eventually, the organizations for extensive reading activities were noteworthy of the DBE, YTU. They were observed to create many opportunities, like graded readers or reading circles for students to take learning beyond the borders of the classroom and practice the reading strategies learned which would consequently help reinforcing strategic reading habits.

In the light of these findings, it would be fair to recommend EFL practitioners to raise EFL teachers' awareness on reading strategies and strategy instruction. Hence, they could contribute to the change and improvement in the field of English language teaching by working on this undeniably urgent matter of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Permission from the Directorate of School of Foreign Languages Yıldız Technical University

YILDIZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu Müdürlüğü

Sayı: B.30.2.YIL.0.94.00.00/126 Tarih: 12.02.2009

Temel İngilizce Bölüm Başkanlığı'na,

İlgi: 11.02.2009 tarih ve 37 sayılı yazınız.

Öğretim görevlisi Burcu Varol'un; ilgi de kayıtlı yazınız ekinde gönderilmiş olan dilekçesi incelenmiş olup Bölümünüzde reading dersini veren öğretim görevlilerine yönelik anket uygulama isteği Müdürlüğümüzce uygun bulunmuştur. Kişinin bu konuda bilgilendirilmesi hususunda,

Gereğini rica ederim.

Saygılarımla,
Prof. Dr. Fatma TİRYAKİ
Müdür

GG

Davutpaşa Yerleşim Birimi, 34210 Esenler / İSTANBUL Tel: (0212) 383 04 05 06 Fax:(0212) 383 49 03
e-mail: ybdmdr@yildiz.edu.tr

Appendix B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleagues,

As an MA student at Boğaziçi University, I am at the phase of writing my MA thesis and intending to investigate teachers' cognition on reading strategy instruction. The purpose of this study is to explore teachers' beliefs on the role of reading strategies in promoting reading comprehension and their actual reading strategy instruction practices.

As part of this study, I am conducting this survey to find out the perceptions of university EFL teachers on the importance of teaching reading strategies in foreign language reading classes. Your views concerning your classroom practices are very valuable for me. Therefore, I appreciate if you answer the questions as objectively as possible. I am going to choose participant teachers for the observations and interviews that will come later by looking at the diversity of answers you will provide. Thus, I need you to provide your names in this questionnaire. I want to inform you that your personal information will be kept secretly confidential and your data will never be used for any other purposes.

I want to assure you that the findings will be reported to you as soon as they are analyzed. I hope you will find the questionnaire interesting to rate and that you will complete and return it to me.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you very much for your cooperation in advance.

Burcu VAROL

Yıldız Technical University

bvarol@yildiz.edu.tr

PART I

Individual Background

The questions below are about your personal background. Please answer the following questions or circle the proper answers.

1. Name:

2. Surname:

3. Gender: a) Male b) Female

4. Years of Teaching:

5. Degree of Education: a) Bachelor b) Master c) Ph.D.

6. Specialty for B.A.: _____, M.A.: _____, Ph. D.:_____

a) ELT

b) Linguistics

c) Literature

d) Educational Administration

e) Curriculum Design

f) Translation and Interpreting Studies

g) Other _____

7. Your Native Language: a) Turkish b) English c) Other _____

PART II

The Importance of Reading Strategies in Second Language Reading

How do you rate the importance of the following strategies that should be taught in the reading classes in order to increase students' reading comprehension? Please tick (√) only ***one option*** for each item by considering the degree of importance in teaching reading classes.

5- very important, 4- important, 3- somewhat important, 2- slightly important, 1- not important at all

	No:	Strategies	5	4	3	2	1
Pre-reading	1	Setting a purpose for reading					
	2	Previewing the text					
	3	Using illustrations, introductory statements or titles to predict what the text is about					
	4	Posing questions about the text					
	5	Activating prior knowledge or background knowledge					
	6	Paying attention to the title					
While-reading	7	Paying attention to the text structure					
	8	Reading the text aloud					
	9	Finding answers to a question that is asked					
	10	Paying attention to the connections of each paragraph					
	11	Reading for referential information					
	12	Guessing the meaning of the words from context					
	13	Scanning information					
	14	Skimming the passage					
	15	Finding main ideas					
	16	Predicting the main idea of the following paragraph					
	17	Using dictionaries					
	18	Using visual representations to support comprehension					
	19	Using discourse markers (e.g. transitions) to see relationships between sentences or paragraphs					
	20	Making inferences					
	21	Underlining key words or phrases					
	22	Taking notes					
	23	Checking the predictions about the text					
	24	Connecting text to background knowledge					
	25	Monitoring reading comprehension constantly					
	26	Asking questions to check comprehension					
	27	Identifying difficulties					
Post-reading	28	Summarizing					
	29	Outlining					
	30	Retelling the text					
	31	Rereading the text in case of comprehension failure					
	32	Repairing faulty comprehension					
	33	Drawing conclusions from the text					
	34	Critiquing the author					
	35	Critiquing the text					
	36	Reflecting on what has been learned from the text					

PART III

Teachers' actual practices of reading strategies in the classroom

While answering the questions in this part, please consider ***what you actually do***

while dealing with a reading text in the classroom. Tick (√) only ***one option*** for each item.

5 – always, 4 – usually, 3 – sometimes, 2 – rarely, 1 – never

	No:	Strategies	5	4	3	2	1
Pre-reading	1	I set a purpose for reading.					
	2	I ask students to read the titles and predict what the text is about.					
	3	I ask students to look at illustrations/pictures and try to guess how they relate to the text.					
	4	I set a context before students begin reading.					
	5	I use instructional aids (e.g. realia, music, etc.) to set a context.					
	6	I have students quickly look over the text before reading.					
	7	I ask students warm-up questions related to the text before reading.					
	8	I teach vocabulary before students read the text.					
	9	Before doing discussion or any other activity, I have students read the text.					
	10	I ask students to relate the text/topic to their experience.					
While-reading	11	I ask students to relate what they read to what they already know.					
	12	I teach all the new vocabulary in the text.					
	13	I ask students to use a monolingual dictionary.					
	14	I allow students to use a bilingual dictionary.					
	15	I teach students how to guess the meaning of unknown words.					
	16	I ask students to guess/predict the meaning of unknown words.					
	17	I tell the students to skip unknown words.					
	18	I ask students to underline unknown words.					
	19	I ask students to underline key words and/or phrases.					
	20	I ask students to take notes while reading.					
	21	I tell students to read carefully and slowly.					
	22	I stress the importance of reading every word.					
	23	I ask students to read the text more than once.					
	24	I tell students to make guesses about up-coming information in the text.					
	25	I ask students to try to visualize what they read.					
	26	I have students read aloud in class one at a time.					
	27	I teach students to read the first and the last paragraphs more carefully.					
Post-reading	28	I ask comprehension questions about the text.					
	29	I ask students to draw conclusions about the text they have read.					
	30	I ask students to discuss the text after reading.					
	31	I ask students to comment on the text.					
	32	I ask students to summarize the text (written or oral).					
	33	I give students a quiz about the text.					
	34	I give students follow-up activities related to the text.					
	35	I assign students tasks to do using the information in the text.					
	36	I ask students to critique the text.					
	37	I ask students to critique the author.					
	38	I ask students to write their reflections about the text.					

Appendix C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Good morning, first of all thank you for attending my interview. As you know, I am investigating teachers' perceptions and practices related to reading strategy training. And, as part of my investigation, I am going to ask you a few questions regarding reading strategies and strategy instruction.

1) In general, how do you define strategic reading?
    a. Do you personally apply strategies in your individual readings?
    b. Specifically which strategies do you mostly prefer?
2) What is the place of reading strategies in a reading class?
    a. Do you think that reading strategies should be regularly applied in reading classrooms? Why/ Why not?
3) What are the steps to be followed in successful strategy training? (How should the reading strategies be presented to the students?)
4) What obstacles (if any) do you find in teaching reading strategies in your classes?
5) In your reading classrooms how do you motivate your students to learn reading strategies?
6) What do you recommend to your students to make the reading comprehension easier and better?
7) How do you reinforce constant use of strategies by students?
8) Specifically which reading strategies help reading comprehension more than the others? Why?
9) Do you observe any improvement in the students' reading comprehension after strategy instruction?
    a. Do you observe any improvement in your students' strategic reading behavior?
10) How much time should be allocated to teaching and practicing reading strategies?
11) What is the place of modeling and repetitious practice in teaching reading strategies?
12) What is the most difficult part of teaching reading strategies?
13) How do you make sure that students learn a specific reading strategy that you have taught?
14) Do you think that it is important to learn the meaning of every unknown in a text?
15) Do you think that underlining unknown words during reading helps reading comprehension? Why/Why not?
16) What do you think about "taking notes during reading" as a reading strategy?
17) What do you think about the explicit and detailed instruction of a single reading strategy (like categorizing "using context clues to guess the meaning" under three subtitles)? Do you find them beneficial or too complex for students? Why/Why not?
18) Do you think that reading the text aloud contributes to the students' reading comprehension?
19) Do you believe that teaching reading strategies one by one explicitly raise students' consciousness towards them? Is it a useful thing or not?
20) What are the effects of exams (mid-terms, quizzes, etc.) on reading strategy instruction or on the use of reading strategies?

21) What do you think about the distribution of vocabulary exercises in the reading pack? How much do you they contribute to reading comprehension?
22) What do you think about "using dictionaries" as one of the reading strategies presented in the reading pack?
23) What do you think about the current presentation of reading strategies in the textbook, *Issues for Today,* and the reading pack?
    a. Do you believe that those strategies promote strategic reading?
    b. Do they present all the necessary strategies?
    c. Is the time allotted for the instruction and practice of those strategies even and enough?
    d. Do you think that the presentation order of them is appropriate for students' level? Why/ Why not?
    e. What other strategies should be added to the pack?
24) For INS. 1: As far as I observed, you spent a considerably long time with pre-reading activities in your classes. What is the reason for this?
25) For INS. 1: In your lessons you put heavy emphasis on activating students' prior knowledge related to the topic before starting reading. How do you compare it with other pre-reading strategies, e.g., prediction, skimming for the main idea?
26) For INS. 1: As midterm revision you went over reading strategies that students learned so far by giving them some tactics to apply the strategies. Why is it important for you?
    (Possible prompt: to make strategic readers)
27) For INS. 1: In one of your classes, while teaching "using context clues to guess the meaning" strategy, you composed a sentence which included a made-up, non-existing word (lynatic), and there you used it in the meaning of "lonely". Students guessed its meaning correctly without knowing that it is a non-existing word. What was the reason for this act of yours? Do you use such examples a lot?
28) For INS. 2: In one of your classes you asked students to tell words related to the "Court System", like "judge", "lawyer", etc. , and you wrote them on the board. What was the aim of this activity?
29) For INS. 3: In one of our chats you expressed your dissatisfaction with the reading book *Issues for Today* in terms of its' sparing too much space to vocabulary teaching exercises. Why do you think it is a negative feature of the book?

Appendix D

Example schedule of reading course

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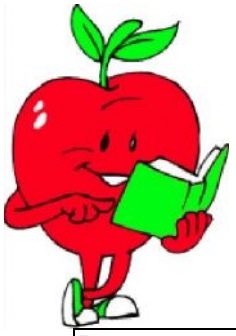
Appendix E

Pacing for C levels

C Level Reading: WEEK 29 (May 11-15)



ANNOUNCEMENTS

- Pls remind your ss that this week in the 2nd block, they are going to sit on 3rd GRO. -Pls choose three students from each of your classes for Reading Competition which will be performed in Week 30 (May 18-22). - Pls bring us your list of students who will participate in our competition. The students do not have to join the competition but you may encourage them to do attend to the competition.

Lessons	**Suggested pacing**	**Covered**
1st Block	**Pls make sure that you have covered:** **--WB Using Context Clues** p. 110-117 **--WB. p.205-208.** -- Issues for Today **Chapter 10, Ancient Artifacts and Ancient Air,** p. 176-192J --WB. **Referral Sentences**: p. 73- 74 --WB **Undercover Marketing** p.36-37 **(Practice for referral sentences)** **-- WB Having a Bad Day** p.131-135 -- WB **Why We Buy p. 117-119** **-- Identifying Text Organization**: p. 75-79 -- WB **The history of reading and book** p. 119-120.-- **Men in Skirt** p. 153-154 -- **The Inuit** p. 127-130	
	-- Do WB: **Alfred Nobel: A man of peace,** p.42-47. (practice for cause-effect relation) --Do WB **Women's Liberation 157-160** (revision for cause & effect, referrals, word meaning) up to understanding Graphs. -- Do WB. Understanding Graphs p. 160-166.	
2nd Block:	**3rd GRO**	**Name:**

Appendix F

Reading Passage Example from the Observed Lessons

Ancient Artifacts and Ancient Air

Archeologists made an exciting discovery in Egypt in 1954. During an excavation near the base of the Great Pyramid, they uncovered an ancient crypt. Although they believed that this discovery would help us understand Egypt's past, they also hoped that it would give us important information about the future.

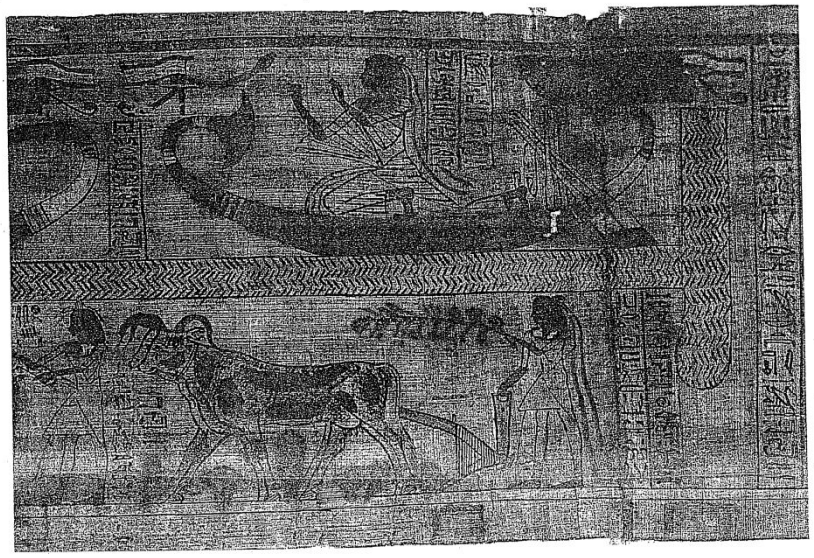
This crypt was a tomb, or burial place, for a dead Egyptian pharaoh, or king. Historians believed that the Egyptians buried their pharaohs with two boats: one to carry the body and the other to carry the soul. This was one of their religious customs about death. The archeologists expected to find two boats inside the crypt. As they broke the crypt open, they smelled the scent of wood. The ancient Egyptians had sealed the room so effectively that the aroma of the cedar wood was still preserved. Inside the crypt, archeologists found a 4,600-year-old boat that was in almost perfect condition. In addition, they found another closed room next to the crypt. Archeologists and historians believed that this chamber contained the second boat. If so, archeologists would have better information about the past. They would be sure about the religious custom of burying pharaohs with two boats.

However, this was not the only information they hoped to find. They wondered if the air in the two rooms contained something special that helped to preserve the wood. This information could help in the preservation of ancient artifacts in museums throughout the world. Researchers also hoped to find some answers about the future by carefully examining the air in the second chamber. When the archeologists opened the first chamber, all the old air escaped. Scientists wanted to recover the air in the second chamber, compare it with the air of the present, and then examine the differences, especially differences in the level of carbon dioxide (CO_2). This information might help them predict changes in the air in the future. They also did not want outside air to get inside the chamber. Careful planning would be necessary in order to open the second room and save the air. In fact, it took years to plan the excavation and to design and make the equipment necessary to open the chamber and collect the air inside.

Finally, in October 1986 an international team of scientists, using special equipment, drilled through the roof of the chamber. The hole they made was kept carefully sealed. As they broke into the ancient room, they realized that the chamber was not sealed. They took an air sample. The air inside was the same as the air outside. The scientists were very disappointed. However, they continued working to see what was inside the chamber. The team lowered a light and a camera into the small hole, and looked at the interior of the room on a television monitor. The second boat was really there!

After the scientists took samples of the air inside the chamber and photographed it completely, they sealed up the hole in the roof and left the room as they had found it. Although they did not get samples of 4,600-year-old air, they did confirm the Egyptian custom of burying pharaohs with two boats. More importantly, they practiced a new, nondestructive approach to archeology: investigate an ancient location, photograph it, and leave it untouched. When archeologists opened the first chamber, they removed the boat. The Egyptian government built a museum on the site for the first boat. During the construction of the museum, the vibrations from the heavy machinery disturbed the second room and probably destroyed the seal. Water leaked in, too, so the second boat was not as well preserved as the first boat.

The investigation of the second chamber taught archeologists a valuable lesson. New excavations will not only use modern technology, but they will also follow the idea of preserving the entire location for future studies.



A. Fact-Finding Exercise

Read the passage again. Read the following statements. Check whether they are True or False. If a statement is false, rewrite the statement so that it is true. Then go back to the passage and find the line that supports your answer.

1. ____ True ____ False Archeological discoveries give us information about the past.

2. ____ True ____ False Archeologists recently discovered a body in a crypt in Egypt.

3. ____ True ____ False Archeologists found a boat in the second crypt near the Great Pyramids.

4. ____ True ____ False Archeologists have not opened the second room yet.

5. ____ True ____ False There is no old air left in the second chamber.

6. ____ True ____ False The investigation team went inside the second chamber.

7. ____ True ____ False The Egyptian government is going to put the second boat in a museum.

B. Reading Analysis

Read each question carefully. Either circle the letter of the correct answer, or write your answer in the space provided.

1. What is the main idea of the passage?
   a. Analyzing old air is important because it helps us understand the future and preserve ancient artifacts.
   b. A recent archeological discovery helped us understand the future and the past and introduced new technology.
   c. Archeologists recently discovered a crypt near the Great Pyramid in Egypt, and they carefully examined it.

2. In line 3, what is the purpose of **although?**
   a. It introduces two different ideas.
   b. It introduces two similar ideas.
   c. It introduces two new ideas.

3. In line 6, what is a **crypt?**

   _____

4. In line 7, what is a synonym for **pharaoh?**

   _____

5. Read lines 7 and 8. What is the purpose of the colon (:)?
   a. It shows that the sentence continues for another line.
   b. It connects two sentences and makes them one sentence.
   c. It introduces the purpose of the two boats.

6. In line 10, what does **as** mean?
   a. Before
   b. Like
   c. When

7. In line 11, what does **sealed** mean?
   a. Locked with a key
   b. Closed completely
   c. Hidden carefully

8. Read lines 12–16.
   a. What comes after **in addition**?
      1. More information
      2. The same information
      3. The result of the previous information
   b. What does **chamber** mean?
      1. Crypt
      2. Room
      3. Historian
   c. What does **if so** mean?
      1. If the second chamber really contained a second boat
      2. If archeologists could be sure of the Egyptian custom
      3. If there was really a second chamber next to the crypt

9. In line 18, why is **however** used at the beginning of the paragraph?
   a. To show that the paragraph gives the same information as the paragraph before it
   b. To show that the paragraph gives different information from the paragraph before it

10. Read lines 24–26.
    a. What does **CO_2** represent?
       1. An abbreviation
       2. An amount
       3. A chemical symbol
    b. What is **CO_2**?

       _____

    c. How do you know?

       _____

C. Information Organization

Read the passage again. Underline what you think are the main ideas. Then scan the reading and complete the following outline, using the sentences that you have underlined to help you. You will use this outline later to answer questions about the reading.

I. Archeological Discovery in Egypt
   A. Date:
   B. Place:
   C. The Discovery:

II. Historians' Belief About Egyptian Burial Customs
   A.
   B. The Purpose of the Boats:

III. The Excavation of the Crypt
   A.
   B.
   C.

IV. What the Archeologists and Historians Hoped to Learn
   A. Information about the Past:
   B. Information about Preserving Wood:
   C. Information about the Future:

V. The Excavation of the Second Chamber
   A. Date:
   B. Method of Excavation:
      1.
      2.
      3.
      4.

D. Information Recall and Summary

Read each question carefully. Use your outline to answer the questions. Do not refer back to the passage. When you are finished, write a brief summary of the reading.

1. Where and when did archeologists discover the crypt?

   _____

2. What was the purpose of the crypt?

   _____

3. What is an ancient Egyptian religious custom about death?

   _____

4. Why was the second chamber so important to historians?

   _____

5. How did researchers hope to find answers about the future in the second chamber?

   _____

6. a. Why did it take such a long time before the team opened the second chamber?

      _____

   b. How was the excavation of the second chamber different from the excavation of the first chamber?

      _____

7. How did the air in the second chamber escape?

   _____

   _____

E. Word Forms

PART 1

In English, verbs change to nouns in several ways. Some verbs become nouns by adding the suffix *-ion* or *-ation*—for example, *preserve (v.)* becomes *preservation (n.)*.

Complete each sentence with the correct form of the words on the left. **Use the correct tense of the verb in either the affirmative or the negative form. Use the singular or plural form of the noun.**

predict *(v.)*
prediction *(n.)*

1. a. The weather forecast _____ snow for last night, but it snowed anyway.
   b. The _____ about the weather was incorrect.

correct *(v.)*
correction *(n.)*

2. a. After our teacher assigns an essay, he always _____ the papers.
   b. If there are only a few _____, the students get good grades.

excavate *(v.)*
excavation *(n.)*

3. a. The _____ of King Tut's tomb was an important and famous event.
   b. Archeologists _____ this tomb in Egypt in the 1920s.

examine *(v.)*
examination *(n.)*

4. a. The doctor's _____ of the sick child will take a long time.
   b. The doctor _____ the sick child until tomorrow to find out what is wrong.

inform *(v.)*
information *(n.)*

5. a. The teacher _____ us about the TOEFL right now.
   b. This _____ will be very helpful to all of us.

G. Vocabulary in Context

although *(conj.)*	if so	predict *(v.)*
custom *(n.)*	in addition	recover *(v.)*
discovered *(v.)*	in fact	sealed *(adj.)*
excavation *(n.)*		

Read the following sentences. Complete each blank space with the correct word or phrase from the list above. Use each word or phrase only once.

1. _____ I am sick, I can't stay home. I have to go to work anyway.
2. Debbie is doing very well in college. _____, she got 100% on her last five tests and an A+ on her research paper.
3. In the United States, it is a _____ for people to shake hands when they first meet.
4. Today, bottles and cans in stores are carefully _____ to prevent air and germs from getting inside.
5. The supermarket may be open late tonight. _____, I will go shopping after work instead of early tomorrow morning.
6. During the _____ of an old building, construction workers found some ancient artifacts.
7. English students must study grammar. _____, they must study reading, writing, and listening comprehension.
8. Tommy left his sweater in the cafeteria. Fortunately, he was able to _____ it at the Lost and Found Office.
9. Some people go to fortune tellers, who use cards in order to _____ what the future will be.
10. Christopher Columbus _____ America in 1492. Before Columbus found America, most people did not know about its existence.

H. Topics for Discussion and Writing

1. a. How do archeological discoveries help us understand the past?
   b. Why is understanding the past important?

2. How can the analysis of ancient air be important?

3. a. Do you think it is important not to disturb ancient locations? Why or why not?
   b. Are there times when it is better to remove ancient artifacts and take them to a museum? When?

4. **Write in your journal.** The archeological team left the second boat in the chamber and sealed it again. Do you think it would be better to put the second boat in a museum, too? Why or why not?

I. Follow-Up Activity

In groups of three or four, form a panel of experts. Someone has discovered the ruins of an ancient city in your country. Your government wants to investigate this site and has asked your panel to plan the excavation. In your group, decide who you will need to help you with this project. Plan the work that your group will do at this location. Decide which artifacts you will take away to a museum and which ones you will leave at the site. When you are finished, compare your plan with your classmates' plans. As a class, decide which plans the government should use.

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