To my beloved family…

The Effect of Explicit Instruction in Contextual Inferencing Strategies on Students'

Attitudes Towards Reading

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Thesis Title: The Effect of Explicit Instruction in Contextual Inferencing
Strategies on Students' Attitudes towards Reading

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF CONTEXTUAL INFERENCING STRATEGIES ON EFL
LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING

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This experimental study investigated pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' attitudes towards reading in English, the effect of their attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts on their attitudes towards reading in English in general and the effect of explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies on pre-intermediate level EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English. The study was carried out at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Foreign Languages Compulsory Preparatory School, with the participation of 82 pre-intermediate level EFL learners and two instructors. Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews in two phases: pre- and post-treatment. An "Attitudes towards Reading in English" questionnaire was used to find out the students' pre-training attitudes towards reading. Data from the pre-questionnaire and pre-interviews provided information about the effect of the students' attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts on their attitudes to

reading in English. After a three-week explicit strategy training period and a two-week interval, the students were given the same questionnaire and interviews were held.

The analyses of the pre-training data revealed that the students' attitudes towards reading in English were neutral, and their negative attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts had a negative impact on their attitudes towards reading in English. The comparison of the pre- and post-treatment data indicated that explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies had a positive effect on the low attitude students' attitudes towards reading.

Key words: contextual inferencing strategies, strategy training, foreign language reading, reading attitudes

ÖZET

BAĞLAMSAL KELİME ÇIKARIM STRATEJİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCEYİ
YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN OKUMAYA YÖNELİK
TUTUMLARI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

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Bu deneysel çalışma bağlamsal kelime çıkarım stratejileri üzerine direkt eğitimin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta düzeydeki öğrencilerin İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumları üzerindeki etkisini incelemiştir. Çalışma ayrıca orta düzeydeki öğrencilerin İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumlarının yanı sıra, okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelere yönelik tutumlarının genel olarak İngilizce okumaya dair tutumları üzerindeki etkisini öğrenmeyi de amaçlamıştır. Çalışma Zonguldak Karaelmas Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Zorunlu Hazırlık Okulunda, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta düzeydeki 82 öğrencinin ve iki okutmanın katılımıyla yürütülmüştür. Veriler anketler ve röportajlar aracılığıyla uygulama öncesi ve uygulama sonrası olmak üzere iki aşamada toplanmıştır. Öğrencilerin strateji eğitimi öncesindeki İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumlarını öğrenmek için bir "İngilizce Okumaya yönelik Tutumlar" anketi kullanılmıştır. Anketten elde edilen

bilgi ve strateji eğitimi öncesi röportajlar öğrencilerin okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelere yönelik tutumlarının İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumları üzerindeki etkisi hakkında bilgi sağlamıştır. Üç haftalık bir direkt strateji eğitimi ve iki haftalık bir aranın ardından aynı anket öğrencilere verilmiş ve röportajlar yapılmıştır.

Strateji eğitimi öncesinde elde edilen veriler öğrencilerin İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumlarının nötr olduğunu ve okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelere yönelik negatif tutumlarının, İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumları üzerinde negatif bir etkisi olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Uygulama öncesi ve sonrasında elde edilen verilerin karşılaştırılması, bağlamsal çıkarım stratejileri üzerine direkt eğitimin okumaya karşı düşük seviyeli tutumları olan öğrenciler üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: bağlamsal çıkarım stratejileri, strateji eğitimi, yabancı dilde okuma, okumaya yönelik tutumlar

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Teaching reading to EFL learners has always been an interesting subject for researchers in second language acquisition. Since reading means 'reading and understanding' (Ur, 1996), rather than simply decoding written symbols, and as it is a skill that is one of the most difficult to improve to a high level of proficiency due to its complex nature, it is important to equip learners with reading strategies, which are known to be great contributors to students' motivation as well as their performance (Capen, 2010; Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2009). A review of the literature confirms the primacy of vocabulary knowledge for successful second language reading, and it is almost impossible for learners to understand texts without knowing what most of the words mean (Baldo, 2010; Fraser, 1999; Nagy, 1988; Schmitt, 2004; Walters, 2004, 2006a-b). Correspondingly, this is the area where second language (L2) learners need to be supported most with training in the use of strategies, in order to be able to overcome vocabulary problems in reading. Otherwise, the outcome seems to be failure in reading comprehension most of the time. An even more significant problem that this situation might pose is the fact that students appear to develop negative attitudes towards reading due to this feeling of failure, which, in return, can negatively affect their motivation to read more. Since attitudes and motivation are important determiners of students' success in L2 development, it is worthwhile to put effort into finding ways of preventing L2 learners from having negative attitudes towards reading, which hinder their willingness to read more. This, in turn, brings out the importance of contextual inferencing strategies.

Training students to use contextual clues in order to infer the meaning of unknown words can be an ideal way of helping students to overcome the vocabulary problem in reading. Many studies have been conducted to investigate different aspects of vocabulary and reading, and a number of studies have addressed the strategy of contextual inferencing. This study aims to contribute to the literature by examining the contextual inferencing strategy from a different perspective. It is the aim of this study to explore whether instruction in the use of context to infer the meaning of words from context has an effect on EFL learners' attitudes towards reading in English.

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

Reading in a foreign language has been one of the primary foci of second language acquisition researchers in recent years. Zhou (2008) states that the acquisition of L2 reading skills is a priority for many language learners around the world. Many EFL students rarely experience a situation where they have to speak English on a daily basis, but they might need to read in English quite often in order to benefit from various pieces of information, most of which is recorded in English (Eskey, 1996). Moreover, reading is fundamental for all academic disciplines (White as cited in Lei, Rhinehart, Howard, & Cho, 2010). Therefore, reading skills must be promoted in order for students to be able to deal with more sophisticated texts and tasks in an efficient way (Ur, 1996).

In order to foster such an important skill, it is important to consider the close relationship between reading and vocabulary knowledge, which is the most important factor with regard to the comprehension of a text (Baldo, 2010; Nagy, 1988; Nassaji,

2006; Schmitt, 2004). Although vocabulary knowledge is not sufficient on its own to explain reading comprehension (Baldo, 2010), Anderson and Freebody (as cited in Nagy, 1988) point out that a learner's vocabulary knowledge profile is the best predictor of that learner's level of ability to understand the text. In a consistent way, Schmitt (2004) also asserts that the percentage of known and unknown vocabulary is one of the most significant factors determining the difficulty of a text for a learner.

Therefore, the strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension makes the need for teaching students more words apparent. However, the massive size of the vocabulary learning task makes it clear that direct instruction cannot be sufficient on its own for all vocabulary acquisition (Nagy, 1988; Sternberg as cited in Walters, 2004). In addition to direct vocabulary instruction, new words can also be acquired incidentally, in other words, while reading with no stated purpose of learning new vocabulary (Schmitt, 2010). Nagy (1988) argues that what is needed to produce vocabulary growth is more reading, rather than more vocabulary instruction. He goes on to say that learning from context is certainly an important part of vocabulary growth. It becomes apparent that looking into how ESL/EFL learners deal with unknown words in a reading text is an important part of L2 reading research (Baldo, 2010).

Walters (2004) reports that readers have several ways to cope with unknown words while reading: they can look up the word in a dictionary, they can consult someone about the meaning of the word, they can try to guess the meaning from context, or they can ignore the word. However, since attention to an unfamiliar word is essential for any learning to occur (Ellis, Gass, Schmidt as cited in Fraser, 1999), ignoring words frequently limits the learning potential to a great extent (Fraser,

1999). In addition, excessive dictionary use is discouraged by many educators and researchers due to the fact that looking up words frequently interferes with short-term memory and hinders the comprehension process (Knight, 1994). Similarly, in addition to being impractical, asking someone what the word means may also have some distracting effects on text comprehension. As a result, it seems appropriate for teachers of English as a foreign/second language to consider teaching learners about the use of context to guess the meaning of unknown words.

As far as ways of dealing with unknown words in a reading text are concerned, guessing the meaning from context is recognized as a powerful strategy by many researchers (Nagy, 1988; Nation, 2008; Schmitt, 2004; Walters, 2004), so it is crucial to make L2 learners aware of contextual inferencing strategies. Context refers to the text surrounding a word or passage, and contextual inferencing, namely lexical inferencing, is usually defined as informed guessing of the meaning of unknown words with the help of context clues (Jelic, 2007). According to Paribakht and Wesche (2009), identifying an appropriate meaning of a word requires finding useful cues from the word or the context.

The process of inferring word meaning from context is not simple, though. It is a challenging task, especially for L2 learners, due to their limited knowledge of the target language (Walters, 2006a). Therefore, the need to present students with a solution to solve the difficulty of the task is evident. Teaching strategies to L2 learners and training them in the use of context to guess word meanings might be considered as an ideal way to manage this. There are some studies that have looked into the effectiveness of strategy training in contextual inferencing. Song (1998) conducted a study to determine whether strategy training enhances EFL university

students' reading proficiency, and he concluded that students' overall reading comprehension ability significantly improved after training. Walters (2006a) concluded that strategy instruction improves the ability to infer from context, and, more specifically, improves reading comprehension. Fraser (1999) also argues that the ability to infer will enhance learners' academic learning in addition to their reading fluency, because learners are not discouraged by confronting unfamiliar lexical items, and their reading process is not interrupted by an attempt to look the word up in a dictionary, or to consult someone. Hence, as Nagy (1988) asserts, it is worth the time and effort in the classroom.

In addition to vocabulary knowledge, another important factor that influences success in reading is students' attitudes towards this skill, since many researchers agree that motivation can be thought of as one of the key predictors of success in second/foreign language learning (Mori, 2004). According to Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), students' attitudes toward or feelings about reading affect their willingness to actively participate in activities. They investigated different aspects of children's reading motivation and how it is related to the amount and depth of their reading, and they found that children's motivation predicted their reading amount and depth. Kaniuka (2010) also attempted to explore the relationship between successful reading instruction and students' attitudes towards reading, and he concluded that students who received effective reading instruction had higher scores with regard to their attitudes toward reading. The results of his study suggest that it is possible to help learners' build positive feelings towards reading by providing them with successful reading instruction.

Considering these two factors that affect reading comprehension, a further investigation of how they might be related is worthwhile. Although considerable research has been devoted to reading strategies (Fraser, 1999; Kern, 1989; Nassaji, 2003; Roskams, 1998), and the effect of strategy instruction (Gorjian, Hayati & Sheykhiani, 2009; Kuo, 2008; Parel, 2004; Shokouhi & Askari, 2010), and there are a few studies about motivational factors in reading (Hasbun, 2006; Kaniuka, 2009; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), no attention has been paid to the relationship between one specific reading strategy and learners' attitudes towards reading.

Statement of the Problem

Contextual inferencing is considered to be an effective way of compensating for limited vocabulary knowledge in foreign language reading (Nagy, 1988; Nation as cited in Schmitt, 2004; Schmitt, 2004; Walters, 2004). A substantial number of studies have looked into this particular strategy from different perspectives. Some studies have examined L2 learners' use of inferencing strategies (Bensoussan & Laufer, 1984; Istifci, 2009; Kanatlar & Peker, 2009; Nassaji, 2006; Roskams, 1998). Several researchers have tended to focus on the effect of contextual guessing strategies on reading comprehension (Gorjian & Hayati & Sheykhiani, 2009; Kuo, 2008; Parel, 2004; Shokouhi & Askari, 2010). Fraser (1999) and Shokouhi and Askari (2010) have investigated the impact of lexical inferencing strategies on vocabulary acquisition. However, to the knowledge of the researcher, no attempts have been made to explore how instruction in inferencing strategies affects EFL learners' attitudes towards reading. To this end, this study aims to look into the effects of explicit inferencing strategy instruction on students' attitudes to reading.

Like many EFL learners in Turkey, the students at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Preparatory School experience the same problem in reading comprehension. As students progress through the academic year, they are expected to read increasingly complex texts. It has been observed that when they encounter unknown words in those texts, they do not know how to deal with them, and tend to give up reading the rest of the texts. Furthermore, since this situation seems to give them a feeling of failure in text comprehension, their motivation might be affected negatively; as a result, they may have negative attitudes towards reading, which impedes both their improvement and success in reading, as well as their eagerness to read. If teaching students contextual inferencing strategies makes a difference for learners to feel more positive about reading, we, teachers of English in tertiary programs in Turkey, need to be aware of it.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English?
2. How do the students' attitudes to unknown vocabulary in English reading texts affect their attitude to reading in English in general?
3. Does explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing affect learners' attitudes towards reading?

Significance of the Study

The lack of ability to handle unknown words in a text is recognized as a central problem in text comprehension, and it is believed to result in negative attitudes towards reading. However, it is an unfortunate fact that the literature has failed to investigate the relationship between contextual inferencing strategies, which are believed to be an effective way of coping with the aforementioned problems, and learner attitudes towards reading. The results of this study will hopefully contribute to the literature by filling this gap and may lead researchers to conduct studies about the relationship between other learning strategies related to any particular skill and learner attitudes.

The findings of the present study also aim to be helpful at the local level. Students at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Prep School experience reading comprehension problems arising from unknown words encountered in texts, which appears to cause them to build negative attitudes to reading in general. The present study attempts to explore whether there is a change in their attitudes after receiving explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies. Therefore, the conclusions from the research will be valuable for the instructors, the administrators, and the institution because the instructors may decide whether or not they should take the time to teach contextual guessing strategies as a way of promoting positive attitudes towards reading, and encourage their students to make use of them. Moreover, the administrators might make some new decisions about incorporating strategy instruction into their curriculum. Thus, the institution may achieve its reading skill-based objectives more efficiently. It is also possible that the situation at

this particular institution may set an example for other tertiary programs or EFL settings.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the background of the study, statement of the problem and the significance of the study together with the research questions of the study. The second chapter will present an overview of the related literature. The methodology of the study will be explained in detail in Chapter III. Chapter IV will present the results of the data analysis. Finally, Chapter V will draw some conclusions based on the results from Chapter IV, as well as presenting pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This study explores the effect of explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing on L2 learners' attitudes towards reading. The study relates contextual inferencing strategies with learner attitudes in that the lack of vocabulary knowledge seems to be an obstacle for L2 learners, and appears to result in both failure in reading comprehension and decrease in learners' motivation. Therefore, whether teaching learners how to use context to guess the meanings of unknown words may help them overcome the vocabulary problem in reading and cultivate positive attitudes to reading is a question that remains to be answered.

In order to present an overview of the subject, this chapter will review the literature in two main sections: contextual inferencing as a reading strategy and attitudes towards reading. In the first section, the importance of reading, the reading process, the vocabulary problem in reading, guessing from context, contextual information, and training in contextual inferencing strategies will be discussed. The second section will deal with attitudes/motivation and the importance of attitudes/motivation in reading.

Contextual Inferencing as a Reading Strategy

The Importance of Reading

English, having become a global language, has influenced educational systems around the world, and this has attached more importance to reading in a second language (Grabe, 2009). People are expected to perform well as readers in a modern print environment more than ever before. For people living in modern

societies, being a good reader is essential to success. This does not mean that reading skills ensure success, but it is quite difficult to become successful without being a skilled reader (Grabe, 2009). A person's chances for success will be even greater with skilled reading abilities. Hasbun (2006) highlights the importance of reading by stating that reading skills "lie at the heart of formal education" (p.38) and it is difficult to achieve many things without having the ability to read fluently and with good comprehension. Therefore, every person should be provided with the opportunity to be able to become a skilled L2 reader.

<p style="text-align:center">*The Reading Process*</p>

Reading is usually taken for granted, and readers usually seem to put little effort in and make little planning for the reading process (Grabe, 2009). However, as Goodman (as cited in Schulz, 1983) puts it, reading is indeed a complex activity. He defines it as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (p.128) which requires formulating hypotheses about the text and confirming or denying them after interacting with the text. Confirming Goodman's definition of reading as being complex, Grabe (2009) asserts that a single statement cannot be enough to depict the complex nature of reading.

Moreover, reading is a receptive language process. As Urquhart and Weir (1998) put forward, "reading is the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print" (p.22). It is also described as a psycholinguistic process since the reader constructs meaning through a linguistic surface representation, which reveals that there is an interaction between the language and thought in reading (Goodman, 1996).

Comprehension, which is a useful expression that contradicts the term 'decoding'(Urquhart & Weir, 1998) by putting the emphasis on reading and understanding (Ur, 1996), is the most widespread purpose for reading and it is usually assumed to be easy reading (Grabe, 2009; Grabe and Stoller, 2002). Comprehension occurs when the reader creates a link between the various information from the text and what is previously known (Koda, as cited in Grabe, 2009). Many people read for different purposes: educational, professional, or occupational. Regardless of what purpose the reader has for reading, he is expected to make sense of the information in the text, synthesize, criticize and selectively utilize that information (Grabe, 2009).

However, reading comprehension is not as simple as it is considered to be. Schulz (1983) confirms this by making a comparison between reading comprehension and listening comprehension. He states that in oral communication, native speakers of a language naturally modify their speech by slowing it down, articulating words clearly, or by restating what they have said when they interact with non-native speakers. Unfortunately, such simplifications do not exist when learners are dealing with a written text. Only foreign language textbooks and other course materials offer language learners graded and simplified texts with glossaries. However, in the real world, when learners have to encounter authentic texts, which have more complex lexical and syntactic structures, they have difficulties.

In order to understand the complex nature of reading comprehension and the set of general underlying processes that are triggered as we read, the most well-known models of the reading process, bottom-up, top-down and interactive processes, deserve mention. The bottom-up model describes reading as a mechanical

process in which the reader follows a piece-by-piece mental translation pattern; in other words, the reader decodes the text letter-by-letter, word-by-word, and sentence-by-sentence (Grabe and Stoller, 2002). In this model, the reader brings little background knowledge to the text to make inferences. Since the order of processing advances from the data in the text to higher-level encoding, these processes are called bottom-up models (Urquhart and Weir, 1998). However, currently, reading is not considered to be a purely bottom-up process. Another renowned model is the top-down model which assumes that the reader's goals and expectations control the comprehension. The reader brings a set of expectations and hypotheses to the text, and uses the information from the text to confirm or deny them. To do so, the reader looks at the text to find the most useful information (Eskey & Grabe, 1996). In contrast to the bottom-up model, inferencing and the reader's background knowledge are fundamental components of the top-down process (Grabe, 2009; Grabe and Stoller, 2002). Finally, the interactive model combines the useful aspects of top-down and bottom-up processes. A weakness in one area can be compensated by the knowledge from the other area. For instance, if the reader does not know a word, but is familiar with the context it is used in, s/he can use the context and his/her background knowledge to decide what the word means. In the same way, if the learner knows the words, but does not have much information about the text topic, s/he can rely on his/her knowledge of the words to make predictions about the topic. This final model has received more support when compared to the previous two (Eskey & Grabe, 1996; Grabe and Stoller, 2002; Urquhart and Weir, 1998).

The Vocabulary Problem in Reading

One aspect of language on which all teachers and researchers taking major roles in the language learning process can agree is that being competent in a second language requires learning vocabulary, as evidenced by the high correlations between vocabulary and various areas of language proficiency (Schmitt, 2010). An example of this strong relationship has been seen between vocabulary and reading. When the factors that are essential to reading are examined, vocabulary knowledge is generally held as the major one. It has been recognized as the main predictor of successful reading by many scholars (Baldo, 2010; Nagy, 1988; Nassaji, 2006; Schmitt, 2004). The difficulty or the ease of comprehending reading texts can even be determined according to the difficulty of the words they include (Kilian et. al., 1995).

In order to be successful readers, learners need to recognize the written words and know what they mean (Biemiller, 2007). Word recognition is acknowledged as one of the most significant processes that enhance reading comprehension. Without rapid and automatic word recognition, fluent reading comprehension is not achievable. Since vocabulary knowledge is a great contributor to reading comprehension, lack of sufficient lexical knowledge is an apparent and serious problem for L2 readers (Grabe, 2009). The question about how to solve the vocabulary problem in reading might be answered simply by the idea of teaching students more words. However, the great number of vocabulary items makes it clear that direct instruction cannot be not sufficient on its own to help learners overcome the difficulty (Nagy, 1988; Schulz, 1983; Sternberg as cited in Walters, 2004).

In order to reduce the negative effects of the vocabulary problem, Nation (2008) suggests that teachers help learners deal with unknown words in a text in ten ways. To begin with, the positive effects of preteaching are mentioned. Before the text is read, the teacher explains the form, meaning and use of some unknown words. The second way is simplifying. In order to simplify the text, some unknown words are replaced with previously known vocabulary items that have similar meanings. Listing the meanings of some unknown words in glossaries is another way that is offered. The meanings of the words can be given in students' native tongue, or in the target language. Another way that Nation puts forward is putting words in an exercise after the text. These exercises can be word-meaning matching, word part analysis, or collocation activities. However, it is important that teachers use these exercises only for high frequency words since they take a lot of time to make and implement in the classroom. For low frequency words, on the other hand, the meaning of the word should be given quickly. It is believed to be an effective way as it does not interrupt the reading too much. Doing nothing about the word is another way of handling low frequency words. Furthermore, teachers can help the learners use a dictionary, which is a useful vocabulary learning strategy. Following this, the power of helping learners use the context to guess the meaning of the word and using word parts to help a word be remembered is emphasized by Nation. The latter involves breaking words into parts as prefix, stem, and suffix, and creating a link between these parts and the meaning of the word. The final way that is listed to cope with unknown words is spending time on explaining a word. It is quite similar to preteaching, but it is done during reading, instead of dealing with the unfamiliar words before the text (Nation, 2008).

Although Nation (2008) suggests the abovementioned ten useful strategies, not all of them are highly effective. Most of them call for the existence of a teacher, which seems to be impossible in every reading situation. In addition, using word parts to remember the words may not be appropriate for all proficiency levels. Moreover, simplifying or adding glossaries does not seem to be helpful in real life situations where learners will encounter authentic texts and deal with the unknown words on their own. Walters (2006a) mentions similar ways for learners to handle unfamiliar words in reading texts, but the ways she suggests appear to be more learner-centered when compared to Nation's. She suggests that learners have five options for dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary. Learners can ignore the word, look it up in a dictionary, and benefit from their knowledge of word parts to derive the word meaning. In addition, they can consult someone, or they can try to guess the meaning from context. Learners do not have to use these strategies in isolation; they might use them in combination. Although Walters and Nation handle the issue with suggestions from different perspectives, what they seem to completely agree on is the effectiveness of using context to guess the meaning of words.

Guessing from Context

Guessing from context is considered to be a main reading technique that is used to sharpen L2 readers' comprehension (Kuo, 2008). Furthermore, it is viewed as the most essential subskill that foreign language reading requires (Schulz, 1983; Van Parreren & Schouten-Van Parreren as cited in Schulz, 1983) because it is a valuable means of teaching and learning reading (Shokouhi & Askari, 2010). Guessing from context is also considered to be a very useful skill as it can be used by learners both in and outside the classroom setting (Shokouhi & Askari, 2010). Although there are

some other ways to deal with unknown words as mentioned in the previous section, it is important that learners have methods that they can apply on their own, outside the instructional setting (Read, 2004). Guessing from context requires guessing the meaning of a novel vocabulary word based on the connections between known and unknown components in the texts (Parel, 2004), which is called 'inferencing' by Nassaji (2006). Inferencing is "a thinking process that involves reasoning a step beyond the text, using generalization, synthesis, and/or explanation" (Hammadou, 1991, p. 28). Since guessing the meaning of unknown words requires going through such a thinking process based on the context, guessing from context involves lexical inferencing.

Carton (1971) introduced contextual inferencing as using the familiar context to discover what is unfamiliar. In other words, contextual inferencing is making "informed guesses" about the meanings of unfamiliar words encountered in texts, with the help of linguistic and nonlinguistic cues in the context (Haastrup, 1991). Inferring a word meaning from a sentence or text is a dynamic process because meanings are not singular and learners adjust and readjust their guesses through the reading process (Haastrup, 1991). In this respect, contextual inferencing entails cognitive or metacognitive activities (Nassaji, 2006). This is also confirmed by Nagy's (1997) argument that there are two types of contextual variation in meaning. In the first type, sense selection, when a word with two or more senses is encountered, the effect of the context is to decide on one of these two meanings. At the time of the first encounter with the word, multiple meanings of the word are activated, but as the learner reads through the sentence or the text, inappropriate meanings of the word are eliminated. Homonyms set a good example for this

process. For instance, the word *stand* has two meanings as a verb and the context helps learners to select one of them. The second type of contextual variation in meaning is reference specification. Nagy also states that a word may have one meaning, but refer to two very different individuals and create different images and associations. The interpretation of a word in context is much more specific when compared to its meaning in the mental lexicon. The mental lexicon is limited, but the meanings with small differences in the context are limitless. For example, "a large ant is much smaller than a large dog, but both are smaller than a large house; but one does not have to postulate a different sense of 'large' for each type of object that the adjective might modify." (Nagy, 1997, p.66).

Contextual inferencing has been found to be commonly used by L2 learners (Grabe, 2009; Nassaji, 2006). The ability to use context to infer word meanings can compensate for learners' lack of vocabulary knowledge to some extent and learners' ability to employ lexical inferencing strategies is as important as the size of their vocabulary (Parel, 2004). In addition, contextual inferencing strategies are essential for comprehension to repair the negative effects of insufficient vocabulary knowledge (Haastrup, 1991).

The fact that contextual inferencing strategies are used by L2 learners is confirmed by the results of a study conducted by Kanatlar and Peker (2009) in an EFL setting with the aim of investigating the guessing-words-in-context strategies used by beginning and upper-intermediate EFL learners. The study was carried out with the participation of six beginning and six upper-intermediate level learners and the data were collected through think aloud protocols (TAP) and retrospective sessions (RS). After the warm-up sessions in which the participants had some

practice with TAP, the students were given two reading texts with nonsense words to be guessed. The students were told to verbalize their thoughts while guessing the meanings of the underlined target words. After the TAPs, the students started the RSs. The analyses of the data revealed that there were not very big differences between the beginning and upper-intermediate level learners with regard to the types of strategies they use to infer word meanings. All but one of the reported strategies (uncertainty of familiarity) were used by both groups. Another finding was that contextual clues and translation were the two strategies that were most frequently used by students from both groups. Finally, it was found that the beginning level students used guessing-words-in-context strategies more frequently than the upper-intermediate level students. It can be inferred from the findings of the study that L2 learners do use contextual inferencing strategies and these strategies are necessary not only for more proficient learners of a language, but also for beginner level learners. It can be said that they are used by beginner level learners even more frequently, most probably to compensate for their insufficient vocabulary knowledge.

Contextual guessing has certain advantages. Several justifications can be mentioned for spending time on these strategies in class. It is a good way to deal with quite a lot of words, it can lead to vocabulary learning, and it does not cause much interruption to the reading process (Nation, 2008). The time problem in language classes is another factor that makes inferring word meaning from context valuable (Clarke and Nation, 1980). The time spent on vocabulary teaching cannot be enough to teach all the words needed to comprehend authentic materials, and the ability to derive word meanings from context helps students learn words without the teacher's guidance. It also enables learners to read texts without spending time on excessive

dictionary use and thus, without being interrupted. When learners get an idea about the meaning of an unknown word in the light of the context, it becomes easier for them to confirm its meaning in a dictionary. Without such a guess in mind, figuring out the exact meaning could also be a problem, since dictionaries usually present more than one meaning for a word. Finally, the skill of using contextual guessing strategies also improves the skill of reading because in order to make a guess about a word meaning, the reader has to "consider and interpret the available evidence, predict what should occur, and seek for confirmation of the prediction" (Clarke and Nation, 1980, p. 218). The process that the learner goes through while inferring word meaning from context indicates that the ability to derive word meaning fits into the interactive model of the reading process because the reader uses both the information from the text (bottom-up), and makes predictions which s/he confirms or rejects later in the text (top-down). Moreover, as s/he goes on reading, these predictions about word meanings are confirmed or readjusted. Although reading by using the context to deal with unknown words may seem to be less careful reading, since it does not require word-for-word decoding, it results in much better comprehension (Schulz, 1983).

Contextual Information

When learners have difficulties in word recognition or encounter unknown words while reading, contextual information plays an important role. When a reader slows down because of processing difficulties, or if s/he comes across a word that is confusing or not very well-acquired, context provides the learner with additional information and supports the reader to overcome this recognition problem. In

addition, learners may encounter a word that is ambiguous and make use of the context to disambiguate multiple meanings of the word (Grabe, 2009).

In order to identify an appropriate meaning of a word, the reader needs to find useful context clues and be able to use them. Since the reader and the text are two basic elements in reading, text-based and learner-based clues or knowledge sources can said to be important in word meaning inferencing (Kaivanpanah & Alavi, 2008). Different taxonomies with similar contents have been developed by different researchers so far in the literature (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004; Carton, 1971; Nagy, 1997).

The first taxonomy of context clues was established by Carton (1971). The context clues in Carton's taxonomy are categorized under three subheadings: intra-lingual, inter-lingual and extra-lingual. Intra-lingual context clues are provided by the target language per se. The reader makes use of his/her knowledge of the target language in order to infer the meaning of a novel word. These kinds of clues include plural markers, tense markers, or suffixes. The use of intra-lingual clues promotes further searches for more contextual information in the text, thus facilitating the student's engagement with the text. In order to be able to benefit from these types of clues, students need to possess some mastery of the target language. The second sub-category entails inter-lingual context clues, which are provided by the transfer between languages. The use of this type of context clues is based on the loans between the target language and the background language of the learner, as well as any other languages that learners know. Cognates or phonological transformations can be good examples of inter-lingual context clues. Finally, extra-lingual clues are based on knowledge of the world and that of the target culture. They are useful

because they represent objects or events in the real world. A reader whose native language does not have much relation to the target language may have to rely mostly on extra-lingual clues.

Nagy's (1997) taxonomy of knowledge types that are believed to contribute to context-based inferences includes linguistic knowledge, world knowledge and strategic knowledge. *Linguistic knowledge* is similar to what Carton (1971) refers to as intra-lingual context clues and constitutes an important amount of the information provided by context. Similar to what Carton suggests, Nagy also asserts that the extent to which the learner makes use of linguistic knowledge depends on the learner's knowledge of the structures. Syntactic knowledge, vocabulary knowledge and word schemas are the sub-components of linguistic knowledge. The syntactic behavior of a word provides learners with significant information about its meaning. Although the mappings between semantic categories and syntactic structures are complex and irregular, they supply sufficient and significant information to learners even for those at the early stages of language learning. For instance, learners' knowledge of parts of speech can help them while determining the meaning of an unknown word. Word schemas are the possible meanings of the words. The number of possible meanings for an unknown word is countless; however, the reader should restrict the hypotheses that s/he makes. Vocabulary knowledge is also important because in order to derive the meaning of an unfamiliar word, it is necessary to know the meanings of the words around it. In that sense, vocabulary knowledge is another essential aspect of linguistic knowledge that determines a learner's success at inferring.

According to Nagy, *world knowledge* is another knowledge type that contributes to the contextual inferencing process. This knowledge type is quite analogous to the extra-lingual clues described in Carton's (1971) taxonomy. The context that a person is using to determine the appropriate sense of a word should also include the reader's knowledge of the world because the learner's hypotheses can be limited to the concepts that s/he has some knowledge of. For instance, a guess about the meaning of a word in a text about politics is restricted to the reader's knowledge of this subject.

Following *linguistic* and *world knowledge*, the final type, *strategic knowledge,* which Nagy (1997) believes to be helpful for successful use of the context, is the only one that seems to be quite different from Carton's. Strategic knowledge is the conscious control over cognitive resources and it is used when learners are aware of encountering an unfamiliar word, and make purposeful efforts to determine its meaning. Using the information in the context is open to conscious control, which means that focusing on strategic knowledge through instruction is worthwhile. World knowledge or linguistic knowledge is the result of a cumulative process that takes months and years, but gains in strategic knowledge require much smaller instructional time.

When Carton's three categories of context clues and Nagy's knowledge types are taken into consideration, it is seen that the former refers to the text characteristics, whereas the latter seems focused on the characteristics of the reader. Still, two of the types described by them overlap. The use of cues about the target language and the world described by Carton require the knowledge of the target language and the world described by Nagy. However, they differ in the other two

categories. While Carton mentions the use of the transfer between languages, Nagy puts forward learners' awareness of the efforts they make to determine word meanings. On the whole, both categories emphasize the fact that both text and learner characteristics play a role in lexical inferencing.

A study conducted by Kaivanpanah and Alavi (2008) attempted to investigate the effect of text and learner characteristics on lexical inferencing. One of the factors examined in the study was the syntactic complexity of texts, which is a text characteristic, and the other two factors were more about learner characteristics: the level of language proficiency and the role of linguistic knowledge in word meaning inferencing. To this end, an English test was given to 102 native speakers of Persian to determine their proficiency level, and according to the results, they were divided into three groups: lower intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate. Two syntactically modified texts with different topics were given to the participants. Both the complex and simple versions included eight unknown words and the participants were asked to choose the one word from the alternatives that had the closest meaning to each underlined unknown word. The ANOVA results revealed that the participants were more successful in inferring the meaning of unknown words in syntactically simple texts. The results also indicated that more proficient learners were more successful in using the contextual clues to determine the meaning of unknown words, which suggested that grammar knowledge had a significant impact on inferencing ability. The results did not demonstrate whether the learners used linguistic or non-linguistic knowledge sources and to investigate this, a follow-up study was conducted with another group of participants who were given two different complex and simple texts. It was revealed by the think-aloud protocols that the learners used

L2 linguistic knowledge as well as non-linguistic knowledge to infer meaning. The results of this study show that both the learner and text characteristics are important and influential in inferring word meanings.

Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) took a further step to develop a taxonomy of the knowledge sources and context clues based on the results of a study they carried out. In their study, they examined the effect of EFL learners' L2 reading proficiency on the knowledge sources and context clues they use. Based on the results of a reading comprehension test, 17 participants were divided into two distinct reading proficiency levels as intermediate and advanced. In order to determine the participants' knowledge of the target words, the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) (Paribakht & Wesche, 1996) was used. Then, the participants were given a text with 26 unknown target words and asked to guess the meaning of the each underlined word. Think aloud protocols were used while the participants were inferring the word-meanings. After these sessions, the VKS was administered twice again: once at the end of think-aloud protocols to measure gains in the inferred words, and once two weeks later to learn about the rate of retention of inferred words. The study revealed that both groups made use of the same kinds of knowledge sources and contextual cues (sentence-level) while inferencing, but the intermediate group used multiple sources, and various combinations of knowledge sources and context clues, more than the advanced group. Based on the results of this study, they established a taxonomy of knowledge sources by categorizing them according to their common attributes:

Figure 1- Knowledge sources (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004, p. 231)

I. Linguistic sources
    A. Intralingual sources
        1. Target word level
            a. word morphology
            b. homonymy
            c. word association
        2. Sentence level
            a. sentence meaning
            b. syntagmatic relations
            c. paradigmatic relations
            d. grammar
            e. punctuation
         3. Discourse level
            a. discourse meaning
            b. formal schemata
    B. Interlingual sources
        1. Lexical knowledge
        2. Word collocation

II. Non-linguistic sources
    A. Knowledge of topic
    B. Knowledge of medical terms

The above taxonomy by Bengeleil and Paribakht is quite similar to Carton's (1971), in that they both include almost the same sources; however, while Carton has three categories, intralingual, interlingual and extra-lingual, Bengeleil and Paribakht have two main categories, linguistic and non-linguistic sources. They list intralingual and interlingual sources under the first category, namely linguistic sources. Carton's inter-lingual sources include some influences from other languages. Similarly, the lexical knowledge given under interlingual sources in Bengeleil and Paribakht's taxonomy includes the use of lexical knowledge of the native language, in addition to the use of cognates borrowed from other languages. However, for word collocation, learners use their knowledge of which words are commonly used together in L1. In

the taxonomy, the second category is non-linguistic sources, which was called extra-lingual by Carton. Additionally, Bengeleil and Paribakht present more detailed information about these knowledge sources in their taxonomy.

As can be understood from the discussions above, contextual inferencing strategies and the clues and knowledge sources used in contextual inferencing have been the subject of studies since the earliest years. When the vocabulary problem that L2 learners experience and the advantage of contextual guessing in terms of dealing with unknown words are taken into consideration, it is possible to say that it is our task to teach students to use these strategies (Schulz, 1983). The idea of spending time on teaching how to derive word meaning from context is supported by Nation (2008) when he states that "guessing from context is such a widely applicable and effective strategy that any time spent learning and perfecting it, is time well spent" (p.64). Otherwise, the result is an important decrease in contextual focus, and frustration when learners have problems because of unknown words in a text.

Training in Contextual Inferencing Strategies

Guessing word meanings with the help of the context they are used in to get a general understanding of texts is acknowledged as a good strategy, and it is very possible that training learners in the use of context clues will have a positive effect on students with comprehension difficulties (Grabe, 2009). Language learners should be trained about how to deal with authentic texts in the real world (Schulz, 1983). The main objective of strategy instruction in the use of context is to attain the highest level of comprehension and lowest amount of frustration while reading a text with unknown words (Nagy, 1997). Clarke and Nation (1980) underscore the importance

of practice with this skill. They discuss their own experience with their students

about strategy practice and report that the range of success on the first text was 0-

80%, whereas it went up to 50-85% after practicing on five passages with 10-15

unknown words. From this experience, they conclude that "if one learner can find

enough clues in a passage to guess 80% of the previously unknown words, then

every learner can achieve a similar score with training" (p. 212). They encourage

training by suggesting a five-step analytical approach to teach how to infer word

meaning in context:

1. Look at the unknown word and identify its part of speech: noun, verb, adjective or adverb.

2. Look at the sentence that the unknown word is in and ask the question 'What does what?'. This question helps learners to decide on whether the word has a negative or positive connotation.

3. Look for the patterns in a larger area than the immediate environment of the unknown word and work out the relationship between the clause with the unfamiliar word and the neighboring clauses. Look for words that signal these relationships such as *because* signaling the cause-effect relationship.

4. Make a guess.

5. Check your guess.

   a. Make sure that the part of speech of the meaning you have guessed is the same as the word in the passage.

   b. See if the word has any affixes that might give a clue about the meaning.

   c. Substitute your guess for the word in the text and check if it makes sense.

   d. Look up the word in a dictionary (p. 215)

Grellet's (1994) statement about using a dictionary also seems to support the

method described by Clarke and Nation (1980). She states that instead of checking

unknown words in a dictionary immediately, learners should be encouraged to try to

guess the meaning of an unknown word first by using the context. The time they should look up a dictionary is when they have a guess about an unknown word, and they want to check their guess. Based on this, he claims, it is very important to develop the ability to infer word meanings from context from the very beginning. Whatever the level of learners is, the need for training learners in inferring word meanings from context is obvious as this will improve learners' ability to use context (Nation, 2008). Several researchers have examined whether this skill can be bettered through training, both for L1 and L2 readers, and the results found were generally encouraging (Walters, 2006a).

Walters (2006a-b) carried out a study with a pre- and post- test design, aiming to look at the effectiveness of three training methods of teaching learners how to infer word meanings from context on reading comprehension. The subjects were 44 ESL students at San Diego State University with varying nationalities and proficiency levels. They took a pre-test to measure their ability to infer from context and reading comprehension. The three teaching conditions were a general strategy to derive word meaning from context while reading, training to recognize and interpret context clues, and providing practice with cloze exercises followed by feedback. After each group received six hours of training, the students took the post-test. All three experimental groups had better scores on the post-test in comparison to a control group. No significant difference was found among the groups, but the largest improvement was found in the strategy group. Although the results of the study are inconclusive, it indicates that training has some impact on reading comprehension. Even though there were not significant differences among the training methods, the effectiveness of training in the use of context in general was justified.

Kern (1989) is another researcher attempting to investigate the effect of direct strategy instruction on students' L2 reading comprehension and their ability to infer word meaning from context. He conducted a study with 53 intermediate students taking courses in French Three at the University of California. As it was the first course where students start to read unedited and authentic texts, it was felt to be worthwhile to give strategy instruction. Two groups were assigned for the study: one as the control group and one as the experimental group. The experimental group received direct instruction in strategy use in addition to the regular course content, while the control group did not receive any explicit strategy instruction but covered the same material as the experimental group. The content of the strategy instruction was word analysis, sentence analysis, discourse analysis and reading for specific purposes. In order to assess the subjects' ability to comprehend a French text and to infer word meaning from context, they were also given a "reading task interview" twice during the term: one at the beginning, and one at the end. For the word inference measure, the students were presented a list of words in which they had to identify the unknown words. Then, they were given a reading text including these words and the think-aloud procedure was used to understand how students determine the meaning of those unfamiliar words. In the end, students' word inference scores were calculated according to the number of the words that the participant identified to be unknown and the number of the words that s/he made clear in the context of the text. As for the comprehension measure, the scores reflected both sentence level and text level comprehension, and the students were given points for accurate comprehension, recall and main idea extraction. The students were assigned to three levels of L2 reading ability groups: low, mid and high. The findings indicated that

training in reading strategies had a strong impact on students' L2 reading comprehension. Moreover, it was concluded that strategy training was more effective with the students who had the greatest difficulty in reading. When it comes to the effect of strategy training on students' ability to infer word meanings, it was revealed that the instruction had a positive effect on it, but there were not statistically significant differences among the ability levels.

As the results of these studies suggest, instruction in strategies in general, and in contextual inferencing strategies in particular has been shown to be effective in language learning settings. The fact that the findings from these studies conducted in different settings justify the effectiveness of instruction in contextual inferencing strategies might encourage language teachers and educators to design their language teaching instruction so that it allows for strategy instruction.

As was mentioned earlier, not all vocabulary knowledge can be learned through direct instruction (Nagy, 1988; Schulz, 1983; Sternberg as cited in Walters, 2004). New words can also be learned incidentally, which means learning words through reading texts with no specific aim of learning. Lexical inferencing has been found to be closely related to incidental vocabulary learning (Grabe, 2009; Nassaji, 2006) and some studies have taken a further step to look into this relationship.

Fraser (1999), in an attempt to investigate the lexical processing strategies (LPS; ignore, consult, infer) used by L2 learners when they encounter unknown vocabulary while reading and the effect of these strategies on vocabulary learning, carried out a study with eight intermediate level Francophone university students in an ESL course setting, using a time-series with repeated-measures design. The

instructional treatment consisted of two phases. Both phases were integrated into the regular content of the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course. Each phase included eight hours of directed instruction given over a month. In the first phase, which was metacognitive strategy instruction, the focus was on developing students' awareness of the use and applicability of the three LPSs. The strategy instruction consisted of explicit presentation of the LPSs, guided practice of the strategy, and discussion of the effectiveness and efficacy of strategy use and problems encountered. As for the second phase, the focus was building up the language knowledge (cognates, word stems, prefixes, suffixes, grammatical functions, lexical cohesion and structural redundancy) that is necessary for the ability to use the LPSs. How learners could use this language information to derive word meaning was the primary focus. The eight participants represented higher and lower levels of English reading proficiency based on their results on the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1990) and Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension section of the Institutional TOEFL. The participants met individually with the researcher nine times over five months for one training and eight data collection sessions. These meetings represented four measurement periods: baseline, after metacognitive strategy training, after language-focused instruction and a delayed measure given one month after the instructional treatment finished.

In each data collection session, the participants first studied comprehension questions, read an article which was selected to be challenging and answered the comprehension questions, and identified unknown words. A bilingual and an English dictionary were available for consultation. Then, they had an oral interview which included a retrospective think-aloud protocol of the LPSs they had used to deal with

the unknown words while reading. A structured-interview format was used in the repeated- measures design. Finally, one week after each reading, the participants took a cued recall task, which consisted of 10 words that the participant had previously identified to be unknown, to look at the effect of instruction on word learning. The participants were asked to indicate their level of knowledge of the words on a 5-point Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS, Paribakht & Wesche, 1993, 1996).

To analyze the data about the LPS use, 878 unknown words were coded and analyzed from the think-aloud protocol data. Fraser concluded that the participants used the three LPSs both alone and in combination with each other (e.g., infer and consult). A further look into the frequency distributions of the LPS use indicated that inferencing was both the preferred and the main strategy used by the participants. As for the effectiveness of LPS use, it was revealed that the participants were generally successful in consulting or inferencing. As far as vocabulary learning was concerned, word learning scores had an overall mean of 28%. It was concluded that when the participants consulted or inferred alone, they recalled the word meaning they had derived about 30% of the time. On the other hand, when they inferred and then consulted, their recall went up to 50%. These scores indicate that these participants acquired words while reading for meaning. As a result, this research supports the effectiveness of instruction that aims to improve L2 learners' ability to infer the meaning of unknown words. Moreover, the study suggests that L2 learners can benefit from training that focuses on developing strategies for learning vocabulary through reading. The results of this study shed light on another aspect of training in strategies, which is about the retention of inferred words.

Similarly, Shokouhi and Askari (2010) carried out a study with one hundred students from two top pre-university centers in Iran to examine the effect of contextual guessing strategy (CGS) instruction on vocabulary and reading authentic texts. They used a pre- and post-test design. The participants were randomly assigned to groups as 'context' and 'non-context' groups. The context group received CGS instruction to infer the meaning of low-frequency words whereas the non-context group received direct vocabulary instruction. After administering the post-test about two weeks after the end of the treatment sessions, it was revealed that CGS was more effective when compared to direct vocabulary instruction. Also, it was concluded that CGS can account for a significant amount of vocabulary growth.

The results of the abovementioned studies indicate that L2 students can benefit from explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies and it may be useful for them to learn these strategies since they seem to ease text comprehension and help with vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, it would be useful to design courses so that we can spare adequate time to present students with ways of using the context.

Attitudes towards Reading

Attitudes/Motivation

Motivation, which is defined as "some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer, 2001, p.51), has been widely accepted to be a key factor in language learning (Ehrman, 1996; Grabe, 2009; Harmer, 2001; Van Lier, 1996). The high correlation between the strength of motivation and level of L2 achievement makes it clear that the connection between

these two is quite significant (Saville-Troike, 2006). As well as playing a crucial role in learning a language, motivation also determines whether the learning is superficial or deep and internalized (Capen, 2010).

Students' attitudes come under the spotlight at this point because attitudes towards the learning situation influence the students' level of motivation to learn another language; in other words, they serve as foundations for motivation (Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001). Negative attitudes and feelings can stunt progress, even for the rare learner who fully understands all the technical aspects of how to learn a new language. On the other hand, positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning far more effective and enjoyable (Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Oxford, 1990). Therefore, "the most far-reaching consequences in motivating L2 learners can be achieved by promoting positive language-related values and attitudes" (Dörnyei, 2006, p 51).

The Importance of Attitudes/Motivation in Reading

Motivation plays a crucial role in reading development. Students bring basic attitudes toward L2 reading to the learning environment they are in (Grabe, 2009), and these reading attitudes are defined as "a system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation" (Alexander & Filler cited in Yamashita, 2004, p.3) or "a state of mind, accompanied by feelings and emotions, that makes reading more or less probable" (Smith cited in Yamashita, 2004, p.3). That is why attitudes towards reading have an impact on students' achievement in reading. Learners' attitudes affect both their motivation and future reading success by influencing the amount of time that learners spend on reading

(Lazarus & Callahan, 2000). Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) also focus on motivation for reading because it is a great contributor to the amount and breadth of reading. Since reading is a skill that can be best improved by practicing, reading amount and breadth are important factors that contribute to reading achievement and performance (Wigfield & Guthrie 1997). The relationship between motivation for reading and reading achievement can be explained by Grabe's (2009) statement that "students with high interest are more engaged in reading tasks" (p.181). Teachers who are aware of the significance of motivation can cooperate with their students to find ways of motivating them and helping them to develop positive attitudes towards reading. Unfortunately, "there is little research concerning the role of affective factors on the development of L2 reading abilities" (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p.89) and these subjects are neglected in teaching reading comprehension. However, recently, it has been recognized by researchers that cognitive factors on their own are not helpful to answer the questions about students' reading behaviors (Lau, 2009). Since reading is a kind of activity that requires effort and personal investment, and since students can decide to do or not to do it, it is better to consider it as a motivational activity, as well (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). The students need both the skill and the will to read because even the most skillful student may not read enough if s/he does not have the motivation to do it (Watkins & Coffey, 2004).

Several researchers have investigated the role of attitudes or motivation in L2 reading. In their study about reading motivation, Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) examined 105 fourth and fifth grade children's reading motivation and its effect on the amount and breadth of their reading. Self-efficacy, intrinsic-extrinsic motivation and goals, and social aspects were the reading motives that were assessed for the

study. The participants were given a reading motivation questionnaire twice during a school year. Also, the data about the children's reading amount and breadth were gathered through diaries and questionnaires. These children's motivation was revealed to be multidimensional. It was concluded that children's motivation predicted their reading amount and breadth. Intrinsic motivation was found to have a stronger effect on the amount and breadth of reading than did extrinsic motivation. The students who read more improve their reading more, and so the findings of the study confirm that there is a close relationship between learners' motivation for reading and their achievement in reading, which implies that positive attitudes to or motivation for reading is vital.

Yamashita (2004) aimed to explore the relationship between L1 and L2 reading attitudes, in addition to the relationship between learners' L1 and L2 reading attitudes and their reading proficiency. Another purpose of the study was to look at the relationship between learners' L1 and L2 reading attitudes and their performance in L2 extensive reading. The participants were 59 Japanese EFL college students who enrolled in extensive reading classes. The instruments used to collect data consisted of an attitude questionnaire which included two different sections: one for L1 reading attitudes and one for L2 reading attitudes, and an L2 proficiency test. The reading section of a practice TOEIC test was used as a proficiency test, and the reading section entailed grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension subsections. The participants were first given the questionnaire, and then the proficiency test. The students had to read 13 or 14 books per semester and their extensive reading performance was determined by means of the average number of pages read in a week. Based on the analyses of the data, it was concluded that L1

reading attitudes were one of the factors constituting L2 reading attitudes; in other words, there was a transfer between these two. It was also revealed that L2 proficiency was not an important element in the transfer of reading attitudes. The study also found a relationship between learners' attitudes and their extensive reading performance. It was seen that positive attitudes motivated the participants to read more. Although the study looks into the effect of reading attitudes on learners' extensive reading performance only, rather than reading in a foreign language in general, its results are important as they display the relationship between reading attitudes and learners' motivation to read more.

Another study about attitudes towards reading was conducted by Hasbun (2006) to determine the learners' major problem in reading and whether they believe that the direct and systematic teaching of vocabulary would help them with this problem. Twenty-five Spanish intermediate level EFL college students who were enrolled in a reading comprehension course took part in the study. At the beginning of the course, the students were given a survey that aimed to find out their reading preferences and their attitudes towards reading. The students used a textbook for in-class reading tasks and novels for extensive reading. For every unit in the book, the instructor prepared additional exercises to teach vocabulary. On the last day of the course, they completed a questionnaire that aimed to learn about the problem areas in reading in addition to their attitudes towards reading in general and to reading for pleasure in particular. In the first survey, it was revealed that the students' major problem in foreign language reading was vocabulary. At the end of the course, the problem was the vocabulary again, but the percentage of the students reporting this dropped from 100% to 80%. Additionally, all the students mentioned that they

enjoyed reading, and most of them put forward as a reason that they knew more vocabulary and they used strategies while reading after the course. Guessing meaning from context, using a dictionary and paying attention to part of speech were the most popular strategies among the students. Hasbun concluded that teaching vocabulary and reading strategies in a reading comprehension course was essential and that the students could read faster and more fluently after learning more vocabulary as a result of the instruction, and thus, they enjoyed reading more. In this respect, the direct instruction in vocabulary seems to have solved the vocabulary problem for the participants of the study and helped the students develop more positive attitudes to reading. Hasbun also puts emphasis on explicit vocabulary teaching, claiming that it will be more effective when words are brought into focus. Although the study has useful findings in terms of cultivating more positive feelings and attitudes to reading in students by teaching them vocabulary and reading strategies, it does not seem possible to predict and teach all the words that the students may encounter in reading texts in and out of the classroom through explicit instruction. The fact that the vocabulary teaching activities used in the study are chosen from the reading texts specifically seems to explain why it is not possible to generalize the results of the study to all reading texts.

Kaniuka (2010) drew attention to the effect of reading instruction on students' attitudes to reading. He investigated the relationship between effective reading instruction and students' attitudes towards reading and reading-related self-esteem in an L1 setting. The institutions that the study was conducted in were two elementary schools in the USA. The treatment group participants were the lowest performing 20% of students at the school implementing a research-based remedial reading

program and they were given an evidenced-based remedial reading intervention. The comparison school was almost similar to the treatment school, but with higher levels of achievement. The students in the control group did not receive remedial reading instruction. Thirteen students from the treatment group and four students from the control group were exceptional students (reading disabled, speech impaired, emotionally disabled, and so on). The participants were given a 32-item attitude/self-esteem questionnaire to measure the two components of their affective performance, namely reading attitude and reading self-esteem. The 'reading attitude' part of the instrument assessed students' preferences for engaging in reading instruction and their feelings about reading instruction. The 'reading self-esteem' part was about how successful the students viewed themselves in reading tasks and activities. The analysis of the data indicated that the students who were involved in the remedial program had significantly higher reading attitude and self-esteem scores than those in the control group. It was concluded in the study that if institutions wanted to influence students' affective traits, they could influence them by increasing academic performance and by implementing effective instructional programs.

Although it has useful results, the study has some limitations. Firstly, the students are given the questionnaire only once, so we neither have any ideas about the pre-instruction reading attitudes or self-esteem of the students in the treatment groups, nor do we know about those in the control group. Thus, it is not clear whether the students in the treatment group started the instruction with already higher attitudes and self-esteem. Secondly, the content of the research-based remedial reading instruction is not explained, so what makes the instruction effective remains unclear. Nevertheless, the result of the abovementioned study can be said to

be important, in that it implies that instructional programs are also influential on learners' attitudes towards reading. The idea of improving students' attitudes by presenting them with effective instruction, or instruction that serves their needs, and by increasing their academic performance through adopting an instructional program that caters for their problems is quite plausible. Also, the conclusion that effective instruction is helpful to cultivate positive reading attitudes in students suggests that it may be worth the time spent on designing effective instructional programs according to our own instructional setting and our students' needs.

Although the abovementioned studies look at the issue of reading attitudes from different perspectives, the point they all have in common seems to be their emphasis on the importance of reading attitudes. The findings of these studies suggest that it is important to help L2 learners develop positive attitudes towards reading in order to increase the amount of reading they do, their motivation to read more, and their reading performance. Furthermore, they suggest that it is possible to improve learners' attitudes to reading or attitudes in general by designing our instruction in a way that meets their needs.

Conclusion

As discussed in the previous sections of the chapter, the fact that vocabulary is an indispensable component of foreign language reading and that many L2 learners have problems with unknown words in English reading texts has been widely accepted (Baldo, 2010; Nagy, 1988; Nassaji, 2006; Schmitt, 2004). Based on the discussions in the literature, it is possible to say that sufficient vocabulary knowledge is a requirement of foreign language reading. Since it is not possible to

teach all the words through explicit vocabulary instruction due to the large number of words, it is important to be able to help learners overcome the vocabulary problem in reading. Otherwise, the students experience frustration and a decrease in contextual focus (Nation, 2008). The ability to determine word meanings using context can be a good solution to overcome the vocabulary problem in reading to some extent (Parel, 2004). Although some other ways to deal with unknown words have been suggested, there may not always be a dictionary or someone to consult while reading. However, it is certain that there will always be a context that students can make use of.

On the other hand, learners' attitudes towards reading are another important factor that affects learners' reading behaviors (Grabe, 2009; Lazarus & Callahan, 2000). L2 learners' reading amount and breadth may vary depending on their attitudes and motivation. The effect of students' attitudes on their reading amount is vital as reading requires practice to improve. The fact that negative attitudes affect students' progress in language learning negatively, and positive attitudes do just the opposite (Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Oxford, 1990) makes it clear that it essential to promote positive reading attitudes (Dörnyei, 2006).

Many studies have been conducted on contextual inferencing strategies, and there are several studies about L2 learners' reading attitudes. However, there are not any studies looking at the relationship between these two. The study that will be described in the following sections aims to fill this gap by looking at the effect of explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies on students' attitudes towards reading, moving from the idea that presenting students with these strategies may help them develop more positive attitudes towards reading in English. The following chapter will describe the methodology of the study in detail.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The objective of this study is to investigate the pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL learners' attitudes towards reading in English, the effect of their attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts on their attitudes towards reading in English in general and the effect of explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies on pre-intermediate level EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English.

The research questions that guided the study were as follows:

1. What are pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English?

2. How do the students' attitudes to unknown vocabulary in English reading texts affect their attitude to reading in English in general?

3. Does explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing affect learners' attitudes towards reading?

The aim of this chapter is to give information about the methodology of the study. First, the setting where the study was carried out and the participants that took part in the study will be described. Next, the materials for the strategy training, the instruments used to collect data and the procedure for data collection will be explained in detail. Finally, data analysis procedures will be discussed.

Setting

The study was conducted in an EFL setting, at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Compulsory Preparatory School, Turkey, where university students study English for general purposes during a complete academic year before they start their university education at their departments. These students are those who could not score 60 out of 100 points in the proficiency test given at the beginning of the year and who were required to register for the preparatory school. In the 2010-2011 academic year, 1077 students were studying at this preparatory school, and these students were placed in their classes on the basis of the results of the placement test which was given after the proficiency test. There are three levels of classes at the institution: B, C and D. Those whose score falls into the range of 80 and 100 at the placement test are considered to be B level students. If the students' scores are between 50 and 79, they are placed in a C level class, and those who score between 0 and 49 are classified as D level students.

The students at each level are taught the same five courses: Main Course, Writing, Speaking, Vocabulary and Video, and Lab courses. However, the time allocated for the main course is different for each level. B level classes have 12 hours of main course per week, C level classes have 16 hours, and D level classes have 20 hours of main course. Reading is integrated into the main course, in which the Success Course-book set is covered, and the texts in this set of course-books are the only reading materials used for the reading courses. Each unit of the book has a reading section which is designed in a way that includes different tasks and activities for reading comprehension and for teaching or revising the words in the texts. B classes are expected to cover one unit each week, and they spend two hours of the

main course on reading in a week. On the other hand, C and D level classes are expected to cover two units each week, which means they have four hours of reading per week. In reading courses, the texts in the course-books are covered, usually starting with a pre-reading activity which is followed by while- and post-reading activities. In these courses, no explicit or genuine strategy instruction is given. It is limited to the infrequent small tips provided by the textbook about how to deal with the unknown words in reading texts, and to the teachers' recommendations.

Throughout the academic year, assessment is based on quizzes, a writing portfolio, four mid-term exams which are evenly distributed in the two semesters, and a final exam given at the end of the year. The students are required to have a grade of at least 65% in order to be considered successful and pursue their education in their departments. Those who cannot manage to have an average grade of 65 are required to study at prep school one more year. Reading is assessed through quizzes, mid-terms and the final exam. The reading parts are given 20 points over 100 in quizzes, and 10 points over 100 in mid-terms and the final exam. Those sections usually consist of true/false questions, comprehension questions, matching, or vocabulary questions.

<center>Participants</center>

Eighty-two pre-intermediate level students and two instructors at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Compulsory Preparatory School, Turkey participated in the study. The students were all four-year undergraduate students. The study was carried out with pre-intermediate level students because they are expected to have learned the basic structures of the language, and gradually they start to read more

complicated reading texts where the possibility of encountering unknown words also increases. In addition, as far as it has been observed, the vocabulary problem in reading is one of the main problems at this level of proficiency. Thus, training in the use of context clues would make sense for the students at this level.

The students were from four intact classes. Two of the classes formed the experimental groups, and the other two formed the control groups. The participant instructors were responsible for these classes for the main course, in which reading courses are integrated. Each participant instructor taught one of the experimental and one of the control groups so that the teacher effect was mitigated. While choosing these particular classes for the study, the willingness of the instructors to cooperate with the researcher was considered. Moreover, the results of the second mid-term exam of these four groups were taken into consideration so that their L2 proficiency level was more or less the same. The second mid-term exam was taken into account because it was the last exam that provided information about the students' present proficiency level. These classes had been formed according to the results of the placement test which was given at the beginning of the academic year. These students started their English education as beginner level learners, but in the second term of the academic year when the data collection procedure was started, the students were studying the pre-intermediate level course-book. The participants had never received explicit strategy training in reading strategies before.Table 1 presents the midterm grade means of the four intact classes:

Table 1- The mid-term II grade averages for participant classes

	Experimental I	Experimental II	Control I	Control II
Mid-term Exam II	66.68	65.73	64.43	68.94

The mid-term results of the condition groups were compared through ANOVA as intact classes and no significant difference was found, which suggests that the proficiency levels of the classes were quite similar to each other.

Table 2 presents the distribution of students in the experimental and control groups in terms of number and gender:

Table 2- The distribution of the students in condition groups

	Experimental group I		Experimental group II		Control group I		Control group II	
Number	22		22		21		18	
Gender	M	12	M	11	M	10	M	10
	F	10	F	11	F	11	F	8

As can be seen in Table 2, the number of the students in each group is quite similar to the others. Moreover, there seems to be an almost even number of males and females in each condition group.

The participant instructors were both female and graduates of four-year English language teaching departments of two different well-known universities in Turkey. The instructor who was teaching experimental I and control II groups also had an MA degree and had been teaching English for seven years. She has been teaching main course and reading courses since she started her career. The other participant instructor was teaching experimental II and control I groups and had six years of experience in both English teaching and giving main and reading courses.

Materials and Instruments

In this study, data were collected in two phases. In the first phase, an "Attitudes towards Reading in English" questionnaire and a semi-structured interview with two students from each group (eight in total) were employed to gather

data about the students' present attitudes to reading. After the first set of data was collected, the students in the experimental groups were given explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies with the help of the training materials, which were prepared and compiled by the researcher. Then, in the second phase, in order to gain an understanding of the possible changes in the participants' attitudes towards reading after the strategy instruction, the same questionnaire was administered as the post-questionnaire, and post-interviews were held with 16 participants, including those who took part in the pre-interviews. The materials and the instruments used will be explained in detail in the following sections.

Attitudes towards Reading in English Questionnaire

The "Attitudes towards Reading in English" questionnaire was used in order to collect data about the participants' attitudes toward reading. It was decided to use a questionnaire because questionnaires are effective tools to gather data from a group of people because they save time, effort and financial resources and as they are easy to prepare, and quick to administer (Dörnyei, 2003). The questionnaire initially consisted of 61 items and the items were a compilation of four different sources. Twenty-six items were adapted from The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, which was developed by Gardner (1985) with the aim of assessing the non-linguistic aspects of learning a second language. Twelve items were either taken directly, or adapted from the "Motivations for Reading Questionnaire", which was developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) in order to assess different aspects of students' reading motivation. Furthermore, 16 items were adapted from an "Attitudes towards Reading Questionnaire" which was previously used in a Master's Thesis (Tezdiker, 2007) to gather data about students' attitudes to reading. Finally, six items were written by

the researcher in order to include some more specific statements about the participants' attitudes towards unknown words in an English reading text. The questionnaire consisted of five different sub-categories: *joy of reading*, *self-efficacy*, *importance of reading*, *personal investment*, and *vocabulary in reading*. The questionnaire was administered in Turkish so that the students could understand each statement better and answer in a more accurate way. For that reason, the questionnaire, which was originally prepared in English, had to be translated into Turkish. In order to achieve this, the back translation technique was used, which required the questionnaire to be translated into Turkish by the researcher first. Then, the Turkish version of the questionnaire was translated back into English by several proficient Turkish speakers of English who each translated one part of the questionnaire. Afterwards, both English versions of the questionnaire, the original questionnaire and the version that was translated from Turkish, were compared by a native speaker of English to make sure that there were no differences in meaning in the two English versions. As the last step, some adjustments in the Turkish questionnaire were made in accordance with the results from the comparison made by the native speaker of English. The problematic items were given to another proficient non-native speaker of English and their final state was decided together with the researcher. The final version of the questionnaire also included a section that consisted of an explanation about the purpose of the study, a part to thank the participants for their contribution to the study, and an informed consent form.

The questionnaire originally included a pool of 61 items. In order to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, check the internal consistency of the questions as a whole and individually, and learn about how well it was worded, it was piloted

with a similar group of students from another institution (N=28) on February 21, 2011. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated for the overall reliability of the questionnaire and for the five categories. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the five categories and the whole questionnaire are presented in the table below:

Table 3- Reliability analysis results in the piloting

Category Name	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Joy of reading	17	.857
Self-efficacy	7	.667
Importance of reading	15	.791
Personal investment	9	.776
Vocabulary in reading	13	.793
Overall	61	.915

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the whole questionnaire in the pilot study was .915, which was quite above the required level. The Cronbach's alpha for the other categories except for the *self-efficacy* category was also above .7. However, 61 items were thought to be too many for the questionnaire, and so the items that did not perform well were eliminated. As a result, a 43-item Likert scale questionnaire was obtained (See Appendices A and B for the Turkish and English versions of the questionnaire).

Interviews

In order to support the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire and to gain more insight into the students' attitudes towards unknown words in reading and their effect on the students' attitudes to reading in English in general, semi-structured interviews were conducted. Semi-structured interviews were preferred

because of their flexible nature, which enables both the interviewer and the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview (Nunan, 1992). The interviewees were chosen according to the questionnaire data. The students were interviewed twice, first at the beginning of the experiment about their attitudes towards unknown words in English reading texts and the effects of these attitudes on their reading attitudes, and these are referred to as pre-interviews in the study. Then, there was the second interview for the experimental groups two weeks after the strategy instruction, about the training they received, in order to see if the training made a difference. These post-treatment interviews are referred to as post-interviews in the study. Both interviews were conducted in Turkish because it was thought that the students would express themselves better in their native language.

Pre-Interviews

After the quantitative data were analyzed, two students from each group with the highest and the lowest attitudes towards unknown words in reading were chosen to be interviewed. For the pre-interviews, the items in the *vocabulary in reading* category formed the basis for the questions to be asked and these questions were prepared in order to allow the researcher to go beyond the answers given to the vocabulary-related items in the questionnaire and see how they affect the students' attitudes towards reading in English. Two different sets of questions were used for the students with low and high attitudes. There were six questions for the low-attitude students and three questions for the high attitude students in the pre-interviews (See Appendices C and D for the Turkish and English versions of the pre-interview questions for the students).

Post-Interviews

The post interviews aimed to learn about the effect of the strategy training on the participants' attitudes towards reading, so only the students from the experimental groups were interviewed. In addition to those in the pre-interviews, 12 more students were also asked for an interview to gain a wider range of information, so in total, there were 16 interviewees in the post-interviews. These students were also selected on the basis of their vocabulary means in the post-questionnaire, as high and low attitude students. The students with high attitudes were asked four questions and those with low attitudes were asked seven questions (See Appendices E and F for the Turkish and English versions of the post-interview questions for the students).

In addition to the students, the instructors who gave the strategy training were interviewed once after the training about their thoughts and observations about the effects of the strategy training on their students. Five questions were asked during the interviews and these interviews were also conducted in Turkish in order to enable the teachers to feel more comfortable (See Appendices G and H for the interview questions for the teachers both in Turkish and English).

Strategy Training Materials

The strategy training included both the explicit instruction in the contextual inferencing strategies and practice with these strategies. Therefore, in this study 'strategy training' or 'strategy instruction' refers to both the explicit instruction in the strategies and the follow-up practice. The materials that were used with the experimental groups for the strategy training were provided by the researcher after reviewing the related literature and adapting or arranging them so that they were

presented in a clear and easily understandable way. A "guessing meaning from context" sheet and a "hints" sheet were prepared by the researcher. The focus of the former sheet was context clues which were supported with sample sentences, and the hints sheet provided students with a more detailed rationale of the context clues exemplified in the abovementioned sample sentences, their use and the steps students should follow while guessing the meaning of an unknown word in a reading text. Along with the instruction in contextual inferencing strategies, the participants in the experimental groups were also given some materials for practicing the strategies. Practice with the strategies was important at that point because it was hoped that it would help students maintain the use of context and generalize over time beyond the instructional setting. In order to accomplish this aim, some exercises and reading passages that included possible unknown words were prepared for the classroom use. The materials used were retrieved from books and different Internet sources, and they were either used the way they were, or adapted for classroom use so that they included enough context clues to allow the students to make inferences (See Appendices I, J and K for the context clues sheet, hints sheet and a sample practice activity). Apart from the abovementioned materials, a checklist that reminded the students of the strategies and a table that summarizes the context clues were supplied with the aim of encouraging the students to sustain the strategy use in their regular reading courses after the training sessions were over (See Appendices L and M for the Turkish and English versions of the checklist and N for the context clues table).

<div align="center">Data Collection Procedure</div>

Upon getting the necessary permission from the coordinator of the Karaelmas University Prep School Program, the classes and the instructors for the data

collection procedure were determined. After the preparation of the materials and instruments was completed, and all the research instruments were ready, the first phase of the data collection procedure was initiated by administering the "Attitudes towards Reading in English Questionnaire" on March 4 and 7, 2011. The questionnaire was given to both the experimental and control groups. It was administered by the participant instructors in the first twenty minutes of their class time. The students were informed that their answers to the questionnaire were going to be used for a study that was being conducted at Bilkent University. After all the participants completed the questionnaire, they were collected by the researcher.

The analysis of the quantitative data gathered through the questionnaire helped determine the participants for the interviews. Two students from each control and experimental group (eight students in total) who, according to the data analysis, had the lowest and the highest attitudes towards unknown words in English reading texts were asked for an interview. The interviews were conducted by the researcher in Turkish in the researcher's office at the institution on March 8 and 9, 2011 and they were tape-recorded. The interviews lasted about two minutes with the students with high attitudes, and about three minutes with the students with low attitudes. The interviews were then transcribed and translated into English (See Appendix O and P for a sample page of a pre-interview in Turkish and English).

After completing the first phase of data collection, explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing was started on March 14, 2011 for the experimental groups. Prior to the strategy training, the researcher had a meeting with the participant instructors during which the training materials were explained in detail. The training was carried out during the classes that were spent on the reading

parts of the main course and it went on for three weeks, including the practice with the strategy. During these three weeks, 12 hours were spent on the strategy instruction and practice: six hours for the instruction in contextual inferencing strategies and six hours for practice. The time distribution of the treatment is displayed in the following figure:

Figure 2 - The time distribution of the treatment

	Experimental Groups	Control Groups
Week 1 **14 - 18 March**	Strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies	Regular courses + extra-curricular activities
Week 2 **21 - 25 March**	Strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies + Practice with the strategies	Regular courses + extra-curricular activities
Week 3 **28 March - 1 April**	Practice with the strategies	Regular courses + extra-curricular activities
Week 4 **4 - 8 April**	No practice - regular reading courses with the checklists and context clues table sheets + teacher's encouragement	Regular courses
Week 5 **11 - 15 April**	No practice- regular reading courses with the checklists and context clues table sheets + teacher's encouragement	Regular courses

Both the experimental and the control groups had the same two teachers as main course instructors and while the teachers were giving strategy instruction to the experimental groups, they were also doing some extra activities, or playing games with their students in the control groups. The reason for doing this was to create roughly equal opportunities for both groups. The strategy training process ended on April 1, 2011 and subsequent to the explicit strategy instruction, the students went on with their regular classes for two weeks. However, each time the students in experimental groups spent time on reading in the classroom, they were reminded of the strategies through checklists and their teacher's encouragement.

As for the final stage of the data collection process, all the participants were given the same questionnaire again on April 18-19, 2011, two weeks after the treatment was over. Following this, the sixteen interviewees were asked questions to see the possible differences in their attitudes to reading after the treatment. The post-interviews were carried out under the same conditions as the pre-interviews. The duration of the post-interviews was also similar: around two minutes with the high-attitude participants and around three minutes with the low-attitude participants (See Appendix Q and R for a sample page of a post-interview in Turkish and English). As well as the students, the two instructors were also interviewed about their opinions about the strategy instruction and their observations about the effects of strategy instruction on their students' attitudes to reading in English (See Appendices S and T for a sample page of an interview with the teachers in Turkish and English).

Data Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 18). Firstly, the pre-training questionnaire data were analyzed using descriptive statistics to explore the participants' attitudes towards reading in English. The data collected after the strategy instruction was analyzed by comparing them to the pre-training data. The attitudes of the students in each condition group were compared with regard to the pre- and post-questionnaires, and the experimental and control groups which were instructed by the same teacher were compared to see if there were any differences between their attitudes. Finally, the students with high and low attitudes were selected based on the pre-questionnaire results and their pre- and post-treatment means were compared to see any possible differences in their reading attitudes.

The qualitative data collected through the interviews both with the students and the two instructors were analyzed by means of qualitative data analysis procedures. They were transcribed with the help of the recordings and the transcripts were read carefully by the researcher in order to find repeated patterns related to the effect of unknown words in reading texts on their attitudes toward reading in the pre-interviews, and the effect of strategy training on the students' attitudes in the post-interviews. Finally, the data were interpreted and conclusions were drawn.

Conclusion

This chapter provided all the details of the methodology adopted for the study including the research questions, the research setting, the participants, the instruments, the materials, the data collection procedure and the data analysis methods. The next chapter will present the data analysis process and the results of the study.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to explore the effect of explicit strategy training in contextual inferencing strategies on pre-intermediate level EFL learners' attitudes towards reading. The study also examined the pre-intermediate level EFL students' attitudes towards reading and their attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts, as well as the effect of these attitudes to unknown words on the students' attitudes to reading in general.

The research questions posed for the study were as follows:

1. What are pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English?

2. How do the students' attitudes to unknown vocabulary in English reading texts affect their attitude to reading in English in general?

3. Does explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing affect learners' attitudes towards reading?

Data Analysis Procedures

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis procedures were used. Two sets of data were used in the data analysis procedure. In an attempt to answer the first research question, the first set of data was gathered from a Likert scale "Attitudes towards Reading" questionnaire and the results from the questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively. The same set of data was used in order to answer the second research question, through the closer scrutiny of the items in the

vocabulary in reading category. In addition to the data gathered from the questionnaire, data from interviews with eight students from both experimental and control groups were analyzed qualitatively to answer the second question. The second set of data, which was collected after the three-week strategy training was given to the experimental groups, was gathered from the second administration of the same questionnaire again and from the post-interviews held with 16 participants only from the experimental groups, including the pre-interviewees. The results from the post-questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively, and the data from the interviews were analyzed qualitatively.

With the aim of answering the first research question, the first phase of the data analysis procedure was the analysis of the data from the Likert scale questionnaire. The participants' answers to the 43 Likert scale questions in the "Attitudes towards Reading" questionnaire were entered into the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS- version 18) in order to calculate the overall mean in addition to the means for each category in the questionnaire.

In an attempt to answer the second research question, the data from the *vocabulary in reading* category of the pre-questionnaire was analyzed quantitatively. The quantitative analysis was supported with the analysis of the qualitative data from the pre-interviews. The interviews were transcribed and translated into English to be analyzed based on the interpretation of the patterns that emerged in the responses given by the participants.

In order to answer the third research question, the second phase of the data analysis procedure was to analyze the data from the post-questionnaire and post-interviews, which were conducted two weeks after the strategy training for the experimental groups was over. After the data from the post-questionnaire were entered into SPSS, tests of normality were conducted in order to find out whether the data were normally distributed. Since the data were normally distributed, each group's pre- and post-questionnaires, the attitudes of the matched experimental and control groups in the post-questionnaire and the attitudes of low and high attitude students in the pre- and post-questionnaires were compared using parametric statistical methods. Moreover, the low and high attitude students, who were classified based on their overall means for the pre-questionnaire, were compared in terms of their attitudes subsequent to the strategy training. Following the quantitative analysis, the data gathered from the post-interviews were analyzed in the same way as the pre-interviews.

This chapter consists of three sections. In the first section, the results about the students' present attitudes towards reading in English will be reported in order to answer the first research question. In the second section, the students' answers to the questions in the *vocabulary in reading* category will be presented. In addition, the analyses of the pre-interviews will be reported in order to see how the participants' attitudes to unknown vocabulary in reading affect their attitudes towards reading in English. In the third section, the results of the comparisons of the questionnaires and the analysis of the post-interviews will be presented in an attempt to answer the third research question.

Results

What are pre-intermediate level EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English?

The 43 items in the questionnaire were written to gain insight into the participants' attitudes towards reading in English in general. The questionnaire consisted of five different categories related to five different aspects that were thought to form the students' attitudes to reading. These categories were defined as *the joy of reading*, *self-efficacy*, *the importance of reading*, *personal investment* and *vocabulary in reading*. All the participants were asked to mark the statement that best expresses their opinion in each one of the Likert scale items. There were five possible responses in the scale: "strongly agree", "agree", "not sure", "disagree" and "strongly disagree" and a value was assigned to each of these alternatives (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= not sure, 4= agree, and 5=strongly agree). Items involving negative statements were reversed so that for all items, a higher score indicated a more positive attitude to reading. Following this, the questionnaire was checked for its reliability. The reliability analysis was conducted for each category in the questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the overall questionnaire and the categories were as follows:

Table 4- Cronbach's alphas for the overall questionnaire and each category

Category Name	Cronbach's Alpha
Joy of reading	.858
Self-efficacy	.705
Importance of reading	.800
Personal investment	.737
Vocabulary in reading	.848
Overall	.924

As Table 4 displays, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the whole questionnaire was .924, which meant that the questionnaire was reliable. Similarly, the Cronbach's alphas for each category were above .7, indicating a good internal consistency and ensuring that the items in the questionnaire delivered consistent scores.

The mean score and standard deviations for the overall questionnaire were calculated to find out the participants' attitudes towards reading. The mean scores of each category in the questionnaire were also calculated in order to gain insight into the different aspects of the participants' reading related attitudes.

Table 5 below shows the overall and categorical mean scores:

Table 5- Overall and categorical means

Category type	Mean	Std. D.
1. The importance of reading	4.13	.52
2. The joy of reading	3.39	.67
3. Self-efficacy	2.97	.63
4. Vocabulary in reading	2.71	.82
5. Personal investment	2.45	.68
Overall questionnaire	3.23	.51

As can be seen in the table, the students at Zonguldak Karaelmas University appeared to have a rather neutral attitude towards reading (m=3.23). In addition, as illustrated in the table, the mean scores indicate that *the importance of reading* category has the highest mean score. In other words, the participants generally

agreed that being able to read in English is important, which can be considered as a positive contribution to their attitudes. As for the second highest mean score, the students' responses to the items in *the joy of reading* section showed that the participants were neutral about the items implying that they enjoy reading in English. The students' responses to the items in the *self-efficacy* category were just below the neutral mark, which revealed that the participants view themselves as neither good nor bad readers of English. The *vocabulary in reading* category, which served the purpose of providing information about the students' feelings about the unknown words in reading texts, had comparatively lower means, suggesting that the students feel somewhat negatively about encountering unknown vocabulary items in reading texts. Finally, based on the lowest means which belonged to the *personal investment* category, it can be said that the participants do not put much effort into reading in English.

In the following section, further analyses of the data from the pre-questionnaire will be presented in order to answer the second research question of the study.

How do the students' attitudes to unknown vocabulary in English reading texts affect their attitude to reading in English in general?

Analysis of the Quantitative Data

Among the five categories of the questionnaire, the *vocabulary in reading* section provided the most valuable information needed to answer the second research question. With the help of the overall means for this category, the correlation between the students' attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts and towards

reading in English in general were calculated to see if there is a relationship between them.

Table 6- Overall and vocabulary means correlations

	Overall vocabulary in reading category mean
Overall pre-questionnaire mean	.72** *p*=.00

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

As the above table illustrates, there was a significant correlation between the overall *vocabulary in reading* category means and the entire questionnaire means, *r*=.72, *p*(one-tailed)<.01, suggesting that the students' attitudes towards unknown words in English reading texts are associated with their attitudes towards reading in English in general.

In addition to the overall means for this category, the students' responses to the individual items in this category were also analyzed. The analyses revealed that the participants generally do not feel very positively about the unknown vocabulary items in reading texts. Below is a more detailed analysis of the students' responses to the nine statements in the *vocabulary in reading* category:

Table 7- Descriptive statistics for the vocabulary in reading category

Items in the questionnaire	N	Mean	Std. D.
4. Students who claim they can't understand English texts because of unknown words are just making excuses.	82	2.88	1.29
9. The possibility of encountering unknown words in texts does not affect my feelings about reading in English.	82	2.68	1.24
14. I feel afraid of encountering unfamiliar words before I start reading an English text.	82	3.26	1.25
20. I tend to give up reading when I don't know the meaning of some words in an English reading text.	82	2.68	1.24
28. I don't like reading something in English when the words are too difficult.	82	3.24	1.21
33. I would like reading in English more if there were not unknown words in texts.	82	3.80	1.25
35. The unknown words in reading texts keep me away from reading in English.	82	2.93	1.28
38. I feel anxious when there are a lot of words that I do not know in an English reading text.	82	3.67	1.12
42. The unknown words are the basic reasons behind my negative feelings about reading in English.	82	3.55	1.17

As is clear from the table, item 33 has the highest mean score among the items in the vocabulary in reading category, which suggests that unknown words in reading texts cause the students develop negative feelings about reading and if they did not have the vocabulary problem, they would feel more positively about reading. The mean scores of items 38 and 42, which are also relatively higher, reveal that the participants consider unknown words as a problem affecting their feelings negatively

about reading in English. What is more, they view the vocabulary problem as the main reason behind their negative feelings about reading in English. Items 9 and 4, which include statements representing a positive attitude towards unknown words, have relatively lower means and based on this, it is possible to say that the students do not think very positively about the unfamiliar words in reading texts. By looking at the means for items 14 and 28, it can be said that the fact that the students might encounter unfamiliar words while reading is a factor that affects their attitudes towards reading in general. On the whole, the mean scores for the individual items in the vocabulary in reading category appear to show that the students' attitudes to reading in general are affected negatively by their attitudes to unknown words in reading texts.

Analysis of the Qualitative Data

In order to provide opportunities for a more detailed analysis of the students' attitudes towards unknown words in reading, and their effect on the students' general attitudes to reading, eight individual interviews were conducted with two students from each class in each condition. The interviewees were chosen according to the questionnaire results: from each condition group, one student with the highest and one with the lowest score in *the vocabulary in reading* category were called for the interview. The table below displays the mean scores of the interviewees for the vocabulary in reading category and for the overall questionnaire:

Table 8- Mean scores of the interviewees

High Attitude Level				Low Attitude Level			
Participant	Group	Vocab. Mean	Overall Mean	Participant	Group	Vocab. Mean	Overall Mean
1	Exp. 2	4.67	4.21	5	Exp. 2	1.56	2.58
2	Cont. 1	3.44	3.37	6	Cont. 1	1.22	2.42
3	Exp. 1	4.78	4.44	7	Exp. 1	1.44	2.63
4	Cont. 2	4.56	4.53	8	Cont. 2	1.22	2.56

With the intention of getting a deeper understanding of the participants' low and high attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts, and the effect of these attitudes on their attitudes to reading in English in general, seven questions were asked of the low attitude students, and three questions were asked of the high attitude students. In this section, the comparative analysis of the low and high attitude students' answers to these questions will be presented.

The first question that the high attitude students were asked was about how and why they were not negatively affected by unknown words in English texts. P2, P3 and P4 put forward their willingness and determination to learn English as the main reason; the following quote is an example of this:

> *I don't like giving up reading when I encounter a word I don't know. I understand the other parts of the text. I don't want to skip that part because I don't understand it…Because I am eager to learn English, I mean… I am ambitious.* **(P3- high attitude)**

Similarly, the first question for the low attitude students was about how they were affected by unknown words in English texts and it was revealed that the participants were generally negatively affected by the unknown words. P5, P6, P7 and P8 all agreed on that, as the following sample quote displays:

> *When I don't know the word, I want to give up reading, I don't want to read. It affects me negatively. When we are reading in the class, I feel a bit… I don't know. I get bored because I can't answer anything.* **(P5- low attitude)**

As the above quotes suggest, the students with high attitudes have a desire to learn English and this desire leads them not to give up easily when they encounter unknown words in texts. Their eagerness to learn English also seems to result in their determination. On the other hand, the low attitude students lose their motivation and enthusiasm to read when they come across an unknown word while they are reading.

In line with their answers to the first question, the low attitude students were asked to talk more about how their negative attitudes towards unknown words affect their reading in general. When they were asked how their fears about unknown words affect their reading, P6, P7 and P8 seemed to have common concerns:

> *I feel nervous…Since my vocabulary knowledge isn't enough; I know that there will be words that I don't know even before I start reading. Again, not knowing their pronunciation, not being able to understand the text… These things make me feel anxious. As I think that I won't understand…* **(P6- low attitude)**

As can be inferred from the excerpt above, the students do not feel comfortable about the words they do not know, or even about the possibility that there might be unknown vocabulary. This situation again affects their motivation in a negative way, and they get bored.

A further question was asked about how the problems mentioned above affect their willingness to read, or whether they would read more if they did not have such a problem. All the interviewees mentioned that they would read more if they did not have trouble in understanding texts with unfamiliar words:

> *Of course it affects my willingness. I mean, I know the tenses, or other structures but when I don't know the word, I can't understand that sentence or the text, and this affects me. I mean, I don't want to read then. Normally, I like reading, if the words weren't a problem for me, I would like to read. I spend less time because I am disheartened.* **(P6-low attitude)**

As can be understood from the excerpt, the interviewees lose their eagerness to read because of the unknown words, and this situation results in a reduction in the time they spend on reading in English. Moreover, all the interviewees agreed that they would read more if it were not for the unfamiliar words in the texts.

Whether the students have any methods to deal with unknown words in reading texts was another question addressed to both groups. It emerged in the interviews that all high attitude students have certain ways to deal with them: P1, P3 and P4 usually tried to use the context to try to understand that unknown word, and check their guess in a dictionary:

> *More or less, I can understand what the sentence means...I mean, with the other words, I can make a connection. I can't translate it directly into Turkish, but I can infer what is trying to be told. I can't know it exactly, but I try to understand its meaning from its part of speech, for example. I guess, I mean. Then, I look the word up in a dictionary and I understand better then.* **(P1- high attitude)**

However, P2 differed in his/her method to deal with unknown words, as can be seen in the following excerpt:

> *I look them up in a dictionary; I find the equivalent of the words. I try to translate the sentence into Turkish, or I ask my teachers.* **(P2- high attitude)**

There was a notable difference in the answers of the students with low attitudes. Two different ways were mentioned by the students:

> *To be honest, I don't do anything. I don't have a method.* **(P5- low attitude)**

> *I have to skip that part and do nothing… I don't have any other choices.* **(P8-low attitude)**

While P5 and P8 stated that they do not have a certain method they use to figure out the meanings of unknown words in reading texts, the other two students noted that they consulted a dictionary:

> *I look the word up in a dictionary, but I know… English words can have a different meaning in that sentence…different from the definition in the dictionary…its first meaning, second meaning? To be able to understand this, I have to understand the other words again… I mean I need to know words again…It's too bad.* **(P6- low attitude)**

> *I installed a dictionary in my cellular phone. In the class, in reading texts, I directly use it.* **(P7- low attitude)**

It can be inferred from the above quote by P6 that the students have some concerns about using a dictionary to deal with unknown words because using a dictionary is not always successful.

It is apparent from the excerpts that a majority of the high attitude students already use context to overcome the vocabulary problem in reading. However, low attitude students either skip the part in the text that contains an unknown word, or use a dictionary to check the meaning of the word, but as P6 reported, they seem to have some concerns about using a dictionary. It can be interpreted from this situation that skipping a part in a text may cause some difficulties for the students in terms of comprehension, or looking up an unknown word in a dictionary may not always be helpful to understand the meaning of a word in a particular context. In this respect,

the students with high attitudes appear to have an advantage over those with low attitudes. This interpretation of the situation seems to be supported by the low attitude students' responses to the question about whether the unknown words affect their success in reading. Below is an example of what all students reported:

> *Yes, you have to be successful in reading… but my vocabulary knowledge is limited already, it affects my success.* **(P7- low attitude)**

The above excerpt shows that the participants believe that unknown words play a role in their failure in reading in English. It can be inferred from their responses that their success would increase if they knew more words or at least some ways to deal with them.

After talking about their ways to deal with unknown words, the high attitude interviewees were asked whether they thought these methods they use could be the reason for not being affected negatively by unknown words. All of the participants seemed to agree on that:

> *Yes, I am not afraid thanks to the dictionary. Also, I often revise words with my friends.* **(P2- high attitude)**
>
> *Of course, it is a good method I think… It is better to try to read the text and understand the word than to look it up in a dictionary directly.* **(P3- high attitude)**

Moving from these answers, it is possible to say that the students' methods to deal with unknown words help them develop relatively more positive attitudes to reading. Similarly, doing nothing about an unknown word or being dependent on a dictionary may be the reason for showing negative attitudes and this seems to be reinforced by the low-attitude students' responses to the question that aimed to find out the interviewees' reactions to a possible way to overcome the vocabulary

problem in reading. They were also asked whether their negative attitudes would change if they knew how to deal with unfamiliar words in texts and P1, P2, P3 and P4 all stated that their attitudes would change. Here is an example:

> *Of course I would like to learn, why not? They will help me improve in the end. My attitudes are negative now, but then they would certainly be positive, I would think positively. I would love English more, I wouldn't get bored.* **(P5- low attitude)**

It is clear from the quote that the low attitude students are open to learning some methods to help them with the vocabulary problem while reading in English. They also think that their negative attitudes would change if they learned these methods, which is line with the high-attitude students' answers.

To sum up, based on the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data, it was revealed that there are students who are negatively affected by the unknown words in reading texts as well as students who do not have negative attitudes to unknown words in reading texts. However, it is clear from the students' responses to the questionnaire and interviews that the students' negative attitudes towards unknown words affect their attitudes to reading in English in a negative way.

This section attempted to answer the second research question. The following section will try to answer the third research question of the study by presenting the analysis of the data gathered after the strategy instruction and by comparing it to the pre-strategy-instruction data.

Does explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing affect learners' attitudes towards reading?

Analysis of the Quantitative Data

For the data collection procedures, in order to eliminate the teacher effect, the condition groups were chosen so that a pair of experimental and control group was instructed by the same teacher. During the strategy instruction and practice process, experimental I and control II groups and experimental II and control I groups were matched with the same teacher. For this reason, the results of the quantitative analysis will be presented for the first pair, namely experimental I and control II, first, and then the results for the second pair, experimental II and control I, will be presented.

In order to be able to explore whether explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies had an impact on the participants' attitudes towards reading, first the paired groups were compared in terms of their pre-questionnaire means in order to be able to see whether they were similar prior to the strategy instruction. Then, paired samples t-tests were performed to compare each group's pre- and post-questionnaires, and independent t-tests were run to compare the attitudes of experimental and control groups.

Experimental I and Control II

These two groups were compared in terms of their existing attitudes towards reading; their overall and categorical mean scores from the pre-questionnaire are presented in the table below:

Table 9- Comparison, experimental I and control II, pre-questionnaire

Category	Experimental I		Control II		Independent Samples t-test
	M	Std. D.	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Joy of reading	3.39	.73	3.51	.52	.558
Self-efficacy	2.98	.68	2.99	.56	.979
Importance of reading	4.14	.47	4.25	.42	.444
Personal investment	2.25	.66	2.62	.76	.107
Vocabulary in reading	2.74	.92	2.79	.92	.872
Overall	3.21	.58	3.33	.48	.484

As is clear from the table, the attitudes of the students in these two groups are quite similar to each other. In other words, the students in both the experimental I and control II groups seem to have neutral attitudes towards reading in English. This was supported by the fact that the independent samples t-tests did not reveal a significant difference between the attitudes of the participants in experimental I and control II groups.

The participants in the first experimental group were compared in terms of their pre- and post-training questionnaires in order to find out whether there is a significant difference between the two sets of data. Table 10 below presents their overall mean scores as well as the mean scores by categories for both questionnaires:

Table 10- Overall and category means, pre- and post-questionnaires, experimental I

Category	Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Paired samples t-test
	N	M	Std. D.	N	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
joy of reading	22	3.39	.92	20	3.28	.88	.832
self-efficacy	22	2.98	.68	20	2.91	.86	.681
importance of reading	22	4.14	.45	20	3.87	.88	.245
personal investment	22	2.25	.66	20	2.51	.89	.100
vocabulary in reading	22	2.74	.92	20	2.66	1.0	.832
Overall	22	3.18	.60	20	3.13	.73	.881

As Table 10 demonstrates, the categorical and overall means of the students in the first experimental group appear not to have changed much from the pre- to post-questionnaire. Similar to the pre-questionnaire, the highest mean score in the post-questionnaire belongs to the importance of reading category again. The students have the lowest scores in the personal investment category in the post-questionnaire, as they also did in the pre-questionnaire. The similar mean scores in both questionnaires are also confirmed by the paired samples t-tests, which revealed that the students did not experience any significant changes in their attitudes after they received strategy training. When this result is taken into consideration, it is possible to say that the students in the experimental I group do not appear to have been affected by the strategy training they received with regard to their attitudes.

As the next step, the same procedure was carried out for the control II group. Paired samples t-tests were conducted in order to compare their mean scores for the pre- and post-questionnaires. The pre-and post-questionnaire means, and the results

of the paired samples t-tests run on the overall and categorical means are presented in
Table 11 below:

Table 11- Overall and categorical means, pre- and post-questionnaires, control II

| Category | Pre-questionnaire | | | Post-questionnaire | | | Paired Samples T-test |
	N	M	Std. D.	N	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
joy of reading	17	3.51	.52	15	3.36	.62	.062* *SE*=.087 *t* (14)=2.03
self-efficacy	17	2.99	.56	15	2.85	.79	.152
importance of reading	17	4.25	.42	15	4.14	.44	.086* *SE*=.115 *t(*14)=1.84
personal investment	17	2.62	.76	15	2.57	.77	.297
vocabulary in reading	17	2.79	.92	15	3.03	.96	.264
Overall	17	3.30	.49	15	3.29	.58	.357

*= approaching significance

As it is clear in Table 11, the overall and categorical mean scores of the
students in the second control group are quite similar in the two questionnaires.
Similar to the experimental I group, the students in this group also have the highest
means in the *importance of reading* category, and the lowest means in the *personal
investment* category. However, their means in the *importance of reading* and *joy of
reading* categories appear to have decreased slightly when compared to their means
in the pre-questionnaire. The differences between the pre- and post-questionnaire
means were checked through paired samples t-tests and the results indicated that the
differences were non-significant, which suggests that the students in the control II
group did not change their attitudes from pre- to post-questionnaire. However, the

differences in the *joy of reading* and *importance of reading* categories were approaching significance, suggesting a trend towards a decrease in these categories over the treatment period.

The tables above displayed the comparison of the participants in the first experimental and second control groups in respect to how the attitudes of the students in each condition group may have changed over the treatment period. As the third step, these two groups were compared to see if there were any significant differences between the means of these two condition groups in the post-questionnaire with regard to their attitudes towards reading in English. Table 12 shows the overall and categorical means for each group and the results of the independent samples t-test:

Table 12- Comparison, experimental I and control II, post-questionnaire

Category	Experimental I		Control II		Independent Samples t-test
	M	Std. D.	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Joy of reading	3.28	.88	3.36	.62	.770
Self-efficacy	2.91	.86	2.85	.79	.832
Importance of reading	3.87	.88	4.14	.44	.234
Personal investment	2.51	.89	2.57	.77	.833
Vocabulary in reading	2.66	1.0	3.04	.96	.269
Overall	3.13	.73	3.29	.58	.478

As illustrated in Table 12, the overall post-questionnaire mean scores of the experimental I and control II groups seem to be somewhat similar to each other. This was confirmed by the independent samples t-test, which showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental I and control II groups after the

three-week treatment period for the experimental group. Moving from this, it can be said that the explicit strategy training in contextual inferencing strategies does not appear to have had a significant influence on the attitudes of the participants in the experimental I group.

Having examined the first pair of the condition groups, the same analysis procedures were conducted to evaluate the case in the second pair of condition groups, namely experimental II and control I groups.

Experimental II and Control I

These paired groups were compared in terms of their attitudes towards reading before the treatment; their mean scores in the pre-questionnaire are presented in the table below:

Table 13- Comparison, experimental II and control I, pre-questionnaire

Category	Experimental II		Control I		Independent Samples t-test
	M	Std. D.	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Joy of reading	3.48	.68	3.21	.69	.206
Self-efficacy	3.12	.61	2.80	.64	.103
Importance of reading	4.12	.61	4.02	.53	.580
Personal investment	2.67 $SE=.1452$	.68	2.30 $SE=.5946$	.59	.069* $t(41)= 1.866$
Vocabulary in reading	2.88 $SE=.1716$	.80	2.43 $SE=.1387$	.63	.049** $t(41)= 2.027$
Overall	3.34 $SE=.1053$	.49	3.05 $SE=.0982$	.45	.053* $t(41)=1.995$

(*= approaching significance, **= significant)

As the above table shows, the second experimental group seems to have comparatively higher attitudes than the first control group. In order to see whether this difference is significant, an independent samples t-test was performed and the results suggested that the difference between the experimental II and control I groups was approaching significance. Therefore, it can be said that there is a trend toward the experimental group having a higher attitude towards reading than the control group before the treatment began. This higher attitude seems to result from the higher scores in two categories, vocabulary in reading ($p<.05$) and personal investment (approaching significance, $p=.069$).

The overall and categorical mean scores for the pre- and post-questionnaires of the participants in the second experimental group are displayed in the following table:

Table 14- Overall and category means, pre- and post-questionnaires, experimental II

Category	Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Paired samples t-test
	N	M	Std. D.	N	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
joy of reading	22	3.48	.68	22	3.53	.71	.757
self-efficacy	22	3.12	.61	22	3.07	.73	.719
importance of reading	22	4.12	.61	22	4.14	.59	.884
personal investment	22	2.67	.68	22	2.76	.71	.610
vocabulary in reading	22	2.88	.80	22	3.07	.95	.418
Overall	22	3.31	.49	22	3.40	.61	.434

As the above table displays, when the means of the categories are taken into account, it is seen that the students in the second experimental group have the highest mean scores in the *importance of reading* category and the lowest mean scores in the

personal investment category. Furthermore, as far as the overall means from the pre- and post-questionnaires are concerned, they appear to be comparable and they do not seem to have changed much from the pre- to post-questionnaires. It is also confirmed by the paired samples t-tests that there are no significant differences between the pre- and post-questionnaires of the second experimental group. That is to say, the participants' attitudes towards reading do not appear to have changed significantly after they received the three-week strategy instruction.

The pre- and post-questionnaire means of the control I group, who had the same teacher as the experimental II group, were also compared to see whether there was a difference; Table 15 shows the results of this comparison with regard to the overall mean scores and mean scores by categories:

Table 15- Overall and categorical means, pre- and post-questionnaires, control I

Category	Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Paired samples t-test
	N	M	Std. D.	N	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
joy of reading	21	3.21	.63	19	2.96	.72	.089* *SE* =.168 *t*(18)=1.799
self-efficacy	21	2.80	.64	19	2.89	.43	.634
importance of reading	21	4.02	.53	19	3.65	.70	.042** *SE* =.158 *t(18)* =2.187
personal investment	21	2.30	.59	19	2.36	.57	.702
vocabulary in reading	21	2.43	.63	19	2.30	.78	.433
Overall	21	3.02	.46	19	2.89	.44	.143

*= approaching significance, **= significant

As can be seen in the table above, again, the overall mean scores of the students in the pre-questionnaire are fairly analogous to their mean scores in the post-questionnaire. Similar to the previous groups, the lowest mean scores belong to the personal investment category, followed by vocabulary in reading. As for the highest mean scores among the categories, the importance of reading has the highest means, although there seems to be a slight decrease from the pre-to post questionnaire. As a result of the paired samples t-tests, it was revealed that although there was no significant difference between the students' attitudes towards reading in English in the overall means from the pre- to post-questionnaire, a significant difference was found in the importance of reading category. That is to say, the control I group students' attitudes towards the importance of reading in English appear to have changed negatively over the treatment period. Also, as illustrated in the table, the joy of reading category can be said to be trending towards a decrease in attitudes.

Following these, the post-questionnaire means of both the experimental II and control I groups were compared to see whether there were any differences between them. Table 16 below presents the overall and categorical means of these groups in the post-questionnaire:

Table 16- Comparison, experimental II and control I, post-questionnaire

Category	Experimental II		Control I		Independent Samples t-test
	M	Std. D.	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Joy of reading	3.53 SE=.1520	.71	2.96 SE=.1668	.72	.016** t(39)= 2.509
Self-efficacy	3.07	.73	2.89	.43	.354
Importance of reading	4.14 SE=.1271	.59	3.65 SE=.1622	.70	.023** t(39)= 2.373
Personal investment	2.76 SE=.1518	.71	2.36 SE=.1321	.57	.060* t(39)= 1.940
Vocabulary in reading	3.07 SE=.2033	.95	2.30 SE=.1797	.78	.008** t(39)= 2.781
Overall	3.40 SE=.1303	.61	2.89 SE=.1013	.44	.004** t(37.910)= 3.096

*= approaching significance, **= significant

As the above table reveals, the mean scores of the experimental II group seem to be relatively higher when compared to the mean scores of the control I group, suggesting that the students in the experimental II group have relatively more positive attitudes towards reading. In order to see whether this difference was significant, independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare the means of these two groups on the post questionnaire. The results of the t-tests indicated that the differences seen between these two condition groups were significant both overall and in the *joy of reading, importance of reading*, and *vocabulary in reading* categories, while the difference seen in the *personal investment* category is approaching significance. This suggests that the participants who received explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies showed more positive attitudes towards reading in English after the three-week treatment than the students who did not receive such strategy instruction. However, as the differences between

these two groups were also significant or approaching significance on the pre-questionnaire, and since a significant difference in the attitudes of the students in the experimental II group from the pre- to post-questionnaire was not revealed by the paired samples t-tests, it is difficult to say that the significant difference between the experimental II and control I groups is due to the strategy training. A more likely explanation is the decreases in attitude observed in the control group.

After the paired groups were compared based on their means from the pre- and post-questionnaire, a further step was taken to compare the means of the high and low attitude students to see whether there was a difference in their attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire.

Comparison of High and Low Attitude Students

Based on the pre-questionnaire results, the students whose overall means were below 3.0 on a five-point Likert scale were identified as low attitude students, and the students whose overall means were above 3.0 were labeled as high attitude students. These students' means from the pre- and post- questionnaires were compared through paired samples t-tests in order to be able to see whether there was a change in their attitudes towards reading in English. The paired samples t-tests were performed separately for the students in the experimental and control groups. The following table presents the results of the paired samples t-tests run for the high and low attitude students in the experimental groups:

Table 17- Comparison, high and low attitude students, experimental

	Pre-Questionnaire		Post-Questionnaire		Paired samples t-test
	M	Std. D.	M	Std. D.	Sig.(2-tailed)
High attitude	3.57	.35	3.43	.67	.243
Low attitude	2.64	.27	2.99	.61	.045** *SE*= .1577 *t*(14)= 2.205

**= significant

As illustrated in the above table, the high attitude students' means in the pre- and post-questionnaires do not seem to be different from each other. The results of the paired samples t-test showed that the difference between the pre- and post-questionnaires of the high attitude students was not significant, suggesting that the three-week strategy training did not have an effect on the high attitude students' attitudes towards reading. It is also possible to say that these students' attitudes to reading do not appear to have changed negatively within the strategy instruction period. Regarding the low attitude students, their means on the post-questionnaire seem to be relatively higher than their pre-questionnaire means. The comparison of the low attitude students' mean scores in the pre- and post-questionnaires by means of the paired samples t-test revealed that the low attitude participants' means were significantly higher in the post-questionnaire. This result suggests that explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies did have an effect on the low attitude participants' attitudes towards reading, resulting in more positive attitudes.

The same analysis procedure was carried out for the control groups in order to see whether there was a difference in the low and high attitude participants' attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire. The following table displays the results of the comparison for the high and low attitude students in the control groups:

Table 18- Comparison, high and low attitude students, control

	Pre-Questionnaire		Post-Questionnaire		Paired samples t-test
	M	**Std. D.**	**M**	**Std. D.**	**Sig.(2-tailed)**
High attitude	3.47	.33	3.23	.54	.007** $SE=$ .0800 $t(21)=$ 3.00
Low attitude	2.67	.25	2.77	.40	.237

**= significant

As is clear from the table, the high attitude students in the control groups seem to have slightly higher attitudes in the pre-questionnaire, and there seems to be a decrease in their attitudes in the post-questionnaire, which is also supported by the paired samples t-test results. The results showed that the difference in the high attitude students' pre- and post-questionnaire means was significant, revealing that the reading attitudes of the high attitude participants in the control groups went down from the beginning to the end of the study. As for the low attitude students in the control groups, their post-questionnaire mean scores are quite similar to their means in the pre-questionnaire. This was checked with the help of a paired samples t-test and the results showed that the low attitude control groups participants' attitudes did not change significantly from the pre- to post-questionnaire.

When the results of the analyses presented in this section are taken into consideration, it is possible to say that explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies had a positive effect on the students who had low attitudes to reading prior to the training, and this seems to be supported by the fact that the means of the low attitude students in the control groups did not show any significant differences in the same time period. Furthermore, it can be concluded from the results that the strategy instruction helped the students with higher means to maintain their positive attitudes because it was revealed that there was a decrease in the means of the high attitude students in the control groups, whereas the means of the high attitude students in the experimental groups did not show any significant differences.

On the whole, the comparison of the quantitative data from the pre- and post-questionnaires revealed that there were no significant differences in the students' self-reported attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire within each condition group per se. When the matched experimental and control groups were compared in terms of their responses to the post-questionnaire, it was found that there was no significant difference between the experimental I and control II groups, whereas a significant difference was found between the attitudes of the participants in experimental II and control I groups. However, as mentioned before, it is difficult to draw the conclusion that this difference in the students' attitudes in the experimental II group is due to the effect of the strategy training since the change is not supported by the paired samples t-test results. However, when the overall means of the low and high attitude students in both experimental and control groups were compared separately, it was seen that strategy training helped students to either develop more

positive attitudes towards reading if they had low attitudes, or maintain their positive attitudes if they already had higher attitudes towards reading in English.

The analyses of the quantitative data were presented in this section in order to be able to answer the third research question of the study. In the following section, the results of the analysis of the qualitative data will be presented.

Analysis of the Qualitative Data

In an attempt to support the quantitative data and gain a deeper understanding of the participants' attitudes towards reading before and after the strategy training, interviews were held with the students showing the highest and the lowest attitudes. In the pre-interviews that were held before the three-week treatment, eight students in total were interviewed from each condition group: one student with the highest and one student with the lowest level attitudes were asked questions about the unknown words in English reading texts and their effect on the students' attitudes towards reading in English. These interviewees had been chosen on the basis of their means for the *vocabulary in reading* category in the pre-questionnaire. For the post-interviews, the same participants only from the experimental groups were interviewed to go into the depths of the effect of strategy training. In addition to these four students, twelve more students were interviewed to gain a wider range of information. These twelve interviewees were chosen in the same way as the previous interviewees; in other words, their means for the vocabulary in reading category in the post-questionnaire were taken into account. The table below displays the mean scores of the interviewees in the post-questionnaire for the *vocabulary in reading* category and for the overall questionnaire:

Table 19- The mean scores of the interviewees

High Attitude Level				Low Attitude Level			
Participant	**Group**	**Vocab. Mean**	**Overall Mean**	**Participant**	**Group**	**Vocab. Mean**	**Overall Mean**
1	Exp. 2	3.89	3.72	**5**	Exp. 2	4.00	4.33
3	Exp. 1	4.67	4.89	**7**	Exp. 1	2.35	1.11
9	Exp. 1	4.00	4.28	**15**	Exp. 2	2.00	2.60
10	Exp. 1	3.89	2.74	**16**	Exp. 1	1.56	1.79
11	Exp. 2	4.89	4.40	**17**	Exp. 1	1.22	3.16
12	Exp. 2	5.00	4.70	**18**	Exp. 1	1.00	1.72
13	Exp. 2	4.00	4.02	**19**	Exp. 2	1.89	2.77
14	Exp. 1	3.11	3.51	**20**	Exp. 2	2.11	2.60

In the table above and in the quotations below, P1, P3, P5 and P7 refer to the participants who took part in the pre-interview and the rest of the participant numbers will be used to refer to those who took part only in the post interview. It is important to note at this point that P5 is in the low-attitude column although s/he has quite high means because she was among the students with the lowest attitudes in the pre-questionnaire and was asked for an interview for that reason. However, in the post-questionnaire, she was among the students with the highest attitudes, which can also be understood from the table.

Along with the students, the participant instructors were also interviewed in order to benefit from their experience about the strategy instruction and their observations about the students' reactions to the training or any changes in their attitudes before and after the strategy training.

Interviews with the students

The students with high attitudes were asked four questions about the strategy training and the students with low attitudes were asked six questions. Their responses to these questions will be presented below.

The first question was about the participants' ideas and feelings about the strategy training and all of the high attitude participants and an overwhelming majority of the low attitude participants reported their positive feelings:

> *I found these strategies really very helpful and I am happy to know them.* **(P9-High attitude)**

> *It really works because when we come across words that we don't know, we used to hesitate whether to read the text or not. Now, owing to these techniques we have learned, we can understand the texts and we don't hesitate to read.* **(P17-Low attitude)**

Only one of the low attitude participants, on the other hand, was rather neutral when compared to his/her peers:

> *It is quite normal and nice to teach these strategies but we already used to make use of these techniques unconsciously before the training. We could find what is missing in the sentence and make guesses about it.* **(P18- low attitude)**

It is clear from the above excerpts that none of the students reacted negatively to the strategy training. Although P18 believed that they already used these strategies without being aware of them, the rest stated that it was good to learn them.

The next question was about the students' views of the usefulness of the inferencing strategies, and whether they think they will use them in the future. All of the participants from both groups stated that they found these strategies useful and they wanted to use them. Although the students agreed on the effectiveness of the

treatment, they put forward different reasons for finding the strategies helpful. Four high attitude participants seemed to agree on their reasons:

> *When there are unknown words, instead of using a dictionary directly, I use the clues in the text and so I go on reading. Thus, reading is not interrupted, I don't waste time and I don't get bored.* **(P12- high attitude)**

Similarly, three students from the low attitude group mentioned that they would use these strategies because they did not need a dictionary when they used the strategies:

> *Yes, I plan to use them because we don't always encounter words that we know. And we don't have a dictionary with us all the time. Since we can't carry a dictionary with us all the time in the future, I will use these strategies. To me, it is much more enjoyable than using a dictionary.* **(P20- low attitude)**

It can be understood from these participants' responses that students from both groups thought that contextual inferencing strategies were helpful since they do not have to look up in a dictionary every time they encounter an unknown word in a reading text.

Three of the abovementioned four participants in the high attitude group added one more reason while answering the same question:

> *I think that when we infer word meanings with our own efforts by using the clues in the texts, they are more long lasting.* **(P10- high attitude)**

It is clear from the statement that this participant found inferencing strategies useful because they foster better vocabulary learning. He/she seems to prefer guessing word-meanings from context to looking them up in a dictionary.

Similar to the high attitude participants, one of the low attitude students also stated that learning words that way was more long-lasting:

I will definitely use them because with this method everybody tries to guess the meaning of the words. Thus, the meaning is much more memorable and it is easy to learn this way. After learning these strategies, I have the will to read the English texts that I didn't use to read before. **(P16- low attitude)**

Another common point made by the students from both groups was about the effectiveness of these strategies in the exams. Two students from the low attitude group underlined the usefulness of these strategies in the exams:

I will certainly use them. Even if you can't figure out the exact meaning of the words, it is advantageous in the exams even to be able to understand just whether it is a noun, a verb, or an adjective. **(P7- low attitude)**

Moving from this response, it can be interpreted that the effectiveness of these strategies in the exams encouraged the students to use the strategies in the future. P12 from the high attitude group put forward the same reason, but also complained about the time constraint while using them in the exams:

I definitely think that they are useful. I think they help me with the texts in the exams, as well, but because of the time constraint, I can't use them in the exams. **(P12- high attitude)**

As the abovementioned responses suggest, not being dependent on a dictionary, the long term effect of the inferred words and the usefulness of these strategies in the exams are the three reasons that both the high and low attitude students agree on for finding the contextual inferencing strategies helpful. Apart from these, there is one more reason that was set forth by the high attitude interviewees. While one of the high attitude students did not state any reasons for finding the strategies effective, three other high attitude participants reported that they liked these strategies because the comprehension of English texts was easier owing to them:

After learning these strategies, we can guess the meaning of the unknown words in texts and this is really effective for understanding the texts. Even if we can't find the exact meaning all the time, we come up with similar meanings, and this reduces the possibility of not comprehending the texts. I believe that I will use them in the future. **(P13- high attitude)**

As this response reflects, from these students' point of view, the fact that guessing unknown words from context aids text comprehension is a good reason for using these strategies in the future.

Based on the students' answers to the second question, it can be interpreted that although they stated different point of views, the students from both groups are happy to learn these strategies because they found these techniques quite effective, and so they plan to use them in their future readings.

As the low attitude students had stated in the pre-questionnaire that they were afraid of encountering unknown words in English reading texts, they were asked a question about how they felt about the unknown words in English texts after the strategy training. Their answers revealed that all but one of the interviewees' fears were alleviated after they received instruction in contextual inferencing strategies. They mentioned the disappearance of their prejudice against, fears, or unwillingness about reading texts with unknown words:

Yes, constantly looking up the unknown words in a dictionary while reading was putting me off reading. As the number of the words I don't know increased, I started not to read the texts. But now, I don't have any prejudice against the reading texts, I even find them enjoyable. Unknown words don't worry me. I think that I can deal with them. **(P15- low attitude)**

At least you are not afraid of the unknown words. When you see that the strategies work, you think that you can try and understand the text. I mean my ideas have changed greatly. I'm not worried about the unknown words as much as I was before. **(P7- low attitude)**

Yes, my feelings have changed. Previously, I didn't use to even want to read the texts. I used to think that it was a waste of time to spend my time on the

texts that I wouldn't understand. But after these methods, I started to feel more positively about English texts. I started to think that there might be some words that I know and I can understand. In the past, I used to try to check them in a dictionary directly. I still have worries, but much less when compared to the past. **(P16- low attitude)**

P18, however, reported that there was not much change in his/her feelings, but still he/she mentioned some effects of the training:

Even though there are not big changes, I have a bit more self-confidence. After learning the strategies, the fear of not understanding the texts decreased. **(P18- low attitude)**

It is obvious from the quotes that the strategy training helped most of the low attitude participants change their opinions about the unknown words in reading texts and their knowledge of the strategies helped them overcome their worries about the possibility of encountering unknown words in English texts respectively when compared to the past.

The next question addressed to the students from both groups was about whether and how the strategy training changed their attitudes towards reading in English. Similar to the previous questions, the interviewees generally reported positive changes in their attitudes. The following are the responses given by the high attitude students:

The strategy training definitely changed my thoughts about reading in English greatly. Previously, while I was reading an English text, I used to come across unknown words and dislike reading. After I received this strategy training, I infer the meaning of unknown words by applying these strategies when I encounter words that I don't know and that way, that word makes a permanent effect in my mind. Therefore, I believe that I improve myself. **(P10- high attitude)**

There was another pattern emerging in the high attitude participants' answers to this question. Six students highlighted the advantage of not being dependent on a dictionary while reading:

These strategies changed my attitudes positively to a great extent. Formerly, the unknown words used to make me frightened. To be honest, looking them up in a dictionary frequently used to bother me; I didn't use to like it. In fact, I don't usually have my dictionary with me, so I didn't use to read most of the time. Now, I read… **(P9- high attitude)**

It can be inferred from the quote above and five similar responses that the students were in need of ways to deal with unknown words, and they were used to dictionaries although they did not like them much. Thus, it appears that being able to deal with unknown words without depending on any external sources make them feel happy and more positive about reading.

However, one of the students who was also among the pre-interviewees did not state any positive changes in his attitudes:

Neither negatively, nor positively. It didn't change things much for me. **(P1- high attitude)**

In line with most of the high attitude participants' answers, the responses given by most of the low attitude students showed that their attitudes to reading in general also altered positively:

Previously, when the teacher told us to read a passage, I didn't use to read, or when unknown words started to appear, I used to pretend to read. Now, I read the passages and even if I don't know, I try to understand by making guesses. I feel that my attitudes have changed positively. **(P15- low attitude)**

However, P18 did not think that the strategy training had an effect on his/her attitudes:

I don't think that my attitudes changed much because these strategies don't work in most of the reading texts. **(P18- low attitude)**

When the students' answers to this last question are considered all together, it can be said that even if they used to have low or high attitudes to reading before the strategy training, on the whole, most of them experienced some positive changes after learning about the contextual inferencing strategies.

The next question was again the same for both groups and aimed to learn whether the strategy training motivated them to read more in English. A majority of the interviewees from both groups reported that they felt more motivated after they received strategy instruction. All but one of the high attitude students indicated that they were more motivated to read after learning about contextual inferencing strategies:

Previously, I was not able to finish reading the texts in the time that our teachers allotted because I was not able to concentrate because of using the dictionary all the time, and so I was not able to understand the text. Also, because of this, I couldn't finish on time. I was getting bored with the reading sections because of these reasons. By using these strategies, I don't get bored, and I can both understand the text and learn new words. **(P12- high attitude)**

It motivated me to read more. When the meanings of words I try to guess without using a dictionary turn out to be correct, it increases my curiosity and make me put more effort for learning. And it makes reading more enjoyable…Learning in an enjoyable way is long lasting, I think. **(P13- high attitude)**

P1, however, did not agree with the rest of the interviewees:

They didn't motivate me to read more. I hope I will use them when I learn English better. **(P1- high attitude)**

As these quotes also suggest, most of the participants seem to have become motivated to read more English texts as they do not get bored easily and the use of the strategies makes the reading process more enjoyable. Thus, it appears that the strategy training did have a positive effect on the high attitude students' willingness to read.

The situation was not different for the low attitude students as they reported that the strategies motivated them to read more:

> *They motivated me more. Sometimes, there are words I can't figure out, but it will improve in time. The more we use them, the better it will be.* **(P5- low attitude)**

It seems obvious from the responses that the low attitude participants also felt more motivated after they knew what to do about the unknown words, which suggests that the strategy instruction contributed to the students' motivation to read.

Finally, since the low attitude students' pre-questionnaire results had shown that they did not like reading much, they were asked whether they thought they liked reading in English more since they learned these strategies. Similar to the previous questions, all the students except one reported a positive change as an answer to this question:

> *Yes, I think I like reading in English more than I did in the past because now I enjoy reading and I use the dictionary less while reading.* **(P17- low attitude)**

P17's statement reflects a majority of the interviewees' ideas. On the other hand, P18 did not agree with the rest:

> *I like reading in English just the same as I liked it in the past. I feel the same, but of course this may be because I don't like reading much.* **(P18- low attitude)**

Based on the analysis of the post-interviews, it is possible to say that a majority of the students from both groups benefited from the explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies. Although the high attitude students already had relatively more positive attitudes towards reading in English before the treatment, the explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies still seems to have had a positive effect on their attitudes towards reading. Likewise, a great majority of the

low attitude students, who used to view unknown words in reading texts as the main reasons behind their negative feelings about reading in English before the strategy training, seem to have been positively affected by the strategy instruction when their answers to the questions are taken into consideration.

Interviews with the participant instructors

In order to learn more about the process of strategy training and the students' reaction to the training, the teachers, who each gave the strategy instruction to one of their classes, were asked questions about their observations during the process. They were asked five questions and their first question was about the students' reactions to the training in general. Based on their responses, it was revealed that the students' reactions were almost similar in both experimental groups:

> *Most of the students were very enthusiastic to participate in the strategy training activities because they were all aware of the problems they have in reading, which is related to unknown words in reading texts. During this process, they all agreed that the strategies are very useful. Especially the students who like learning deductively – and this means most of the students - did not have any difficulties in learning these strategies as we taught them explicitly, and they quite liked them. But of course there were some students who were not interested in the activities.* **(T1)**

As can be understood from the excerpt above, the teachers' observations suggest that most of the students liked the strategy training activities and were interested in them. However, there were some students who did not pay much attention to the training, but according to what the teachers say, the number of these students were not many.

The second question addressed to the instructors aimed to learn whether the instructors had any difficulties through the strategy training process. While they were answering this question, both teachers underlined the time problem:

Actually, I did not have any problems about the students, but the time constraint and the intensive instruction content caused some problems. I also had to follow the formal curriculum of the institution together with the strategy instruction and after some time, I observed that the students sometimes got bored because of this and lost their interest. If we had had more time to spend on the strategy instruction, it would have been even better. **(T2)**

It seems clear from the responses that the limited time spared for the strategy training caused some problems in terms of the effectiveness or the quality of the instruction. The fact that the teachers also had to keep up with the regular course content appears to be another barrier to the effectiveness of the strategy training, resulting in loss of the students' interest.

The instructors' answers to the third question about whether the students found these strategies useful seemed to confirm what the participants themselves reported in the interviews:

Yes, they all found the strategies useful, but for some students, it was much more effective than I expected. One of my students, for example, used to hold back to participate in the activities, but after this strategy training, s/he wanted to participate in every activity…I think they found these strategies helpful because the things that kept them away from reading in English were the unknown words and the necessity to use a dictionary while reading. After learning the strategies, they felt that they were not dependent on the dictionaries. **(T2)**

It is clear that the teachers of both experimental groups observed that their students found contextual inferencing strategies useful because they perceived these strategies as a solution to their problems about unknown words in reading English texts.

The next question aimed to find out whether the students could use the strategies when they encounter unknown words while reading. The teachers observed that the participants could not use the strategies very well yet, but at least they tried

to use them. The instructor who was teaching the first experimental group set forth

some reasons in her response:

> *They try to use the strategies, sometimes they make successful guesses, but sometimes they don't. The problem is that the students are used to traditional ways of learning like memorizing, doing exactly what the teacher says without making any inferences, so they have difficulties in using the strategies properly on their own. Usually, we had to guide them to guess the word meanings. But as I said before, it would be strange to expect the strategies to perform miracles in such a short time. The students need more time to get used to applying these strategies on their own. As a teacher, I believe that this strategy training can be much more effective in the long run. If the training process had been longer, the students' ability to use these strategies would have improved more considerably. I think the biggest problem with these kinds of activities is the time constraint.* **(T1)**

As can be inferred from the excerpt, the participant instructor thinks that the

students' accustomed way of learning and the limited time are the two main reasons

behind the difficulties that the students have in using the strategies efficiently

without the teacher's guidance.

Finally, the teachers were asked whether they observed any differences in

their students' attitudes towards reading in English, but the instructors did not seem

to have the same experience as their students. While the teacher of the first

experimental group did not report an obvious change in the students' attitudes, the

teacher who instructed the second experimental group seemed to observe more

differences between the students' attitudes before and after the strategy training:

> *To be honest, after the strategy training, we didn't have much time to observe important attitude changes towards reading because after the strategy training, there weren't enough reading activities to find out if the students' attitudes have changed or not. However, I strongly believe that in a longer period of time, strategy training is likely to change the students' attitudes in a positive way. Yes, they liked the strategies and they used them but I think changing attitudes is not something that takes such a short time. I mean, although I did not see a sharp change in the students' attitudes, I definitely believe that the training will be much more effective in the long run. Also,*

after the training I realized that the students were trying to use the strategies without my instruction to do so, which is an important step, I think… **(T1)**

The thing that the students don't like doing is usually the reading sections. Even before they start reading, they are prejudiced against the possibility that there will be words they don't know. Some students do not even attempt to read, and some got bored and stop reading. But after this strategy training, at least the students' prejudice disappeared to a great extent. When they realized that they can guess the meaning of unknown words, not all of them though, by using their dictionaries less, they didn't get bored with reading so much. They are interested in the texts more than they were before, and they have started to answer the questions more easily. As they can do these, they have started to develop more self-confidence, but of course it is not possible to say that this is true for all of the students. **(T2)**

Based on the teachers' responses, it is possible to suggest that the second instructor's impression is that the students in the second experimental group reacted more positively to the strategy instruction in a shorter period of time when compared to the first experimental group. Moving from the first instructor's response, it can be said that for the students in the first experimental group, there is a trend to develop positive attitudes towards reading in time, but she is a bit suspicious about creating the desired change in the students' attitudes to reading in such a short time.

To sum up, this section on the analyses of the interviews presented both the students' and teachers' opinions about the strategy training and most of the students' attitude changes before and after the treatment. The results of the qualitative analyses suggest that both learners and their teachers thought positively about the strategy instruction and on the whole, a majority of the participants experienced changes in their attitudes towards reading as they felt they had benefited from the strategy training.

When the analyses of the data to answer the third research question are taken into consideration, it is seen that the results of the quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis are in line with each other to a certain degree. Although the comparison of each condition group and the paired condition groups did not reveal any effects of the strategy training on the students' attitudes towards reading, the comparison of the low and high attitude students did show that explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies had an effect on students' attitudes towards reading in English by helping low attitude students develop more positive attitudes, and high attitude students maintain their positive attitudes. On the other hand, the results of the qualitative analyses indicated that the strategy training appeared to have had a positive effect on the participants' attitudes to reading regardless of their former low or high attitudes towards unknown words in English reading texts.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the data gained from the questionnaires and the interviews were analyzed and presented in three sections. In the first section, the analysis of the data from the "Attitudes towards Reading" questionnaire was presented to answer the first research question. In the second section, the analysis of the items in the *vocabulary in reading* category of the questionnaire were presented together with the analysis of the pre-interviews held with students from both the experimental and control groups in order to answer the second research question. The last section presented the analyses of the data from the pre- and post questionnaires by comparing them in terms of the condition groups and the students' low and high attitudes through paired and independent samples t-tests. The analyses of the post-

interviews took place in the same section in order to address the third research question.

The next chapter will present an overview of the study, the findings and discussions, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Overview of the Study

This experimental study explored the effect of explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies on pre-intermediate level EFL learners' attitudes towards reading in English. The study also investigated pre-intermediate level learners' attitudes to reading, and aimed to learn how their attitudes towards unknown words affect their attitudes to reading in English.

Eighty-two pre-intermediate level university students from four intact classes participated in the study and the data collection procedure was started by administering the "Attitudes towards Reading in English" questionnaire in order to be able to learn about their attitudes towards reading. Based on the results of the questionnaire, two students from each condition group, namely one low and one high attitude student, were asked for pre-interviews to gain a deeper understanding of how their attitudes to unknown words in reading texts affect their attitudes to reading. Subsequently, explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies was given by two instructors for three weeks. This training process included both instruction in context cues and practice with the strategies. After the training process, the students went on their regular courses, but they were reminded of the strategies through a checklist and a table that summarizes the context cues. After a two-week interval, the students were given the same questionnaire again. Additionally, sixteen students from the experimental groups, including the pre-interviewees, were interviewed again to get an understanding of the effects of the strategy training on their attitudes towards reading. Along with the students, the participant teachers were also

interviewed and asked about their observations about the strategy training and its effects on the students' attitudes.

The data were analyzed through both quantitative and qualitative techniques. First of all, the means of the students in the pre-questionnaire were calculated to find out their attitudes to reading in English. Then, the mean scores of the students for the *vocabulary in reading* category and their responses to the interview questions were analyzed. As for the post-training analyses, the students' means in the pre- and post-questionnaires were compared to see any possible differences in their attitudes to reading. Moreover, the matched control and experimental groups' means in the post-questionnaire were compared to see the effect of strategy training in experimental groups. The comparison of the means of the low and high attitude students was the last step taken for the analysis of the quantitative data. Finally, the students' answers to the post-interview questions and the teachers' responses to the interview questions were analyzed through qualitative analysis procedures.

This chapter will first discuss the results of the analyses by associating them with the relevant literature. Afterwards, the pedagogical implications and limitations of the study will be presented. Finally, in relation to the limitations of the study, suggestions for further research will be made.

Findings and Discussion

The findings that were presented in Chapter IV will be discussed in this section with regard to the research questions of the study.

What are pre-intermediate level EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English?

The analysis of the data gathered from the first administration of the "Attitudes towards Reading in English" questionnaire revealed that the pre-intermediate level learners at Zonguldak Karaelmas University had neutral attitudes towards reading in English. In other words, pre-intermediate students neither like reading in English, nor do they hate it. This may be related to the students' attitudes towards reading in Turkish since Coady (as cited in Hulstijn & Bossers, 1992) stated that poor reading in the second language may be because of the transfer of the students' poor reading habits in their first language. Similarly, Grabe and Stoller (2002) also argued that students bring with them basic attitudes to L2 reading, which are usually based on their L1 reading experiences. The students' perceptions of reading in their native language have an impact on their emotional responses to reading in a second or foreign language.

As far as the students' answers to the items classified under certain categories that were thought to form their reading attitudes are concerned, it can be said that their average scores varied for different categories. The results indicated that the students had the highest scores in the *importance of reading* category, revealing that being able to read in English is important for these learners. This may be because they think that reading is an important part of learning English, and it enables them to benefit from many English materials. This finding of the study seems to confirm

Grabe's (2009) idea that English, as a universal language, has influenced educational settings and thus, reading in English has gained importance. As for the *joy of reading* category, the results showed that the students were again neutral about this section. From this result, it can be concluded that the students do not have very strong feelings that reading in English is enjoyable. Likewise, they do not seem to be totally uninterested in or unhappy about reading in English. When it comes to the *self-efficacy* category, it was seen that the students' average score was below the neutral mark, which reveals that the students do not view themselves as very good readers of English. Koda (cited in Grabe, 2009) and Grabe (2009) argue that whatever the purpose of the reader is, he is expected to create a link between the information presented in the text and make sense of that information. In this respect, the students may not be able to fully comprehend English texts, and so do not feel very comfortable with reading in English.

Having relatively lower means, the *vocabulary in reading* category, which will be discussed in more detail in the next section about the second research question, revealed that the students feel negatively about the unknown words in English reading texts. That is to say, unfamiliar words in reading texts are a problem for the students, playing a role in their generally lower attitudes towards reading. This was similar to Hasbun's (2006) finding that students' major problem in reading was vocabulary. The final category to mention is the personal investment category. The items in this category aimed to measure how much effort the students put into their reading in and outside the classroom setting, and the results showed that this was the category with the lowest mean among the five categories. No matter which condition group they were in, the students had the lowest scores in the statements

about their personal investment in reading in English. This finding of the study lends support to Grabe's (2009) assertion that reading is usually taken for granted and readers generally do not put much effort in or make much planning about the reading process.

The students' low scores in the *personal investment* category can be associated with their low scores in the *self efficacy* category, in that the little effort they put into reading may result in a lack of belief in their capability and levels of performance in reading. Alternatively, another possibility may be that the situation is just the opposite: their lack of belief in their own capacity to perform well in reading in English may cause them to put less effort into the reading process. Another surprising point that came out of the results of the questionnaire was that the fact that the participants' highest scores in the *importance of reading* category seemed to contradict their lowest scores in the *personal investment* category. Normally, it would be expected that the students would put more effort into reading because they thought that it was an important skill.

To conclude, it is possible to say that the students generally attach importance to reading in English, but they do not think that reading in English is always enjoyable. Furthermore, their self-efficacy for reading in English can be said to be low and they feel negatively about unknown vocabulary words in reading texts. Additionally, they do not invest much effort into reading. As a result, all these aspects form their neutral attitudes towards reading in English when they are considered as a whole.

Smith (cited in Yamashita, 2004) describes L2 reading attitudes as " a state of mind, accompanied by feelings and attitudes that make reading more or less probable" (p.3). Bearing in mind that reading can be best improved by practicing (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), it can be argued that students' attitudes towards reading have an effect on their reading ability. Given these statements previously made in the literature, it is possible to say that the neutral attitudes of the participants in the present study may have a negative influence on their reading ability by resulting in a limited reading amount or engagement, because the less interested learners are in reading, the less engaged they are in reading tasks (Grabe, 2009). As can be inferred from what the abovementioned scholars say, the participants in the study would read more and become more skillful readers of English if they had more positive attitudes rather than neutral.

How do the students' attitudes to unknown vocabulary in English reading texts affect their attitude to reading in English in general?

Findings from the Quantitative Analysis

The second research question of the study aimed to learn how the students' attitudes to unknown words affect their reading attitudes in general. To this end, the students' responses to the items in the *vocabulary in reading* category of the questionnaire and to the interview questions were analyzed. The quantitative analyses of the nine items in this category revealed that the students' attitudes towards unknown words in reading texts affect their attitudes to reading in English in general in a negative way. Most of the students seemed to agree that they would like reading in English more if there were not unknown words in reading texts. It seems

clear that the novel vocabulary that the students encounter in English reading texts plays a major role in the students' feelings about reading in English. Similarly, the results suggest that the unknown words in reading texts make the students feel uncomfortable with reading texts, arousing a feeling of anxiety. Also, the students think that unknown words are the major reasons for their negative feelings about reading in English, from which it can be inferred that they would feel better about reading in English if it were not for the unknown words.

Apart from the evaluation of the items in the *vocabulary in reading* category, the significant correlation between the means for the vocabulary-related items and the overall questionnaire also suggested that these two were highly associated with each other. In other words, as the students' attitudes towards unknown words improve, their attitudes towards reading in English in general may also show a more positive pattern.

Findings from the Qualitative Analysis

The results of the analyses of the qualitative data also confirmed the findings of the quantitative analysis. The interviews were held with both the high and low attitude students. One of the findings that emerged from the interviews was that the students with higher attitudes were not affected by the unknown words in reading texts because they were willing to learn English. It seems clear from their answers that the students' eagerness to learn English helped them not to develop negative attitudes to reading. Based on their response, the high attitude students can be considered to have intrinsic motivation. This may be the reason why they do not want to give up reading and they make the effort to understand the text even if it

contains words they do not know, spending more time on the reading text. This finding of the present study, hence, echoes the findings of Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), which suggested that intrinsic motivation has a strong effect on the amount and breadth of reading. Moving from the situation described above, it can be said that the intrinsic motivation the high attitude students have helps them not be negatively affected by unknown words in reading texts. The low attitude students, on the other hand, reported that they were negatively affected by the unknown words in reading texts and they lost their enthusiasm and motivation to read when they encountered unknown words. They felt nervous even before they started reading, as they knew that there would be words they did not know.

Another finding about the low attitude students was that they spent less time on reading as they felt disheartened as a result of the unknown words. These students also thought that they would read more if they did not have the vocabulary problem in reading. This finding also adds support to the earlier conclusion drawn by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) that children's motivation predicts their reading amount. Although the participants in the present study are college students, rather than children, the reduction in the time they spend on reading can be related to the problems they have with the unknown words in reading texts. This finding also confirms the point made by Alexander and Filler (cited in Yamashita, 2004), Smith (cited in Yamashita, 2004), and Lazarus and Callahan (2000), that students' attitudes cause them to approach or avoid a reading situation and thus, determine the time spent on reading. Moving from these, as the students report that they feel anxious while reading texts with unknown words and lose their enthusiasm and motivation to

read, it can be assumed that the students' reading amount in or outside the class would increase if they could overcome this problem in some way.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from the students' responses to the interview questions was about the methods that the students use when they encounter an unknown word in a reading text. It was found that three out of the four high attitude students already made use of context to deal with unknown words and one used a dictionary or asked his/her teachers, whereas those with low attitudes either consulted a dictionary or skipped the unknown word. The students who already made use of context to deal with unknown words appear to have strategic knowledge according to Nagy's (1997) categorization of knowledge types, since they are aware that they encounter unknown words and make purposeful attempts to guess their meanings. However, with regard to the number of the students who reported that they used context, there seems to be a different picture in this study from the picture portrayed in the study by Kanatlar and Peker (2009). While the Kanatlar and Peker study suggested based on the think aloud protocols that L2 students can and do use context, only some of the students in the present study reported that they used context to guess word meanings. The reason for this might be attributed to the participants' low scores in the *personal investment* category of the questionnaire in the present study. It is obvious from their scores in this category that they do not put effort in reading, but using context to guess word meanings requires some purposeful effort. Another reason for this discrepancy might stem from the different methodologies of the studies. The current study relied on student self-reports, while Kanatlar and Peker's study used think-aloud protocols. What students actually do and what they say they do may produce different results.

These actions that the students take in case of an unknown word reflect the five possible actions taken by students described in Walters (2006a): ignoring the word, looking it up in a dictionary, using their knowledge of word parts, consulting someone and guessing the meaning from context. It seems that the participants adopted four of these methods; however, not all of them appear to be equally helpful with regard to overcoming the vocabulary problem. It is evident that using context to understand the meaning of an unknown word is quite helpful as it appears to aid students in overcoming the vocabulary problem. Even if the students may not be able to come up with exact word meanings, they can at least get a general idea of the sentences they appear in. However, ignoring unknown words, which is reported to be used by the low attitude participants, does not seem to be a very useful method to cope with unknown words since it does not help students to get over the negative effects of encountering unknown words. The reason may be that ignoring unknown words does not add anything in terms of comprehending the text. As a matter of fact, skipping unknown words might sometimes make text comprehension even more difficult if those words are essential to the overall message of the text. Another way that was put forward by one of the high attitude participants was consulting the teacher. Although this method seems to work for this student to deal with unknown words, it may not be very effective in the long run since it might not be possible all the time to find someone around to consult. The method which turned out to be used by both low and high attitude students was consulting a dictionary. Although dictionary use is supported by language teachers, it may sometimes pose problems for students, as was mentioned by one of the low attitude students. The student (P6) talked about his/her concerns about using a dictionary to find the word meanings,

drawing attention to polysemous words. It is apparent from this statement that dictionary use while reading may not always be a highly effective method to deal with unknown words. Similarly, Clarke and Nation (1980) argued that figuring out the exact meaning of a word by looking it up in a dictionary could be a problem since dictionaries usually present more than one meaning of a word. They suggest that learners get an idea about the word with the help of the context to make the best use of their dictionaries while reading, underscoring the importance of the use of context.

The fact that the low attitude students make a connection between unknown words in reading texts and their success in reading is another conclusion that can be drawn from the interviews. This is in line with what many scholars have stated about the vocabulary and reading relationship: vocabulary knowledge is the main predictor of successful reading (Baldo, 2010; Nagy, 1988; Nassaji, 2006; Schmitt, 2004). The effect of unknown words on the students' reading success in this study can be explained by their earlier statements about ignoring unknown words, getting bored with the text, losing their desire to read in English and in return, spending less time reading. It is obvious that when the students encounter an unknown word in a text, but cannot figure out its meaning, they get bored, lose their enthusiasm and devote less time to reading in English. Since reading is a skill that can be best improved by practicing (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), the amount of reading is very important to be a successful reader.

The final finding of the pre-interviews which deserves mention emerged from the students' responses to the last question they were asked. Based on what both the high and low attitude students said, it is possible to draw the conclusion that the methods that the students adopt to overcome the vocabulary problem in reading

influence their attitudes to reading. Bearing in mind the high attitude students' ways of dealing with unknown words, using context can be said to have a positive effect, and ignoring unknown words can be considered to have a negative effect on students' attitudes. Using a dictionary, however, seems to be helpful for some learners, enabling them to overcome the vocabulary problem in reading, whereas it does not offer much help for some others. This finding is also supported with the low attitude participants' reactions to a possible technique to help them with unknown words while reading in English. Their need for such a strategy was apparent from their statements suggesting that their attitudes would change if they were taught efficient methods.

All in all, when all these findings are taken into consideration, it is evident that the students' attitudes towards unknown words in English texts affect their reading attitudes. Students who view unknown words as a barrier are negatively affected by this problem and develop negative attitudes to reading in English in general. On the other hand, students who think that unknown words are not so difficult to handle show more positive attitudes. This answer to the second research question adds support to Grabe's (2009) assertion that vocabulary knowledge contributes a lot to reading comprehension, so lack of vocabulary knowledge is a serious problem for L2 readers.

Does explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing affect learners' attitudes towards reading?

Findings from the Quantitative Analysis

After it was revealed that unknown words in reading texts can be a problem for learners, resulting in negative attitudes towards reading, the next question was whether contextual inferencing strategies, which are thought to help learners to compensate for their insufficient vocabulary knowledge (Parel, 2004), would have an effect on students' negative attitudes to reading in English. In order to explore this, upon completing a questionnaire to show their existing attitudes to reading, the experimental group students received a three-week strategy training. After a further two-week interval, they were given the same questionnaire and were interviewed. Each group's pre and post-questionnaires, the control and experimental groups, and the low and high attitude participants were compared to explore any possible changes in their attitudes.

First, the comparison of the pre- and post-questionnaire results of the first experimental group indicates that there are no significant differences in their overall or categorical means between the pre- and post-questionnaires. Based on this, it can be concluded that strategy instruction did not have an effect on their attitudes to reading. Secondly, the same comparison was made for the control II group, and it was revealed that these students' attitudes to reading did not show a significant change; however, their mean score in the joy of reading category of the post-questionnaire appeared to decrease slightly. The reason may be that the students in the experimental group were taught the strategies and were busy with applying them

during the treatment period, as well as their regular courses. On the other hand, for the students in the control group, the reading courses were not so different and because of this they may have felt that reading in English was not as enjoyable as it had been before. Finally, when these two groups were compared to each other in terms of their post-training attitudes, it was again seen that there was not a significant difference between them. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies did not have an effect on the reading attitudes of the students in the experimental I group. However, based on the decrease in the control II group participants, it can be inferred that strategy training enabled the students in the experimental I group to at least maintain their attitudes to reading.

Similarly, the experimental II group in the second pair of condition groups did not show any significant changes in their attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire. There also were no significant changes in any of the categories when their categorical means are taken into account. As for the control I group, no significant difference was found in their overall attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire, but a significant decrease was found in the importance of reading category. Also, their means for the joy of reading category could be said to be trending towards a decrease. The differences between the control I group's means in these categories suggest that these participants, similar to those in the control II group, got bored with reading courses, or did not find any solutions to their problems about unknown words in texts and thus, a decrease in the level of joy they experience while reading occurred, and they started to think that being able to read in English was not so important. As the last step, the post-training attitudes of these two groups were compared and it was found that the experimental II group's means were

significantly higher in the post-questionnaire than the control I group's means. However, this finding did not give sufficient evidence that this difference was because of the strategy training. There were two reasons for this conclusion. First, the difference between these two groups was already approaching significance before the experimental II group was trained in contextual inferencing strategies, and second, no significant difference was found in the attitudes of the experimental II group participants from the pre- to post-questionnaire. Therefore, it is not possible to claim that the difference between the experimental II and control I groups was due to the strategy training. However, it may be possible to argue that the significant difference stemmed from the decrease in the control I group students' attitudes. Moving from this, it might be concluded that, similar to what was seen in the other experimental group, explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies was effective in terms of maintaining the students' existing attitudes. The reason for this might be that the students at preparatory schools usually get bored with what they do in courses through the learning process and reading courses also become monotonous for learners after some time. The training they received in contextual inferencing strategies may have helped the students in the experimental groups not to get bored by keeping them busy with reading and attempting to infer words meanings at the same time. However, for the students in the control groups, there was nothing new in reading courses.

In order to further explore the effects of training in contextual inferencing strategies on students' attitudes to reading, one more step was taken, to compare the low and high attitude students in the experimental and control groups. The comparison of the means of the low attitude experimental group participants on the

two questionnaires indicated that the students who had lower attitudes to reading before receiving strategy training demonstrated significantly higher attitudes after they were trained in contextual inferencing strategies. On the other hand, the low attitude students in the control groups did not show any significant differences in their attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire. When it comes to the comparison of the high attitude students, it was seen that there was no significant difference in the attitudes of the high attitude participants in the experimental groups, while there was a significant decrease in the means of the high attitude participants in the control groups. Therefore, the explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies did have a positive effect on the low attitude students' attitudes towards reading in English. Furthermore, although the strategy instruction did not facilitate any higher attitudes for the high attitude students, it appeared to enable them to maintain their existing positive attitudes towards reading.

Bearing these in mind together with the findings discussed under the second research question, it can be argued that training in contextual inferencing strategies helped the low attitude students overcome their problems about encountering unknown words in reading texts by presenting them with ways to deal with unfamiliar words, in addition to giving them the chance to practice and apply the strategies. Confirming what the low attitude students said in the pre-interviews, when they were equipped with these strategies, the students' fears and worries faded away, and thus, they developed more positive attitudes to reading in English. The finding was similar to Hasbun's (2006) conclusion which suggested that vocabulary was still a problem in reading after the students took a reading course with direct vocabulary instruction, but the percentage of the students reporting this dropped from 100% to

80%. Similarly, vocabulary may still be a problem for the students in the current study, but it seems to be better after the strategy training. Moreover, the conclusion that the students who already had higher attitudes also benefited from the training can be drawn, considering their maintained level of attitudes. This is also supported with the decrease in the attitudes of the high attitude students in the control groups, which suggests that within the treatment time, the high attitude students in the control groups lost their positive attitudes towards reading in English. The conclusion that the low attitude students were more responsive to the training is quite plausible as they were much more in need of ways to overcome the vocabulary problem in reading. This finding of the study is in line with Kern's (1989) conclusions that strategy training was more effective with students who had the greatest difficulty in reading.

The conclusion of Kaniuka's (2010) study about the influence of effective reading instruction on developing positive attitudes towards reading is also in line with the findings of the present study, in that they both revealed that when students are provided with effective reading instruction in terms of meeting their needs, it is possible to improve their attitudes towards reading. In this case, the explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies may have met the students' needs for dealing with unknown words in reading texts and thus, it may have made the reading instruction effective from the students' point of views.

The reason that the experimental groups did not reveal any significant changes in their attitudes from the pre- to post-questionnaire can be interpreted more easily after the low and high attitude students were compared. This may be based on

the fact that the experimental groups consisted of a combination of low and high attitude students; therefore, there was a balanced overall mean score.

Findings from the Qualitative Analysis

Interviews with the Students

The students' responses to the post-interviews were consistent with the findings from the quantitative analyses to a great extent. The high and low attitude students were interviewed and the first conclusion that can be drawn was that both the low and high attitude students were happy with the strategy training. Although there was a student from the low attitude group who was rather neutral, none of the students reacted negatively to the strategy instruction. All of the participants from both groups stated that the strategies were useful and they would use them in the future, but justified their ideas with different reasons. One of the patterns that emerged was that the students from both groups reported that the strategies were useful because they did not have to use a dictionary while reading. It seems that students with either high or low attitudes did not actually like being dependent on a dictionary while reading. This can be attributed to Clarke and Nation's (1980)) statement that with the help of contextual inferencing strategies, learners do not spend too much time on dictionary use while reading, and thus, they are not interrupted. Another thing that was mentioned by both groups was about learning vocabulary rather than reading. The students thought that the inferred words were more long lasting. The reason may be that the students make an effort to figure out the word meaning and think about it, so it becomes easier to remember that word later on. This reasoning is consistent with what Hulstijn (1992) found in his study

which aimed to look into the retention of inferred and given word meanings. To this end, he conducted five experiments in which meaning-to-be-inferred and meaning-given procedures were compared. It was concluded that if L2 learners read a text with the aim of comprehending it, rather than acquiring words, they were more likely to remember the form and meanings of the words they inferred from context than the meanings of the words whose meanings are given to them. Similar to what was suggested above, Hulstijn's conclusion was based on the assumption that learners make more mental effort to infer word meanings and information that is gained with more mental effort can be retrieved more easily than that gained with less effort. In this respect, the students' perceptions of the benefits of guessing from context are supported by Hulstijn's study. Walters (2006b) was another researcher who concluded that training students in the use of context to guess unknown words positively affected both receptive and productive vocabulary development. In addition, the students from both groups also considered the effectiveness of these strategies in the exams as a reason to find contextual inferencing strategies useful.

Apart from these, the students from the high attitude group stated that they thought the strategies were useful because they made text comprehension easier. Given their responses to the pre-interview questions, these students did not give up reading when an unknown word appeared. Instead, they tried to use context to guess the word meaning most of the time. Thus, their belief that comprehending texts is easier after these strategies may be due to their increased mastery of the use of the context with the help of the instruction and practice opportunities, and it may have become easier for them to infer word meanings. In this respect, they may have concentrated more on the texts and understood them more easily. It should also be

noted that this was the only reason that was not mentioned by the low attitude students. This can be explained by the low attitude students' primary concerns about the vocabulary problem in reading. Since this is a new method for them to deal with unknown words, they may have focused more on inferring word meanings rather than understanding the text as a whole.

The fact that most of the low attitude students' fears lessened and they were not prejudiced against unknown words as they had been before the strategy training is an important result of the strategy training, and it also appears to have led the low attitude students to think more positively of reading in English, because they stated that their attitudes changed positively after they learned these strategies. Likewise, although the participants in the high attitude group already showed higher attitudes, they also reported a positive change in their attitudes. A majority of these students set forth not being dependent on a dictionary as the reason behind the positive change in their attitudes. It can be concluded that although these students used dictionaries to deal with unknown words while reading, they did not like it. Thus, it seems that they found contextual inferencing strategies more effective to cope with unknown words while reading than dictionaries. In line with this, except for one student from the high attitude group, all the students stated that they were motivated to read more after learning these strategies. The data confirm Merisuo-Storm's (2007) argument that negative attitudes can decrease learners' motivation, and positive attitudes can do just the opposite. As the students reported that their attitudes became more positive, it is possible to say that this change in their attitudes positively affected their motivation to read. Additionally, the last question that was asked of the low attitude

students revealed that all but one of these students liked reading in English more after the strategy training.

To conclude, both the quantitative and qualitative analyses suggest that explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies had a positive influence on low attitude students' attitudes towards reading in English. Although the quantitative analyses did not reveal any significant changes in the high attitude students' attitudes following the strategy training, the analyses of the qualitative data suggested that a majority of the students were affected positively by the strategy training, regardless of their earlier attitudes.

Interviews with the Teachers

The participant teachers' observations during the strategy training were also important in order to be able to learn more about the effectiveness of the strategy training. During the interviews, it was found that the teachers of both experimental groups observed that most of their students were enthusiastic about learning these strategies as they were aware of their problem in reading. However, both teachers stated that there were some students who were not very interested. These students may be the ones who already had higher attitudes to reading and they may have thought that they did not need to learn these strategies.

When the teachers were asked if they had any difficulties, the point that both teachers made seemed to be very important. They both highlighted the time constraint as the major difficulty. As the strategy instruction was integrated into the regular course content, the teacher had to follow the formal curriculum at the same time. Thus, as they reported, they had difficulties in keeping up with the intensive

strategy training content and regular course content at the same time. They both agreed that over a longer time period, the quality of the instruction would have been much better.

As to their students' ideas about the usefulness of the strategies, the teachers' responses confirmed what the students themselves had said. They said that all the students found these strategies useful, but some of them found them much more useful than the others. The teachers mentioned that the problems that kept the students away from reading were encountering unknown words and checking them in their dictionaries, so these strategies were helpful for them as they were not dependent on their dictionaries while reading. However, it does not mean that the students could use the strategies very efficiently. The teachers said that the students needed the teacher's guidance to be able to infer word meanings, but they thought that this is quite expected as the students are accustomed to the traditional methods of learning: doing nothing on their own unless a teacher guides them. At this point, the teachers again put emphasis on the time problem, saying that the students need more time to be able to apply these strategies, but they still said that the students tried to use them on their own as a step taken towards improving them.

Regarding the students' attitudes after the strategy instruction, the two teachers seemed to have observed different cases. While the instructor of the first experimental group said that there was not enough time to observe a change in attitudes, but it was likely that the training would change the students' attitudes positively in time, the teacher of the second experimental group appeared to have observed some changes in her students' attitudes. She said that the students' prejudice against reading disappeared and they became more interested in reading in

English. When the teachers' responses to the interview questions are taken into consideration, it is possible to see the positive effects of strategy instruction again.

All in all, the results of the present study lend support to Haastrup's (1991) argument that contextual inferencing strategies are essential to repair the negative effects of the students' lack of vocabulary knowledge. It is clear that the participants who experienced problems with unknown words in reading texts used these strategies to compensate for their limited vocabulary knowledge and thus, repaired its negative effects. If it had not been for the strategy training, the situation would go on just as Nation (2008) describes it: the result is an important decrease in contextual focus, and frustration when learners have problems because of unknown words in a text. It is possible that explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies has reversed the situation.

<div align="center">Pedagogical Implications</div>

Although it is difficult to generalize the findings of the present study due to the limited number of participants, it is still possible to draw some pedagogical implications.

The first implication is about the need for strategy training in language classrooms. As it is evident from the conclusions of the present study, it is not possible to deny the effectiveness of strategy instruction. It is also confirmed by the earlier studies in the literature that training in contextual inferencing strategies is effective (Kern, 1989; Walters, 2006a-b) and it is worth the time spent in the classroom. As revealed by both the questionnaire results and the students' responses to the interview questions, unknown words in reading texts are apparently a problem

for students; however, it is impossible to learn all the vocabulary through direct instruction in order to be able to cope with this vocabulary problem in reading (Nagy, 1988; Schulz, 1983; Sternberg as cited in Walters, 2004). Thus, in order to make the reading instruction more effective and prevent our students from developing negative attitudes towards reading because of the vocabulary problem, it should be teachers' task to take the time to teach contextual inferencing strategies to language learners in a well-planned way. As has been recognized recently, cognitive factors are not sufficient on their own to explain students' L2 reading behaviors (Lau, 2009); therefore the role of affective factors in L2 reading development should also be the concern of language teachers and educators (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

A further remark about this implication would be about the timing of the strategy instruction. Due to the time line of the present study, the strategy training was initiated in the second term of the academic year. However, strategy instruction should come earlier in the language learning process. It is important to note that one of the participants made a good point during the post-interviews by drawing attention to the timing of the instruction:

> *Every time we learned about these strategies, I felt that I went one step further. I think these strategies should be taught at the beginning of the year, and so you can help the students who don't like English or who are prejudiced against English to like it a bit more. I believe that these strategies will promote students' success.* **(P16)**

It is clear that the students are also aware that they need strategy training and that it may be more beneficial if learned earlier.

Limitations of the Study

The study is limited to 82 students studying at Zonguldak Karaelmas University, making it difficult to generalize the conclusions from these participants to all pre-intermediate level EFL learners. With a larger number of participants from various institutions, the results would have been more reliable and generalizable.

Another major limitation of the study is the time constraint. The students were trained in contextual inferencing strategies only for three weeks, including both the instruction of the context cues and practice with the strategies. Since the strategy instruction was integrated into the formal curriculum of the institution, it was even more difficult to conduct the training. Because of the time problem, the instructors tried to cover as many training materials as possible in three weeks' time and this may have caused a feeling of boredom and tiredness in the students. If there had been more time spared for the strategy training, the quality of the instruction would have been much better.

Another negative effect of the time constraint was on the interval between the end of the strategy training and the administration of the post-questionnaire and interviews. The post-questionnaire and interviews were conducted only two weeks after the training ended up. In order to be able to observe the possible changes in the students' attitudes towards reading, a longer interval could have been better so that the students could have applied the strategies in their regular reading courses and had more experience with the use of contextual inferencing strategies.

The fact that this was the participant teachers' first experience in giving instruction in contextual inferencing strategies was also a limitation of the study. Although their efforts and help were invaluable to the study, it was a limitation that they had not taught these strategies before.

Suggestions for Further Research

Bearing in mind the limitations of the study, it is possible to make some suggestions for further research. Firstly, since the study was conducted with a limited number of participants, another study could be carried out with a larger number of participants. Secondly, the findings of the present study are limited to the students at Zonguldak Karaelmas University, so further research could be done in another setting.

Given the time duration of the current study, the effect of contextual inferencing strategies could be explored over a longer period of time. Furthermore, the present study examined the effect of contextual inferencing strategies on only pre-intermediate level students' attitudes towards reading; therefore, another study could deal with students from different proficiency levels.

The present study investigated the effect of explicit instruction in contextual inferencing strategies on students' attitudes to reading. Further research could look at the effectiveness of strategy training on students' use of or success in using contextual inferencing strategies, as well as the effect of strategy training on students' reading achievement. Finally, a similar study can be carried out in order to explore the relationship between other learning strategies and learner attitudes.

Conclusion

This study investigated the pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL learners'
attitudes towards reading in English, the effect of their attitudes towards unknown
words in reading texts on their attitudes towards reading in English in general and the
effect of explicit strategy instruction in contextual inferencing strategies on pre-
intermediate level EFL students' attitudes towards reading in English. The findings
revealed that the students' negative attitudes to unknown words in reading texts
influence their reading attitudes negatively, but explicit instruction in contextual
inferencing strategies seems to have repaired the negative effects of unknown words
in reading texts and affected low attitude students' attitudes towards reading in a
positive way, while helping the high attitude students maintain their positive
attitudes. Furthermore, the current study has contributed to the literature by looking
at the relationship between contextual inferencing strategies and students' attitudes to
reading, which has not been subjected to much research before.

It is hoped that the findings and the pedagogical implications discussed in this
chapter will help language teachers and researchers gain insight into the effectiveness
of training in contextual inferencing strategies.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH)

İNGİLİZCE OKUMAYA YÖNELİK TUTUMLAR ANKETİ

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu anketin amacı İngilizce okuma yapmaya yönelik tutumlarınızla ilgili bilgi toplamaktır. Anketten elde edilen bilgiler Bilkent Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği yüksek lisans programı çerçevesinde yürütülmekte olan bir yüksek lisans tezinde kullanılacaktır. Bu ankete dair doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Bu nedenle, anketi doldururken lütfen ne olması gerektiği hakkındaki düşüncenizi, ya da neler söylemek istediğinizi DEĞİL, İngilizce okuma yapma hakkında gerçekten ne hissettiğinizi belirtiniz ve lütfen her bir cümle için fikrinizi ya da duygularınızı belirtiniz. Cevaplarınız gizli tutulacaktır ve bu çalışma için son derece önemlidir; bu nedenle lütfen içtenlikle cevaplayınız. Lütfen İngilizce okuma hakkındaki fikir ya da düşüncenizi en iyi belirten ifadeye √ işareti koyunuz.

Bu çalışma ve sonuçları hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek isterseniz araştırmacı ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Bilgilendirilmiş Onay: Bu anketi gönüllü olarak cevapladığımın ve cevaplarımın ve onların sağladığı bilgilerin bir yüksek lisans tezinde isimsiz olarak kullanılabileceğinin farkındayım. Bu anketi cevaplayarak cevaplarımın bu şekilde kullanılmasına izin vermiş olduğumun farkındayım.

Ad-Soyadı: _____   Tarih: _____

İmza: _____

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	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. İngilizce okuma yapmayı çok seviyorum.					
2. İngilizce dilinde okumada iyi bir öğrenci olduğumu düşünüyorum.					
3. İngilizce okuyabiliyor olmak harika.					
4. İngilizce okuma parçalarını bilinmeyen kelimeler yüzünden anlayamadıklarını iddia eden öğrenciler sadece bahane uyduruyorlar.					
5. Okumak için kütüphaneden sık sık İngilizce kitaplar alırım.					
6. Arkadaşlarım ve ben okumak için İngilizce materyalleri değiş tokuş etmeyi severiz.					
7. Eğer İngilizcede ilgimi çeken bir konuda okuyorsam zamanın nasıl geçtiğini anlamam.					
8. İngilizce okuma yapmaktan başka yapacak daha önemli işlerim olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
9. Okuma parçalarında bilinmeyen kelimelerle karşılaşma ihtimali İngilizce okuma yapma hakkındaki duygularımı etkilemiyor.					
10. İngilizce derslerinde, okuma aktivitelerini diğer tür aktivitelerden daha çok severim.					
11. İngilizce parçaları okumaya karşı gerçekten ilgim yok.					
12. İngilizce okuma yapmak benim için kolaydır.					
13. İngilizcemi her gün en az bir İngilizce paragraf okuyarak geliştirmeye çalışırım.					
14. İngilizce bir parçayı okumaya başlamadan önce tanıdık olmayan kelimelerle karşılaşmaktan korkarım.					
15. İngilizce okuma yapmanın sıkıcı olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
16. Her İngilizce okuma ödevini bitirmek benim için önemlidir.					
17. Boş zamanım olduğunda İngilizce bir şeyler okumaya çalışırım.					
18. İngilizce metinleri akıcı bir şekilde okuyabilmeyi dilerdim.					
19. İngilizce okuma yapma İngilizcemi geliştirmeme yardımcı olur.					
20. İngilizce bir okuma parçasında bazı kelimelerin anlamını bilmediğimde okumayı bırakmaya yönelirim.					
21. İngilizce okuma yapmak için güçlü bir istek duyarım.					

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
22. Daha fazla otantik(orijinal) İngilizce parça okumayı isterim.					
23. İngilizce bir parçayı anlamak için öğretmenin yardımına ihtiyaç duyarım.					
24. İngilizce okuma yapmak zaman kaybıdır.					
25. İngilizce dergi ve gazeteleri okuyabilmeyi dilerdim.					
26. Sadece zorunda olduğumda İngilizce okuma yaparım.					
27. İngilizce derslerinde, okuma becerisi notumu öğrenmeyi dört gözle beklerim.					
28. Kelimeler çok zor olduğunda İngilizce bir şeyler okumayı sevmem.					
29. Okuma becerisi İngilizce öğrenmenin çok önemli bir parçasıdır.					
30. İngilizce okuyabilmek önemli çünkü birçok İngilizce okuma materyalinden yararlanabiliyor olacağım.					
31. İngilizce okuma derslerini o kadar çok seviyorum ki gelecekte daha fazla İngilizce parça okumayı dört gözle bekliyorum.					
32. Bence İngilizce derslerinde okuma yapmaya daha fazla zaman ayrılmalı.					
33. Eğer bilinmeyen kelimeler olmasaydı İngilizce okuma yapmayı daha çok severdim.					
34. İngilizce okuma yapmaktan nefret ederim.					
35. Okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimeler beni İngilizce okuma yapmaktan uzak tutuyor.					
36. Mümkün olduğunca çok İngilizce okurum.					
37. Karmaşık İngilizce okuma parçalarını okumak hiç zevkli değil.					
38. İngilizce bir okuma parçasında bilmediğim çok kelime olduğunda tedirgin hissederim.					
39. İngilizce okuma yaparken kendimden emin hissederim.					
40. İngilizce derslerinde okuma becerisi çalışmayı seviyorum.					
41. İngilizce bir metni ilk okuyuşumda anlamadığımda üzerinde daha fazla zaman harcamam.					
42. İngilizce okuma yapma hakkındaki negatif hislerimin ardındaki sebep bilinmeyen kelimelerdir.					
43. İngilizce okuma yapmam gerektiğinde kendimi çok rahat hissederim.					

ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Students,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data about your attitudes towards reading in English. The data collected through this questionnaire will be used in a master thesis which is being conducted at Bilkent University MA TEFL program. The questionnaire does not have right or wrong answers, so please do not indicate what you think should be, or what you would like to say, but indicate what you actually feel about reading in English, and please provide your idea or feeling for each statement. Your answers will be kept confidential, and of great value to this study, so please answer sincerely. Please put a tick for the statement that expresses your idea or feeling about reading in English most appropriately.

If you would like to get further information about the study and its results, please feel free to contact the researcher. Thank you for your participation.

Informed Consent: I understand that I am answering this questionnaire voluntarily, and that my answers and the information they provide may appear annonymously in a Master's Thesis. I understand that by completing this questionnaire I am giving my permission for my responses to be used in this way.

Name and surname: _____   Date: _____

Signature: _____

Demet Kulaç

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	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I love reading in English.					
2. I think I am a good student in reading in English.					
3. Being able to read in English is really great.					
4. Students who claim they can't understand English texts because of unknown words are just making excuses.					
5. I often check out English books to read from the library.					
6. My friends and I like to trade English materials to read.					
7. If I am reading about an interesting topic in English, I sometimes lose track of time.					
8. I think I have something more important to do than read in English.					
9. The possibility of encountering unknown words in texts does not affect my feelings about reading in English.					
10. In English classes, I enjoy the reading activities much more than other kinds of activities.					
11. I really have no interest in reading English texts.					
12. Reading in English is easy for me.					
13. I try to improve my English by reading at least one English paragraph every day.					
14. I feel afraid of encountering unfamiliar words before I start reading an English text.					
15. I think reading in English is boring.					
16. Finishing every English reading assignment is very important to me.					
17. I try to read something in English when I have free time.					
18. I wish I could read English texts fluently.					
19. Reading in English helps improve my English.					
20. I tend to give up reading when I don't know the meaning of some words in an English reading text.					
21. I have a strong desire to read in English.					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22. I would like to read more authentic materials in English.					
23. I need the teacher's help in order to understand an English text.					
24. Reading in English is a waste of time.					
25. I wish I could read English magazines and newspapers.					
26. I only read in English when I have to.					
27. I look forward to finding out my reading grade in English classes.					
28. I don't like reading something in English when the words are too difficult.					
29. Reading is a very important part of learning English.					
30. Reading in English is important because I will be able to benefit from many English reading materials.					
31. I like reading classes so much that I look forward to reading more English texts in the future.					
32. I think more time should be devoted to reading in English classes.					
33. I would like reading in English more if there were not unknown words in texts.					
34. I hate reading in English.					
35. The unknown words in reading texts keep me away from reading in English.					
36. I read in English as much as I can.					
37. Complicated English texts are no fun to read.					
38. I feel anxious when there are a lot of words that I do not know in an English reading text.					
39. I feel confident when I read in English.					
40. I like studying reading in English classes.					
41. When I don't understand an English text the first time I read it, I don't spend more time on it.					
42. The unknown words are the basic reasons behind my negative feelings about reading in English.					
43. I feel very much at ease when I have to read in English.					

APPENDIX C: PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TURKISH)

Yüksek Tutumları Olan Öğrenciler için Ön-görüşme Soruları:

1- İngilizce okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerden neden ve nasıl negatif olarak etkilenmiyorsun?

2- Okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili olarak uyguladığın herhangi bir yöntemin var mı?

3- Sence kullandığın bu yöntem(ler) bilmediğin kelimelerden olumsuz bir biçimde etkilenmemenin sebebi olabilir mi?

Düşük Tutumları Olan Öğrenciler için Ön-görüşme Soruları:

1- Ankette İngilizce okuma parçalarındaki bilmediğin kelimelerden etkilendiğini belirtmişsin. Nasıl etkileniyorsun bilinmeyen kelimelerden?

2- Bilmediğin kelimelere yönelik tutumun genel olarak İngilizce okumanı nasıl etkiliyor?

3- Ankette İngilizce okuma parçalarında bilmediğin kelimelerle karşılaşmaktan korktuğunu belirtmişsin. Bilmediğin kelimelerle ilgili korkuların okuma yapmanı nasıl etkiliyor?

4- Bu problemler okuma isteğini nasıl etkiliyor? Böyle bir problemin olmasa daha çok okuma yapar mıydın?

5- Okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili olarak uyguladığın herhangi bir yöntemin var mı?

6- Sence okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerin İngilizce okuma başarın üzerinde bir etkisi var mı?

7- Bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgilenmek için herhangi bir yol öğrenmek ister miydin ve eğer bilmediğin kelimelerle ilgili olarak ne yapacağını bilsen negatif tutumların değişir miydi?

APPENDIX D: PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENGLISH)

Pre- Interview Questions for the High Attitude Students:

1- How and why are you not negatively affected by unknown words in English reading texts?

2- Do you have any methods to deal with unknown words in reading texts?

3- Do you think that these method(s) you use could be the reason for not being affected negatively by unknown words?

Pre- Interview Questions for the Low Attitude Students:

1- In the questionnaire, you stated that you are affected by unknown words in English reading texts. How are you affected by unknown words?

2- How do your negative attitudes towards unknown words affect your reading in English in general?

3- You stated in the questionnaire that you are afraid of encountering unknown words in English reading texts. How do your fears about unknown words affect your reading?

4- How do these problems affect your willingness to read? Would you read more if you did not have such a problem?

5- Do you have any methods to deal with unknown words in reading texts?

6- Do you think unknown words in reading texts have an effect on your success in reading?

7- Would you like to learn any ways to deal with unknown words? Would your negative attitudes change if you knew how to deal with unknown words?

APPENDIX E: POST INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TURKISH)

Yüksek Tutumları Olan Öğrenciler için Strateji Eğitimi Sonrası Görüşme Soruları:

1- Strateji eğitimiyle ilgili ne hissediyorsun/düşünüyorsun?

2- Bağlamsal kelime çıkarım stratejilerinin faydalı olduğunu ve ileride kullanacağını düşünüyor musun?

3- Aldığınız strateji eğitimi İngilizce okumaya karşı tutumlarını değiştirdi mi?

4- Strateji eğitimi seni daha fazla İngilizce okuma yapmaya motive etti mi?

Düşük Tutumları Olan Öğrenciler için Strateji Eğitimi Sonrası Görüşme Soruları:

1- Strateji eğitimiyle ilgili ne hissediyorsun/düşünüyorsun?

2- Bağlamsal kelime çıkarım stratejilerinin faydalı olduğunu ve ileride kullanacağını düşünüyor musun?

3- Aldığınız strateji eğitiminden sonra İngilizce okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili ne hissediyorsun?

4- Aldığınız strateji eğitimi İngilizce okumaya karşı tutumlarını değiştirdi mi?

5- Strateji eğitimi seni daha fazla İngilizce okuma yapmaya motive etti mi?

6- Bu stratejileri öğrendiğin için İngilizce okumayı daha fazla sevdiğini düşünüyor musun?

APPENDIX F: POST INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENGLISH)

Post- Interview Questions for the High Attitude Students:

1- How did you feel about the strategy training? What do you think about it?

2- Do you think that contextual inferencing strategies are useful and you will use them in the future?

3- Did the strategy training you received change your attitudes towards reading in English?

4- Did the strategy training motivate you to read more in English?

Post- Interview Questions for the Low Attitude Students:

1- How did you feel about the strategy training? What do you think about it?

2- Do you think that contextual inferencing strategies are useful and you will use them in the future?

3- How do you feel about the unknown words in English reading texts after the strategy training?

4- Did the strategy training you received change your attitudes towards reading in English?

5- Did the strategy training motivate you to read more in English?

6- Do you think you like reading in English more since you learned about these strategies?

APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS, TEACHERS (TURKISH)

1- Öğrencileriniz strateji eğitimine nasıl tepki verdi?

2- Strateji eğitimi süresince herhangi bir zorluk yaşadınız mı?

3- Sizce öğrencileriniz bu stratejileri faydalı buldu mu?

4- Sizce öğrencileriniz İngilizce okuma yaparken bilmedikleri kelimelerle karşılaştıklarında bu stratejileri kullanabiliyorlar mı?

5- Öğrencilerinizin İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumlarında herhangi bir değişim gözlemlediniz mi?

APPENDIX H: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS, TEACHERS (ENGLISH)

1- How did your students react to the strategy training?

2- Did you have any difficulties through the strategy instruction process?

3- Do you think your students found these strategies useful?

4- Do you think your students can use these strategies when they encounter unknown words while reading English texts?

5- Did you observe any differences in your students' attitudes towards reading in English?

APPENDIX I: STRATEGY TRAINING MATERIALS: CONTEXT CLUES
SHEET

Name: **Date:**

Guessing the meaning of new vocabulary

No one knows all the words they come across. Even native speakers often find
unknown words. Of course, as you build your vocabulary, you will know more
words. However, you can still deal with the words that you do not know when you
encounter them in a reading text or in any context. There are several ways to figure
out words you do not know. There are several ways to find the meaning of words you
don't know, such as looking them up in a dictionary, or using the context.

Using the context means looking at the sentence or the paragraph around the
unknown word. Below are the steps to follow while trying to deal with an unknown
word.

Step 1 – Decide what _part of speech_ the unknown word is. This will help you to
make
       sure your guess is the right kind of word.
Step 2 – Look at the _grammar_ of the sentence. This will help you to decide how
       important the word is, and what its job is in the sentence. It will also help
       you to use the other words in the sentence to make guesses about the
       unknown word.
Step 3 – Look at the _sentences before and after_ the sentence with the unknown word.
       Pay attention to important words.
Step 4 – Make a guess about what the unknown word means, or a substitute word for
       the unknown word.
Step 5 – Check your guess –

- Is it the right part of speech?
- Substitute your guess into the sentence – does it make logical sense?

Remember, if you use the strategy consistently, it will become faster and more
automatic, and you will get better at it! Don't be afraid to check your guess in the
dictionary, to check how well you are using the strategy. You don't have to find the
exact meaning of the unknown words all the time, it is OK if you have an idea about
the word that helps you understand the sentence or text.

Here are several context clues that you can use to guess the meaning of new words.

1) Even if you can't understand the word, sometimes you can understand the rest of the sentence.

> **<u>Example:</u>** The man ran **snorkily** to the hill, and then ran down the other side.
>
> What does *snorkily* mean?
>
> (See hint 1)

2) You can guess the meaning of the word from the other words in the sentence, or from the sentences before and after.

> **<u>Example:</u>** I climbed up on the horse and sat on the **saddle** and then picked up the **reins**. We started to ride.
>
> What do *saddle* and *reins* mean?
>
> (See hint 2)

3) You can find a definition of the word within the sentence itself. The explanation might follow a comma (,), or a dash (-) after the unknown word.

> **<u>Example:</u>** when she fell, she broke her **ulna**, a bone in her arm.
>
> What does *ulna* mean?
>
> (See hint 3)

4) You can also look for an explanation or paraphrase of what was said before in different words. The paraphrase may be signaled by words like 'that is, i.e., in other words, like' or by punctuation marks such as commas (,) and dashes (-).

> **<u>Example:</u>** Light and dark are **antonyms**. In other words, they tell just the opposite of each other.
>
> What does *antonym* mean?
>
> (See hint 4)

5) It is also possible to find examples which help us understand the meaning of an unknown word. The examples may come after words like 'e.g., such as, like, for example, for instance'.

Example: The **mass media**, such as radios, televisions and newspapers, have a powerful influence on people.

What does *mass media* mean?

(See hint 5)

6) You can guess the meaning of an unknown word with the help of antonyms given in the passage.

Example: She is **conscientious**, not lazy!

What does *conscientious* mean?

(See hint 6)

7) Synonyms of the words are also other ways that can help you guess the meaning of an unknown word.

Example: Gary is being paid more than $400,000 **per annum**. This yearly salary allows him to live very well.

What does *per annum* mean?

(See hint 7)

8) Your knowledge of cause and effect is useful in helping you understand words that you do not know. Words used to indicate this type of clues: as a result, as a consequence, so, so that, therefore.

Example: When the car speeds up or slows down, the needle of the car speedometer **oscillates**.

What does *oscillate* mean?

(See hint 8)

9) A writer might also contrast the word that you do not know with a word or idea that you already know. In that case, since you can see the opposite of what the word means, you can guess what the word means. You may see the following phrases: unlike, on the other hand, by contrast, but, however, on the contrary, although, while, yet.

Example: At first, our problems seemed **insurmountable**. However, now I think we'll be able to find solutions.

What does *insurmountable* mean?

(See hint 9)

10) In some cases, the purpose or use of an object is mentioned to tell you what the object is.

Example: I used a **cherry pitter** to remove the seeds from the cherries.

What does *cherry pitter* mean?

(See hint 10)

11) You can guess the meaning of words by using the relationships of the words around it.

Example: After the heavy rain, the ground was **saturated** with water.

What does *saturated* mean?

(See hint 11)

12) You can see a word you know inside the unknown word.

Example: The shop sells expensive **underwear**.

What does *underwear* mean?

(See hint 12)

13) The prefixes and suffixes can help you figure out the meaning of an unfamiliar word.

Example: The students were **uncontrollable**.

What does *uncontrollable* mean?

(See hint 13)

APPENDIX J: STRATEGY TRAINING MATERIALS: HINTS SHEET

HINTS FOR GUESSING VOCABULARY

Hint 1: In this sentence *snorkily* is an unknown word (it is not a real word). You can see it is probably an adverb because it follows a verb (ran) and ends in –ily, but you don't know what it means. However, you don't have to know what it means to understand the idea of the sentence. Keep reading the rest of the passage and come back to the word when you have finished. Remember, you don't have to understand every word to understand the meaning of a passage.

Hint 2: From the sentence you can see that a *saddle* is a noun because it follows the word 'the'. Also you can say it is something that we can sit on, and it is on a horse. From this you can guess that saddle is the seat on a horse. *Reins* is more difficult. Again, you know it is a noun because it follows the word 'the'. It ends in –s so probably it is plural. You can tell from the sentence that they are something that you can pick up; they are probably connected to a horse. After the person picks them up, he/she can start to ride the horse, so you can guess they are pieces of rope or leather used to control a horse.

Hint 3: A writer might give the definition of a difficult word in the passage itself, so you can look for a definition right after a word you do not know. In this sentence, although *ulna* is an unfamiliar word for you, you can understand that it is a kind of bone in the arm from the definition followed by the comma.

Hint 4: In this sentence, *antonym* is the unknown word, but the phrase 'in other words' tells us that an explanation is going to be made about this unknown words. As you read through the explanation, you understand that antonym is a term which means the opposite meaning of a word.

Hint 5: *Mass media* is the new word here. After this unknown word, there is a phrase 'such as' which signals that an example will be given. The examples are newspapers, televisions, and radios. Based on the example, you can think that these are the organizations that provide information or news for people.

Hint 6: When you look at the sentence, you can understand that *conscientious* is an adjective because it describes a noun (she). Also, following the first part of the sentence, you can see the word 'lazy' which is a familiar word to you. If she is not lazy, you can guess that she is hardworking, so *conscientious* means hardworking.

Hint 7: When you read the first sentence, you can understand that *per annum* gives information about the time or frequency of Gary's earning, however it is not so clear. After reading the second sentence, you can understand it clearly because its synonym is given.

Hint 8: By looking at the sentence, you can first understand that the unknown word *oscillate* is a verb because the clause has a subject (the needle of the speedometer) and it needs a verb. Also, it has the suffix –s which tells you that the verb is in the present tense. When you try to guess the meaning of the word, you can think about the needle of the speedometer and what happens to it when the car speeds up and slows down. As a result, you can see that *oscillate* means to fluctuate, to move back and forth.

Hint 9: First, you can guess the part of speech of the unknown word *insurmountable.* It is an adjective because it describes a noun (our problems). Then, you can look at the second sentence. In this second sentence, the transition 'however' tells us something contrasting with the unknown word. The sentence after 'however' says that it is possible to find solutions to the problems, so *insurmountable* must be something with an opposite meaning. You can say that it is something that cannot be solved.

Hint 10: In this sentence, you can easily identify the word *cherry pitter* as a noun because it is used as the object of the sentence, and there is 'a' before it. After that, you can look at the part starting with 'to'. It tells us the purpose of the object and we can infer that it is something that can be used to remove the seeds of something.

Hint 11: The part of speech of the unknown word *saturated* is easy to identify here. It describes the ground (a noun) after the rain, so using your knowledge about the rain, and the possible situation of the ground after the rain, you can guess that *saturated* means wet.

Hint 12: In this sentence, you know that *underwear* is a noun because it follows an adjective (expensive). You also know that it is something that a shop sells, and that it can be expensive. Look at the word underwear carefully. It contains two words *under* and *wear*. From this you can guess that it is something that you wear, and it is something that goes under, so you can infer that *underwear* is the clothes you wear under other clothes.

Hint 13: If you look at *uncontrollable* carefully, you can see the word *control* inside which is probably familiar to you. After *control*, you can see the suffix *–able*, which means "able to", so *controllable* means "able to be controlled". Then, you can see the *prefix –un*, which means "not" or "the opposite meaning", so you know that *uncontrollable* means "can't be controlled".

APPENDIX K: STRATEGY TRAINING MATERIALS: A SAMPLE PRACTICE

ACTIVITY

- **Read the text and try to find what words should replace the nonsense words in *italics*. Remember that you do not have to find the exact word.**

THE RELIABILITY OF EYE WITNESSES

Bernard Jackson is a happy man today, but he has many *ziggity* memories in the past. He is a free man today, but he spent five years in *zogitty* because a jury *zuggurted* him of attacking two women. Jackson's lawyer introduced witnesses who told that Jackson was with them in another place at the times of the crime. Why, then, was he sent to prison? The jury believed the *zeart* of the two eyewitnesses. They identified Jackson as the man who had attacked them. The court finally *zifferted* Jackson after the police had found the man who had really committed the crimes. Jackson was similar in *zaresh* to the guilty man. Their height, hair style and face were almost the same. The two women had made a mistake in identity. As a result, Jackson lost five years of his life.

The two women in this case were eyewitnesses. They clearly saw the man who attacked them, *zift* they mistakenly identified an innocent person. Similar things have *zeckiled* before, eyewitnesses to other crimes have identified wrong person.

Many factors *zapata* the correctness of eyewitnesses. For instance, witnesses see photographs of several *zorps* who had done similar things before and then they try to identify that person. They can't decide among the many faces they see. Also, they are usually *zaplous* at the time of the event and they may not remember properly because of that shock. Besides, they may feel afraid because the criminals may *zofudun* to do something bad, or even to kill them, so they might not tell the truth. Because of all these reasons, I think that eyewitnesses are not *zogoty* enough to send people to prison. In other words, we should not trust only in them, but we should look for more.

- **You can write your guesses next to the nonsense words below.**

ziggity: *zeckiled:*

zogitty: *zapata:*

zuggurted: *zorps:*

zeart: *zaplous:*

zifferted: *zofudun:*

zaresh :   *zogoty:*

zift:

APPPENDIX L: CHECKLIST (TURKISH)

Bir okuma parçasında bilmediğim bir kelime ile karşılaştığımda:

➢ Kelimenin *isim mi, fiil mi, sıfat mı ya da zarf mı* olduğunu bulmaya çalışırım.

➢ Parçayı anlamam için *gerekli mi*, yoksa o kelimeyi bilmeden de parçayı anlayabiliyor muyum diye bakarım.

➢ Kelimenin *öncesindeki ve sonrasındaki* cümlelere bakarak kelimenin anlamını bulmaya çalışırım.

➢ Kelimenin virgül (,) ya da tire işaretiyle (-) gösterilmiş bir *tanımı* var mı diye bakarım.

➢ Kelimenin ardından bir *açıklama* yapılmış mı, ya da *farklı kelimelerle* yeniden anlatılmış mı diye bakarım. Bunun için 'that is, i.e., in other words, like' gibi kelimelerin ya da virgüle (,) veya tire (-) işaretlerinden sonrasına bakarım.

➢ Kelimenin anlamını bulmama yardımcı olacak bir *örnek* verilmiş mi diye bakarım. Bunun için 'e.g., such as, like, for example, for instance' gibi kelimerden yardım alırım.

➢ Kelimenin *eş ya da zıt anlamlısı* kullanılmış mı diye control ederim.

➢ Kelimenin anlamını çıkarmama yardımcı olabilecek bir *sebep-sonuç* ilişkisi var mı diye bakarım. Bunun için 'as a consequence, so, so that, therefore' gibi kelimelerden yardım alırım.

➢ Kelimenin anlamıyla *zıt anlam oluşturan bir fikir* verilmiş mi diye bakarım. Bunun için 'unlike, on the other hand, by contrast, but, however, on the contrary, although, while, yet' gibi kelimelerden yardım alırım.

➢ Kelimenin *kullanım amacıyla* ilgili bir içerik verilmişse burdan anlam çıkarmaya çalışırım.

➢ Kelimenin etrafındaki *diğer kelimelerle olan ilişkisine* bakarım.

➢ Kelimenin içinde *bildiğim bir başka kelime* var mı diye bakarım.

➢ Kelimenin içindeki *ön ve son eklere* bakarım.

➢ Okuma parçasının etrafındaki *resim ve yazılardan* yardım anlamaya çalışırım.

➢ Sonunda okuma parçası bittikten sonra mutlaka bir *sözlükten* kontrol ederim.

APPENDIX M: CHECKLIST (ENGLISH)

When I encounter an unknown word in a reading text:

➢ I try to find the *part of speech* of the word.

➢ I look at the word whether it is *essential* to understand the text, or I can understand the text without knowing the meaning of that word.

➢ I try to guess the meaning of the words by looking at the sentences *before or after* it.

➢ I try to guess the meaning of the word by checking whether there is a *definition* of the word that is introduced by a comma (,) or a dash (-).

➢ I check if there is an *explanation or paraphrasing* after the unknown word. For this, I look at the sentences after words/phrases like ''that is, i.e., in other words, like' or punctuation marks like a comma (,) or a dash (-).

➢ I check if there is an *example* in the sentence to help me find the word meaning. For this, I get help from words/phrases like 'e.g., such as, like, for example, for instance'.

➢ I check if the *synonym* or *antonym* of the unknown word is used.

➢ I check if there is a *cause-effect relationship* that can help me determine the word meaning. For this, I get help from words/phrases like 'as a consequence, so, so that, therefore'.

➢ I check if there is a *contrasting idea*. For this, I get help from words/phrases like 'unlike, on the other hand, by contrast, but, however, on the contrary, although, while, yet'

➢ If there is a context related to *the purpose or use of the word*, I try to determine the meaning of the word based on this.

➢ I check for its *relationship with the words around* it.

➢ I check if there is *a word that I know inside* the unknown word.

➢ I check the *prefixes or suffixes* in the word.

➢ I try to find the word meaning with the help of the *pictures or writings* around the text.

➢ In the end, when I finish reading, I check my guess in a *dictionary*.

APPENDIX N: CONTEXT CLUES TABLE

TYPE OF CONTEXT CLUE	FUNCTION	SIGNALS
Sentences before or after the unknown word/ general knowledge	The meaning is derived from the context itself, or from the reader's experience	-
Definition	Sentences or phrases explain the word.	Comma (,), dash (-)
Explanation, paraphrasing	Explains the unknown word in different words.	'that is, i.e., in other words, like' or by punctuation marks such as commas (,) and dashes (-).
Exemplification	Examples help us.	e.g., such as, like, for example, for instance'.
Antonyms	Words with opposite meaning.	(e.g.: poor X rich)
Synonyms	Words with same or similar meaning.	(e.g.: attractive & charming)
Cause and effect	Logical connection of ideas.	as a result, as a consequence, so, so that, therefore.
Contrast	Opposing ideas or words.	unlike, on the other hand, by contrast, but, however, on the contrary, although, while, yet.
Purpose	Purpose or the use of an object.	-
Relationships of words	-	(e.g.: "After the heavy rain, the ground was saturated with water")
Word parts	A word you know in an unknown word.	(e.g.: underwear)
Affixes	Prefixes or suffixes.	Pre-, un-, dis-, -less, -able etc.

APPENDIX O: SAMPLE PAGE, PRE-INTERVIEW (TURKISH)

R: Merhaba Zeynep, nasılsın?

P5: İyiyim, teşekkürler. Siz nasılsınız?

R: Teşekkür ederim. Zeynep, seninle yapacağımız bu röportajdan elde edeceğim bilgileri yüksek lisans tezimde kullanmama izin veriyor musun?

P5: Evet, tabi ki…

R: Teşekkür ederim… Hatırlarsan sizlere İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumlarınızla ilgili bir anket verilmişti. Ankette okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili olarak genellikle negatif görüş ve hislerini belirttiğini gördüm. Bilmediğin kelimelerden nasıl etkileniyorsun?

P5: Kelimeyi bilmediğimde, okumayı bırakasım geliyor. Okumak istemiyorum. Beni olumsuz etkiliyor. Sınıfta okuma yaparken biraz şey hissediyorum…Ne biliyim. Hiçbir şeye cevap veremediğim için sıkılıyorum.

R: Tamam, seni negatif etkiliyorlar yani..Peki, bilinmeyen kelimelere yönelik olumsuz tutumun genel olarak İngilizce okumaya dair tutumunu nasıl etkiliyor?

P5: Dediğim gibi, onlar yüzünden okumak istemiyorum. Hatta kelimeler yüzünden okumayı sevmiyorum. Sıkılıyorum…

R: Anladım… Bir de, ankette İngilizce okuma parçalarında bilmediğin kelimelerle karşılaşmaktan korktuğunu söylemişsin. Bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili bu korkuların okumanı nasıl etkiliyor?

P5: Okumaya başlamak bile istemiyorum. Tedirgin oluyorum.

R: Bu problemler okuma isteğini nasıl etkiliyor? Böyle bir problemin olmasa daha çok okur muydun?

P5: Yine olumsuz etkiliyor okuma isteğimi… Sınıfta bilmediğim kelime görünce okumayı bırakmak istiyorum. Durum çok sıkıcı, bu yüzden de İngilizce parçaları okumak istemiyorum.

R: Peki, anlıyorum…

P5: Ama eğer parçalardaki kelimeleri bilseydim, kesinlikle daha fazla okurdum.

R: Peki Zeynep, ne yapıyorsun okurken bilmediğin bir kelime ile karşılaştığında? Onlarla başa çıkmak için kullandığın bir yöntemin var mı?

P5: Doğrusunu söylemek gerekirse hiçbir şey yapmıyorum…

R: Sence okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerin okuma başarın üzerinde bir etkisi var mı?

P5: Kesinlikle… Yani sınavlarda, eğer okuma bölümü 10 puansa, aslında o puanı alabilirim… Ama bilinmeyen kelimeler yüzünden parçayı anlayamıyorum ve bunu yapamıyorum.

R: Yani bilinmeyen kelimeler yüzünden başarısız olduğunu düşünüyorsun… Tamam… O zaman, bilinmeyen kelimelerle başa çıkmanın herhangi bir yolunu öğrenmek ister miydin? Eğer onlarla başa çıkmanın bir yolunu bilseydin, negatif tutumun değişir miydi okumayla ilgili olarak?

P5: Tabi ki öğrenmek isterdim, neden istemeyeyim… Sonunda beni ilerletecek..Şu anda tutumun negatif, ama o zaman kesinlikle pozitif olurdu, pozitif düşünürdüm..İngilizce okumayı daha çok severdim, sıkılmazdım.

R: Peki Zeynep, benim başka soracağım soru yok. Teşekkür ediyorum yardımın için, kendine iyi bak.

P5: Rica ederim hocam.

APPENDIX P: SAMPLE PAGE, PRE-INTERVIEW (ENGLISH)

R: Hi Zeynep. How are you?

P5: I am fine, thank you. How are you?

R: Thank you. Zeynep, do you consent that I can use the information I get from this interview in my master's thesis?

P5: Yes, of course…

R: Thank you…As you remember, you were given a questionnaire about your attitudes towards reading in English. I saw that you usually stated your negative view and feelings about the unknown words in reading texts. How are you affected by unknown words?

P5: When I don't know the word, I want to give up reading, I don't want to read. It affects me negatively. When we are reading in the class, I feel a bit… I don't know. I get bored because I can't answer anything.

R: OK, you mean they affect you negatively. Well, how do your negative attitudes towards unknown words affect your reading in English in general?

P5: As I said, I don't want to read because of them. I even don't like reading because of words. I get bored…

R: I see… Also, you stated in the questionnaire that you are afraid of encountering unknown words in English reading texts. How do your fears about unknown words affect your reading?

P5: I don't even want to start reading. I feel anxious.

R: How do these problems affect your willingness to read? Would you read more if you did not have such a problem?

P5: It affects my willingness to read negatively again. In the class, I want to give up reading when I see an unknown word. The situation is very boring for me, so I don't want to read English texts.

R: OK, I see…

P5: But I would certainly read more if I knew the words in texts.

R: OK Zeynep, what do you do when you encounter an unknown word while reading? Do you have any methods to deal with unknown words in reading texts?

P5: To be honest, I don't do anything. I don't have a method.

R: Do you think unknown words in reading texts have an effect on your success in reading?

P5: Sure, I mean, in the exams, if the reading section is worth 10 points, I can get that point actually… But because of unknown words, I can't understand the text and I can't do it.

R: So, you think you can't be successful because of unknown words. OK, then, would you like to learn any ways to deal with unknown words? Would your negative attitudes change if you knew how to deal with unknown words?

P5: Of course I would like to learn, why not? They will help me improve in the end. My attitudes are negative now, but then they would certainly be positive, I would think positively. I would love English more, I wouldn't get bored.

R: OK Zeynep, I don't have any more questions to ask…Thank you for your help, take care!

P5: You are welcome teacher.

APPENDIX Q: SAMPLE PAGE, POST-INTERVIEW (TURKISH)

R: Merhaba Yücel, hoş geldin…Nasılsın?

P14:   İyiyim hocam, sağolun. Siz?

R: İyiyim, teşekkür ederim. Yücel, seninle yapacağımız bu röportajdan elde edeceğim bilgileri yüksek lisans tezimde kullanmama izin veriyor musun?

P14:   Evet, veriyorum.

R: Teşekkürler… Yücel, İngilizce okuma parçalarındaki bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamlarının nasıl çıkarılacağıyla ilgili bazı stratejiler öğrendiniz. Bu strateji eğitimiyle ilgili ne hissediyorsun/düşünüyorsun?

P14:   Bence çok hoş stratejiler. Öğrendiğim için çok mutlu hissediyorum..Şanslıyız.

R: Yani bu stratejilerin faydalı olduğunu ve ileride kullanacağını düşünüyor musun?

P14:   Tabi ki çok faydalılar. Yani kesinlikle kullanacağım çünkü kelimelere sözlükten bakmakla zaman kaybetmeyeceğim. Bana gelecekte de çok yardımcı olacak.

R: Anladım… Peki, aldığınız strateji eğitimi İngilizce okumaya karşı tutumlarını değiştirdi mi?

P14:   Tabi ki… Olumlu… Şimdi okurken kelimeleri sözlükten bakmak yapacağım en son iş. Sözlüğe bağımlı değilim. Benim için çok hoş bir duygu.

R: Neden sözlüğüne bağımlı değilsin? Tam olarak ne demek istiyorsun?

P14:   Yani demek istiyorum ki, bu stratejileri öğrenmeden önce bilmediğim kelimelere direkt olarak sözlükten bakardım. Ama şimdi, sözlüğümü kullanmadan, parçadaki ipuçlarını kullanarak anlamlarını çıkarabiliyorum. Bu yüzden iyi hissediyorum.

R: Hmm…Tamam, anladım..Bu strateji eğitimi seni daha fazla okumaya motive etti mi?

P14:   Gerçekten etti. Ben zaten seviyordum okumayı..Ama bu stratejilerden sonra daha çok sevmeye başladığımı söyleyebilirim. Bu yüzden de daha çok okumak istiyorum tabi.

R: Peki Yücel, çok teşekkür ederim yardımın için. Görüşmek üzere…

P14:   Rica ederim, ne demek… İyi günler.

APPENDIX R: SAMPLE PAGE, POST-INTERVIEW (ENGLISH)

R: Hi Yücel, welcome… How are you?

P14: I'm fine teacher, thank you. And you?

R: I am OK, thank you. Yücel, do you consent that I can use the information I get from this interview in my master's thesis?

P14: Yes, I do.

R: Thank you…Yücel, you have learned about some strategies about how to guess meanings of unknown words in English texts. How did you about the strategy training? What do you think about it?

P14: I think that they are very nice. I feel very happy to learn these strategies. We are lucky.

R: So, do you think that contextual inferencing strategies are useful and you will use them in the future?

P14: Of course they are very useful…I mean, I will certainly use them because I won't waste time to look up words in a dictionary. They will help me a lot in the future, too.

R: I see. Did the strategy training you received change your attitudes towards reading in English?

P14: Sure…positive…Now, it is the last thing to look up words in my dictionary while reading. I am not dependent on dictionary. It is a very nice feeling for me.

R: Why aren't you dependent on your dictionary? What do you exactly mean?

P14: I mean, before learning these strategies, I used to check the words I don't know in a dictionary immediately. But now, I can infer their meanings by using the clues in the text without using my dictionary. So I feel good.

R: Hmm…OK, I see…Did the strategy training motivate you to read more in English?

P14: It really did. I already used to like reading. But after these strategies, I can say that I started to like more. So I want to read more, of course.

R: OK Yücel, thank you so much for your help…See you…

P14: You're welcome. Have a nice day.

APPENDIX S: SAMPLE PAGE, INTERVIEW WITH TEACHERS (TURKISH)

R: Merhaba, öncelikle çalışmama katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim. Benim için çok önemliydi.

T1:   Rica ederim… Bunun bir parçası olmaktan dolayı mutluyum, ben teşekkür ederim.

R: Size strateji eğitimi süreciyle ilgili birkaç soru sormak istiyorum. Öncelikle, öğrencileriniz strateji eğitimine nasıl tepki verdi?

T1:   Öğrencilerin çoğu strateji eğitimi aktivitelerine katılmak için isteklilerdi çünkü hepsi okuma yaparken yaşadıkları problemlerin farkındaydılar ki bu problemler kelimelerle ilgili problemler. Bu süreç boyunca hepsi stratejilerin faydalı olduğu konusunda aynı fikirdeydi. Özellikle de tümdengelimsel bir şekilde öğrenmeyi seven öğrenciler- ki bu öğrencilerin çoğu anlamına geliyor- stratejileri açık bir şekilde öğrettiğimiz için stratejileri öğrenmede herhangi bir problem yaşamadılar ve oldukça da sevdiler. Ama tabi aktivitelerle ilgilenmeyen öğrenciler de vardı.

R: Anladım… Strateji eğitimi sürecinde herhangi bir zorluk yaşadınız mı?

T1:   Öğrencilerin zaman zaman konsantrasyon eksiklikleri dışında bir problem yaşamadım.

R: Konsantrasyonlarını kaybetmelerinin sebebi neydi sizce?

T1:   Eğitimin içeriği çok yoğundu ve zaman kısıtlıydı. Strateji eğitimini kısa bir süre içinde vermek zorundaydık. Bunun dışında, hemen hemen bütün öğrenciler stratejileri öğrenmek ve uygulamak için isteklilerdi.

R: Sizce öğrencileriniz bu stratejileri faydalı buldu mu?

T1:   Kesinlikle! Okuma parçalarındaki bilmedikleri kelimelerle ilgili gerçekten problemleri var. Pratik yaptıkça, çoğu bu stratejilerin çok yararlı olduğunu söylediler.

R: Tamam, peki sizce öğrencileriniz İngilizce okuma parçalarında bilmedikleri kelimelerle karşılaştıklarında bu stratejileri kullanabiliyorlar mı?

T1:   Kullanmaya çalışıyorlar, bazen başarılı tahminler yapıyorlar, bazen yapmıyorlar. Problem şu ki, öğrenciler kelimeleri ezberlemek gibi, hiçbir çıkarım yapmadan öğretmenin dediğini aynen yapmak gibi geleneksel yollarla öğrenmeye alışkınlar. Bu yüzden bu stratejileri kendi başlarına doğru düzgün kullanmada zorlanıyorlar. Ama daha önce de dediğim gibi, bu

stratejilerin bu kadar kısa sürede mucize yaratmasını beklemek garip olur. Öğrencilerin bu stratejileri kendi başlarına uygulamaya alışmaları için daha fazla zamana ihtiyaçları var. Bir öğretmen olarak, bu strateji eğitiminin uzun vadede çok daha etkili olabileceğine inanıyorum. Eğer eğitim süreci daha uzun olsaydı, öğrencilerin bu stratejileri kullanma yetenekleri önemli şekilde gelişirdi. Bence bu tarz aktivitelerle ilgili en büyük problem zaman kısıtlaması.

R: Evet, doğru, zaman kısıtlaması bir problem…Ve son sorum. Öğrencilerinizin İngilizce okumaya yönelik tutumlarında herhangi bir değişim gözlemlediniz mi?

T1: Doğrusunu söylemek gerekirse, strateji eğitiminden sonra, okumaya karşı önemli tutum değişiklikleri gözlemlemek için çok fazla vaktimiz olmadı. Çünkü strateji eğitiminden sonra öğrencilerin tutumlarının değişip değişmediğini öğrenecek kadar yeterli okuma aktivitesi olmadı. Ama kesinlikle inanıyorum ki, daha uzun bir sürede bu strateji eğitiminin öğrencilerin tutumlarını olumlu bir şekilde değiştirmesi muhtemel.

R: Yani daha fazla zamana ihtiyaçları olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz.

T1: Evet. Stratejileri sevdiler ve kullandılar ama bence tutumların değişmesi bu kadar kısa sürecek bir şey değil. Yani, öğrencilerin tutumlarında çok keskin değişiklikler görmesem de, strateji eğitiminin uzun vadede çok daha etili olacağına kesinlikle inanıyorum. Ayrıca, strateji eğitiminden sonar öğrencilerin bu stratejileri ben söylemeden de kullanmaya çalıştıklarını fark ettim ki bu bence önemli bir adım…

R: Evet, önemli olmalı… Zaman ayırdığınız için çok teşekkür ederim. İyi günler diliyorum.

T1: Rica ederim…

APPENDIX T: SAMPLE PAGE, INTERVIEW WITH TEACHERS (ENGLISH)

R: Hi, first of all, thank you for your contribution to my study. It was really important for me.

T1:   You're welcome...I am happy to be a part of it, thank you.

R: I want to ask you some questions about the training process. First of all, how did your students react to the strategy training?

T1:   Most of the students were very enthusiastic to participate in the strategy training activities because they were all aware of the problems they have in reading, which is related to unknown words in reading texts. During this process, they all agreed that the strategies are very useful. Especially the students who like learning deductively – and this means most of the students - did not have any difficulties in learning these strategies as we taught them explicitly, and they quite liked them. But of course there were some students who were not interested in the activities.

R: I see…Did you have any difficulties through the strategy instruction process?

T1:   Except for the students' occasional lack of concentration, I didn't have any problems.

R: What do you think the reason of losing their concentration?

T1:   The content of the training was very intensive and the time was limited. We had to give the instruction in a short amount of time. Apart from this, almost all students were very enthusiastic to learn and apply these strategies.

R: Do you think your students found these strategies useful?

T1:   Absolutely! They really have problems with unknown words in reading texts. As we practiced, most of them said these strategies were very helpful.

R: OK, so, do you think your students can use these strategies when they encounter unknown words while reading English texts?

T1:   They try to use the strategies, sometimes they make successful guesses, but sometimes they don't. The problem is that the students are used to traditional ways of learning like memorizing, doing exactly what the teacher says without making any inferences, so they have difficulties in using the strategies properly on their own. Usually, we had to guide them to guess the word meanings. But as I said before, it would be strange to expect the strategies to perform miracles in such a short time. The students need more

time to get used to applying these strategies on their own. As a teacher, I believe that this strategy training can be much more effective in the long run. If the training process had been longer, the students' ability to use these strategies would have improved more considerably. I think the biggest problem with these kinds of activities is the time constraint.

R: Yes, that's right, time is a problem…And my last question. Did you observe any differences in your students' attitudes towards reading in English?

T1:   To be honest, after the strategy training, we didn't have much time to observe important attitude changes towards reading because after the strategy training, there weren't enough reading activities to find out if the students' attitudes have changed or not. However, I strongly believe that in a longer period of time, strategy training is likely to change the students' attitudes in a positive way.

R: So, you think they need more time.

T1:   Yes, they liked the strategies and they used them but I think changing attitudes is not something that takes such a short time. I mean, although I did not see a sharp change in the students' attitudes, I definitely believe that the training will be much more effective in the long run. Also, after the training I realized that the students were trying to use the strategies without my instruction to do so, which is an important step, I think…

R: Yes, that must be important. Thank you very much for sparing time. Have a nice day.

T1:   You are welcome…