

**METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES AND SELF -
EFFICACY BELIEFS OF ELT STUDENTS**

**İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN BİLİŞÜSTÜ
OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ VE ÖZYETERLİLİK İNANÇLARI**

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İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN BİLİŞÜSTÜ OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ VE ÖZYETERLİLİK İNANÇLARI

Emine SOY

ÖZ

Bu çalışma İngiliz dili eğitimi öğrencilerinin biliş üstü okuma stratejileri ve öz yeterlilik inançları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktadır. Araştırmacı ayrıca, biliş üstü okuma stratejileri ve öz yeterlilik inançlarının öğrencilerin okuma dersindeki başarılarına etkisinin olup olmadığını bulmayı da amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca, kız ve erkek öğrencilerin biliş üstü okuma stratejilerini kullanmalarında ve öz yeterlilik inançlarında bir farklılık olup olmadığı da araştırılmıştır. Çalışma, 2014-2015 akademik yılı güz döneminde yürütülmüştür. Çalışmaya 23'ü erkek 116'sı kız olmak üzere toplam 139 öğrenci katılmıştır. Öğrenciler Hacettepe Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı 1. Sınıf öğrencileri olup, İDÖ 185 (İleri okuma Becerileri I) dersini almaktadırlar.

Öğrenciler 5'li Likert ölçeğinden oluşan iki bölümlü bir anketi cevaplamışlardır. Anketin ilk kısmı öğrencilerin öz yeterlilik inançlarıyla, ikinci kısmı biliş üstü okuma stratejileriyle ilgilidir. Elde edilen verileri incelemek amacıyla PASW İstatistik 18 kullanılmıştır. En çok hangi biliş üstü okuma stratejisinin kullanıldığını ve öğrencilerin okuma konusunda öz yeterlilik inançlarının nasıl olduğunu bulmak için betimleyici istatistikler kullanılmıştır. Biliş üstü okuma stratejileri ve öz yeterlilik inançları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olup olmadığını anlamak için pearson momentler çarpımı korelasyon katsayısı uygulanmıştır. Kız ve erkek öğrencilerin biliş üstü okuma stratejisi kullanımı ve öz yeterlilik inançları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını bulmak için bağımsız örneklem t-testi kullanılmıştır. Biliş üstü okuma stratejileri ve öğrencilerin öz yeterlilik inançlarının okuma dersindeki başarılarına etkisinin olup olmadığını anlamak için pearson momentler çarpımı korelasyon katsayısından faydalanılmıştır.

Elde edilen sonuçlar, öğrencilerin en çok gözden geçirme ve mevcut bilgiyle bağdaştırma stratejisini, en az pratik yapma imkânları arama stratejisini kullandığını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin 7'sinin düşük, 77'sinin orta ve 55'inin yüksek düzeyde öz yeterlilik inançlarına sahip oldukları bulunmuş ve biliş üstü okuma stratejileri ve öğrencilerin öz yeterlilik inançları arasında orta düzeyde

bir iliřki olduđu ortaya ıkmıřtır. Buna ek olarak, kız ve erkek ğrencilerin biliř st okuma stratejilerini kullanmalarında ve z yeterlilik inanları arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmadıđı grlmřtr. Son olarak, biliř st okuma stratejileri (bir strateji hari) ve z yeterlilik inanlarının okuma dersindeki bařaryı etkilemediđi verisi elde edilmiřtir.

Anahtar szckler:Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce okuma, Okuma stratejileri, biliř st stratejiler, z yeterlilik inanları

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METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES AND SELF -EFFICACY BELIEFS OF ELT STUDENTS

Emine SOY

ABSTRACT

This study primarily investigates the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students. However, in this study the researcher also aims to find out whether metacognitive strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs of students affect their achievement in reading. Also, it examines if female ELT students differ from male ELT students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs. The study was conducted in the fall semester of 2014-2015 academic year with a total number of 139 first grade ELT students who took İDÖ 185 (Advanced Reading Skills I) course at Hacettepe University. 23 of the participants were male while 116 of them were female.

As to the study, the participants were asked to answer a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire including two parts. The first part was about self-efficacy beliefs of students and the second part was about metacognitive reading strategies. In order to analyse the data, PASW Statistics 18 was used. Descriptive Statistics were used to find out what metacognitive reading strategies are mostly employed by ELT students. To be able to find what the ELT students' self-efficacy beliefs in reading are, descriptive statistics were used. Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) was employed to see whether there is any statistically significant correlation between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Independent sample t-test was made use of to see if female ELT students differ from male ELT students in the use of metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Lastly, in order to see whether there is any significant correlation between ELT students' achievement in reading and metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading, Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) was employed.

The result of the study indicated that overview and linking with already known material strategy is the most employed strategy while seeking practice opportunities is the least employed one. It was also found that 7 students had low, 77 students had mid and 55 of them had high self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Additionally, it was obtained that except for one strategy; there was a moderate relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Also, it showed that female ELT students did not differ from male ELT students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs. Lastly, it was found that metacognitive strategy use (except for only one strategy) and self-efficacy beliefs of students did not affect their achievement in reading.

Keywords: EFL Reading, Reading Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Self-efficacy Beliefs

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ETHICS

In this thesis study, prepared in accordance with the spelling rules of Graduate School of Educational sciences of Hacettepe University,

I declare that

- all the information and documents have been obtained in the base of the academic rules,
- all audio-visual and written information and results have been presented according to the rules of scientific standards,
- in case of using other works, related studies have been cited in accordance with the scientific standards,
- all cited studies have been fully referenced,
- I did not do any distortion in the data set,
- and any part of this thesis has not been presented as any other thesis study at this or any other university.

Emine SOY

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To my dear family...

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACTFL: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

EFL :English as a Foreign Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

ESL : English as a Second Language

Std : Standard

L2 : Second Language



1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces some background information on metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of students which contribute to the basis of this study. Then, it states the problem, outlines the purpose and of the study, presents the research questions, explains the significance of the study and indicates the limitations and assumptions. Lastly, it defines the terms which are frequently used in this section.

1.1. Background of the Study

With the exception of the audio-lingual method era, reading skill generally had an important place in foreign /second language study and teaching (Barnet, 1989). In the mid-1960s, reading was important to examine grammar and vocabulary or to practice pronunciation (Harris, 1966; Silberstein, 1987). However, this view needed some changes to prepare ESL university students for advanced academic skills (Yorkey, 1970). In 1970s, some researchers underlined the issue, giving more importance to reading. (Eskey, 1973; Saville & Troike, 1973). Carrell (1983a) argues that “the main reason people around the world study English as a foreign language is to read” (p. 82).

Among the four main language skills, the ability to read academic texts is considered one of the most important skills that university students of English as a Second- Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) need to acquire (Carrell, 1988a; İlk, 2012; Levine et al., 2000; Uzunçakmak, 2005; Varol, 2010). Some researchers claim that developing reading skill is crucial for EFL learners to obtain greater development in all language skills (Anderson, 1999; Kern, 1989; Kurt, 2012). Also, Krashen (1981) and Erten & Razi (2003) see reading as the mostly utilized skill for language acquisition as it helps learners to expose to target language and receive comprehensible input. Additionally, reading is seen as the primary skill in academic contexts to get information and increase knowledge especially in the ones that make use of academic materials written in English (Eskey, 1986; Carrell 1989; Kern, 1989; Mendi, 2009).

As a primary skill for EFL/ESL learners, reading has been defined by researchers in several ways. Mikulecky (2008) explains that reading is “a conscious and

unconscious thinking process” (p. 1). Sariçoban (2002) states that reading has a communicative value and it functions as an active skill as cognitive processes are working during reading. The definition of reading as an active cognitive process of receiving meaning from the printed page and interpreting information encoded in language form appropriately gives a general idea about this process (Chastain, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Sariçoban, 2001; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

In addition to being an important skill, reading can sometimes be difficult for EFL/ESL learners for several reasons. In order to deal with the problems they face, students need to make use of some learning strategies while reading. Learning strategies are defined as behaviours which help individuals to learn the new information (Weinstein & Mayer, 1983). Similar definitions of learning strategies have been proposed by O'Malley & Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990). However, they classified learning strategies in a different way. While O'Malley and Chamot (1990) list learning strategies in three categories as metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies, Oxford (1990) gives a more detailed classification. She first distinguishes strategies as direct and indirect. She classifies direct strategies as memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies are metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

Among the three subcategories of learning strategies (metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective), metacognitive strategies are the most frequently used category (Li & Wang, 2010) and it is defined in several ways by researchers. Flavell (1979) explains metacognition as “thinking about thinking” (p. 906). According to Costa (1984), metacognition is “the ability to know what one doesn't know” (p. 197). Martinez (2006) proposes a more precise definition and explains metacognition as “the monitoring and controlling of thought” (p. 696). Brown (1980) states that metacognition is “the awareness of one's own reading processes” (p. 454). Fitzgerald (1995) summarizes metacognition as awareness of one's own understanding and non-understanding of reading strategies and of monitoring comprehension during reading.

It is clear that strategy use improves reading comprehension (Carrell, 1989). However, strategy use is not the only factor affecting learning outcome. “Students' reading achievement is highly related to their perceived self-efficacy” (Shang, 2010, p. 36). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is people's judgements

about their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances (p.391). To Li and Wang (2010), reading self-efficacy is “learners’ perceptions of their reading abilities to perform various reading tasks, such as grasping the main idea, guessing the meaning of an unknown word, and inferring the authors’ attitudes from the article” (p. 146).

As mentioned earlier, reading receives a special focus in foreign language teaching. Therefore the present study focuses on the relationship between metacognitive strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of students and their effect on reading achievement. This study investigates only metacognitive strategies as it is the most frequently used category and the other learning strategies are considered to be outside the context of this study.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As Alyas (2011) stated “There may be different reasons for failure in learning a second or foreign language, or more specifically in reading academic texts at a reasonable rate and with good comprehension. The lack of using metacognitive strategies is considered one of these reasons.” (p.7). Also, as mentioned earlier, another factor affecting student’s learning outcome is self-efficacy. However, there are a few studies conducted in Turkey with Turkish learners of English providing information about students’ use of reading strategies and how this is related to their self-efficacy beliefs and English reading achievement. In this respect, this study is designed to be more specific than the previous studies by combining metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of students.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The principal aim of the research is to find out whether there is a relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of first grade ELT students at Hacettepe University. Also, the other aim is to examine if metacognitive strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs of students affect their achievement in reading and to find out whether female ELT students differ from male ELT students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs.

1.4. Research Questions

This study aims to examine the relationship between metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs of students and investigate the relationships

between these two constructs on the reading achievement. The questions guiding this study are provided below:

- 1) What metacognitive reading strategies are mostly employed by ELT students?
- 2) What are ELT students' self –efficacy beliefs in developing reading skills?
- 3) What is the relationship between ELT students' use of metacognitive reading strategies and their self-efficacy beliefs?
- 4) Is there any statistically significant correlation between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and
 - a) overview and linking with already known material strategy,
 - b) paying attention strategy,
 - c) directed attention strategy,
 - d) selective attention strategy,
 - e) advance organizing strategy,
 - f) setting goals and objectives strategy,
 - g) identifying the purpose of a language task strategy,
 - h) planning for a language task strategy,
 - i) seeking practice opportunities strategy,
 - j) self-management strategy,
 - k) self-monitoring strategy, and
 - l) self-evaluating strategy?
- 5) Do female students differ from male students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs?
- 6) Is there any statistically significant correlation between ELT students' achievement in reading and
 - a) their use of metacognitive reading strategies,
 - b) their self-efficacy beliefs?

1.5. Significance of the Study

As stated before it is certain that reading skill plays a crucial role in students' success or failure in their learning English as a second or foreign language. Also, there is an intimate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs of students and effective learning. Therefore, raising students' awareness of the metacognitive strategies in reading and improving their self-efficacy beliefs is very important. The findings from the study are expected to be significant in demonstrating the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading and their effect on reading achievement. Moreover, it is supposed to facilitate Turkish ELT learners' reading comprehension by providing English teachers with more insights into ELT students' reading strategy instruction and reading self-efficacy beliefs.

1.6. Assumptions and Limitations

Although the study is assumed to disclose some interesting results that may be useful for EFL reading instruction, it has several limitations. First of all, although the students reported their use of some strategies by answering the questions in the questionnaire, it is not certain if they really use these strategies or not. Secondly, as the study was conducted at ELT department which is female-dominant, the group was non-homogenous in terms of gender disturbance. Lastly, in order to find out if there is a correlation between metacognitive reading strategy use, self-efficacy beliefs in reading and achievement in reading, the correlation between the students' grades in Advance Reading Skills I course and the answers they gave in the questionnaire was calculated. However, as the researcher was not the instructor of the course, the exams (Midterm and final exam) were not prepared by the researcher. Because of this, some of the sections in the exam did not make the students use metacognitive reading strategies, which may have affected the result of the study.

1.7. Key Words

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): Study of English which is not a necessary or official language in the student's own country (Cook, 2003, p.7).

English as a Second Language (ESL): Study of English as the official language of student's society, which is not the student's main or home language (Cook, 2003, p.7).

English Language Teaching (ELT): The teaching of English to people for whom is not the first language (Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary, 2010).

Reading Skill: It is defined as the receptive process of written communication (Goodman, 1995). It is also defined as "converting print into language and then to the message intended by the author" (Koda, 2007, p. 1).

Foreign Language Reading: It is the name usually given to the practices of reading skill in foreign language learning/teaching contexts (Alyas, 2011).

Second Language Reading: It is defined as the practices of reading skill by non-native speakers/readers of a language in an environment where the language is the primary means for communication (Alyas, 2011).

Reading Strategies: According to Abbott (2006) reading strategies are the mental operations or comprehension processes that readers select and apply in order to make sense of what they read.

Metacognitive Strategies: Metacognition can be defined as "thinking about thinking" (Livingstone, 1997) so metacognitive strategies are the strategies that function to monitor or regulate cognitive strategies (Civelek & Özek, 2006).

Self-efficacy Beliefs: Bandura (1994) defines self-efficacy as people's beliefs about their capabilities.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter firstly describes reading process and its types, language learning strategies with special reference to metacognitive reading strategies. Additionally, self-efficacy beliefs of students under social cognitive theory are covered in detail. Also, previous studies conducted on language learning strategies, reading strategies, metacognitive strategies and self-efficacy beliefs have been mentioned.

2.1. Reading Process and Its Types

Reading is the most important skill in foreign language teaching as it helps learners to expose to the target language and receive L2 input in order to produce the target language correctly and fluently.

Although some researchers define reading as “a single-factor process such as passive, active or interactive” (Wallace, 2001, p. 22), Anderson (1999) considers it as “an active and fluent process” (p. 2). Some researchers see reading as a complicated process and they claim that reading is a complex cognitive activity and it requires combination of “attention, memory, perceptual processes, and comprehension processes” and it is influenced by linguistic & cognitive, social & cultural and affective & motivational factors (Lu, 1989; Xu, 1999, Alfassi, 2004; Zhang, 1993).

Goodman (1970) draws a psycholinguistic model for reading and he proposes that “reading is not simply a process of picking up information from the page in a letter-by-letter, word- by-word manner” (p. 261). Rather, he argues that reading is “a selective process” (p. 261). He claims that “readers sample the texts, make and test hypotheses and predictions by relying on their own background knowledge of the text's content and their background knowledge about how language works” (p. 262).

Although some researchers define reading as a hidden process which is usually not noticed in the classroom (Block, 1992), to be able to teach foreign or second language reading well, EFL/ESL teachers need to know as much as possible about how the reading process works and how to integrate that knowledge effectively into their reading pedagogy (Barnett, 1989). So, before talking about

reading strategies in detail, it would be a good idea to examine reading process and its types.

2.1.1. Top-down and Bottom-up processes

Sarıçoban (2002) states that according to schema theory, “comprehending a text is an interactive process between the readers’ background knowledge and the text’s itself” (p. 7). Psychologists divided this process into two parts as top-down and bottom up processing (Treiman, 2001). Both terms refer to models which demonstrate how the human brain goes about processing texts (Cicerchia, 2014).

Cicerchia (2014) defines top-down processing as the activity of trying to understand the big picture of what you are reading. She also defines top-down reading as reading for gist. McKenzie-Brown (2006) claims that in top-down processing, the learner’s prior knowledge and experience are activated to infer, predict and anticipate meaning. Lee (n.d.) adds that top-down model is actually a whole-language teaching approach. He claims that readers focus on the context, and manage to construct meanings in the text. Some researchers claim that during top-down processing, readers form hypotheses about which words they will encounter and take in only just enough visual information to test their hypotheses (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1971). Nuttal (1996) uses the pictures in figure 2.1 and 2.2 to define top-down and bottom-up processes.



Figure 2.1: Top-down processing

By using the picture in figure 2.1., he claims that reader is like an eagle overlooking the landscape and seeing everything better from the top (Nuttal, 1996).

Cicerchia (2014) defines bottom-up processing as reading for detail. She states that with bottom-up processing, you start with the smallest units of language,

meaning letters, words, clauses and phrases and try to understand what they mean before fitting them into the larger text. She adds that with the help of bottom-up processing the reader collects all kinds of new vocabulary from what s/he reads in a second language and enhances her/his understanding of grammar and how phrases function in different contexts. Reutzel & Cooter (2013) liken bottom-up processing to solving a jigsaw puzzle. They claim that the reading puzzle is solved by beginning with an examination of each piece of the puzzle and then putting pieces together to make a picture. McKenzie-Brown (2006) states that when someone reads, s/he starts from the bottom (the sounds they hear and the letters they encounter) and uses her/his knowledge of grammatical, syntactic and lexical rules to identify meaning.



Figure 2.2: Bottom-up processing

In the figure 2.2., Nuttal (1996) likens bottom-up processing to “... a scientist with a magnifying glass or microscope examining all the minute details of some phenomenon” (p. 16).

Cicerchia (2014) declares that learning to employ top-down and bottom-up strategies can make learners more efficient readers. Some researchers indicate that because they are complementary, there should be a conscious balance between top-down and bottom-up processing to ensure the accurate and rapid processing of information (Cicerchia, 2014; McKenzie-Brown, 2006; Anderson, 2008; Treiman, 2001).

2.1.2. Intensive Reading

Harmer (2007) defines intensive reading as “teacher chosen and directed” (p. 17). He states that “intensive reading is designed to help students develop some specific receptive skills like reading for gist, reading for specific information,

reading for detailed comprehension and reading for inference” (p. 17). Yamashita (2004) agrees with Harmer and adds that intensive reading generally includes a slower reading of small amount of materials and translation exercises in a foreign language situation. Texas Centre for the advancement of Literacy and Learning (TCALL) states that intensive reading is not a careful, single reading, but is a method. It lists a number of principles for intensive reading.

(1) Overview: It is concerned with reading only the important parts.

(2) Purpose: The reader states to her/himself what s/he wishes to get from the reading.

(3) Questions: After the reader overviews and plans the purpose, some important concepts in the reading are asked like who, what, when, why, and how.

(4) Reading: Reading here means not only the familiar line-by-line reading, but line-by-line reading that is guided by the reader’s purpose and questions.

(5) Summarize: It consists of organizing the ideas and supporting points.

(6) Test: The reader tests her/himself to check whether s/he can recall rather than just recognize the answers.

2.1.3. Extensive Reading

Although intensive reading is teacher chosen and directed, in extensive reading teacher encourages students to choose what they read. Whereas intensive reading aims to develop some specific skills, extensive reading is done for pleasure and general language development (Harmer, 2007). Yamashita (2004) claims that when it is compared to intensive reading programmes, in extensive reading students read simpler materials and they are supposed to read a large amount of text while enjoying reading. Richards and Schmidt (2002) claim that “the goal of extensive reading is to develop good reading habits, give knowledge of structure and vocabulary and to make students like reading” (p. 222). Krashen (1993) adds that extensive reading is a key to students gain in reading ability, linguistic competence, vocabulary, spelling and writing. Researchers state some fundamental conditions for a successful extensive reading programme. Harmer (2007) claims that students should read materials that they can understand. Day and Bamford (2002) list ten principles:

(1) *The reading material is easy:*

For extensive reading, the reading material should be suitable for the linguistic and knowledge constraints of learners.

(2) *A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available:*

Different kind of reading materials such as books, magazines, newspapers, fiction, and non-fiction should be used to awaken or encourage a desire to read.

(3) *Learners choose what they want to read:*

Learners should select texts that they can understand, enjoy or learn from. This encourages students to become responsible for their own learning.

(4) *Learners read as much as possible:*

To be able to achieve the benefits of extensive reading, the learners should read at least a book weekly.

(5) *The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding:*

Learners are encouraged to read for the same kinds of reasons as in the first-language; for obtaining information, enjoyment of a story, or passing time.

(6) *Reading is its own reward:*

Instead of following reading with comprehension questions, the teacher may ask students to complete follow-up activities related to their reading to find out what the student understood and experienced from the reading.

(7) *Reading speed is usually faster:*

The learners read faster and understand better. The teachers should discourage students from using dictionaries.

(8) *Reading is individual and silent:*

Silent, individual extensive reading helps students to discover that reading is a personal interaction.

(9) Teachers orient and guide their students:

Teachers should introduce extensive reading to the students. They should explain that extensive reading will contribute to their reading proficiency and it will lead to overall gains in language learning.

(10) The teacher is a role model of a reader:

The teachers are themselves readers in extensive reading programmes. They teach by example the attitudes and behaviours of a reader.

2.2. Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are involved in all learning, regardless of the content and context. They are used in learning and teaching Maths, science, history, languages and other subjects, both in classroom settings and more informal learning environments (Clouston, 1997). Although learning strategies have been used by learners for thousands of years, researchers have been interested in these strategies for a couple of decades (Oxford, 1990). Researchers started working on learning strategies when they realized that although learners expose to the same teaching methods and learning environments, some of them are more successful than others at learning a second or foreign language (Rubin, 1975). Many researchers tried to find out the reasons why some learners are better at learning than the others and what makes them more successful. Their research gave the answer as language learning strategies.

It is difficult for researchers to define language learning strategies as there are some discussions about whether language learning strategies are behavioural (observable), mental (unobservable) or both (Liang, 2009). For this reason, researchers describe language learning strategies in slightly different ways. Some researchers who are interested in cognitive science or language learning define the term 'strategy' as 'technique', 'tactic' and 'skills' (Liang, 2009, p. 200). Rubin (1975) proposes a definition for language learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire the language" (p. 43), which can be accepted as the earliest definition for language learning strategies. Similar to Rubin's definition, Karbelaei (2011) declares that "language learning strategies are operations or processes that learners apply to learn the target language" (p. 5). Oxford (1990) gives a more comprehensive definition by defining language

learning strategies as “specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills” (p.18).

Karbalaei (2011) announces that “most current research about learning strategies has been conducted either through the metacognitive, cognitive, socio-affective scheme used by O’Malley, Chamot and others (O’Malley & Chamot,1990) or through the framework developed by Oxford (Oxford, 1990)” (p. 8). Although Oxford (1990) admits that “there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined and categorised; and whether it is possible to create a real hierarchy of strategies” (p.20) , Oxford (1990) and O’Malley and Chamot (1990)’s categorization of learning strategies contributed much to the literature on learning strategies. By the 1990s, Oxford (1990) and O’Malley and Chamot (1990) categorized learning strategies into two sections. While O’Malley and Chamot (1990) list learning strategies in three categories; metacognitive, cognitive and social / affective; Oxford (1990) divides them into six types under the two main groups of direct and indirect strategies. The following figure shows Oxford’s (1990) classification of language learning strategies.

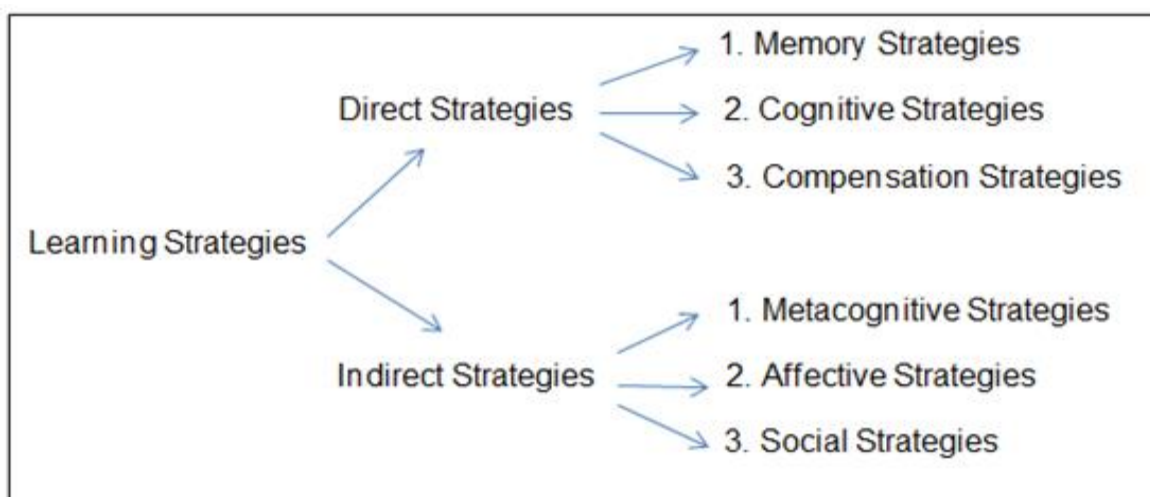


Figure 2.3: Organization of Language Learning Strategies

Direct strategies directly involve the target language while the indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning. Direct language learning strategies consist of three types of strategies as memory (how students remember language), cognitive (how students think about their learning) and compensation (enabling students to make up for limited knowledge); whereas indirect strategies include three different types of strategies as metacognitive (how students manage their own learning), affective (students' feelings) and social (learning by interaction with others). As it was stated before, students can improve their comprehension with the help of language learning strategies. Therefore, a short explanation of these strategies is needed for a better understanding of them.

2.2.1. Memory Strategies

“Memory strategies help learners remember and retrieve information” (Oxford, 1990, p. 43). Learners do not need a deep understanding of the L2 item (Oxford, 2003).

Oxford (1990) lists some memory-related techniques:

Retrieving information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), learning via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard). (p. 43)

2.2.2. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies can be defined as “the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving, which require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials” (Şahan, 2010, p. 30). Şahan (2010) claims that cognitive strategies are different from metacognitive strategies in that they may not be applied to all types of learning tasks. Rather, cognitive strategies are more directly connected with individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials (Brown & Palincsar, 1982). Oxford (1990) argues that “cognitive strategies include note taking, formal practice with the specific points of the target language like sounds and sentence structure, summarizing, paraphrasing, predicting, analysing, and using context clues” (p. 45). İlk (2012) adds that adjusting one's speed of reading when according to the material's difficulty, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and re-reading the text for a better comprehension are also cognitive strategies that the readers use.

2.2.3. Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies enable learners to make up for missing knowledge. They include “guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and “talking around” the missing word to aid speaking and writing; and using gestures or pause words for speaking” (Oxford, 2003, p. 47).

2.2.4. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive knowledge can be defined as “knowledge about cognition and the self-regulation of cognition” (Baker & Brown, 1984, p. 355).

Oxford (2003) indicates:

While achieving the learning process, learners apply metacognitive strategies through identifying their own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy. (p. 48)

2.2.5. Affective Strategies

Affective strategies help learners to mention about feelings, to become aware of their mood and anxiety level, to reward themselves for good performance and to use deep breathing or positive self-talk (Oxford, 2003). Oxford (2001b) claims that affective strategies are divided into three titles as “lowering your anxiety, encouraging oneself and taking your emotional temperature” (p. 168).

2.2.6. Social Strategies

Social strategies assist learners to work with others and understand the target culture and language by enabling learners to ask questions to get confirmation, to request clarification of the point when they are confused, to demand assistance in doing a language task, to take part in a conversation with a native speaker partner, and to explore cultural and social norms (Oxford, 2003).

2.2.7. Studies on Language Learning Strategies

Towards the end of 1970s, language learning strategies have started to be popular among ESL/EFL researchers and they conducted a great deal of research to investigate the relationship between success and language learning strategies. According to the results they obtained, some researchers (Griffiths, 2004; Khan, 2012; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2008) claim that there is a considerable relationship between language learning strategies and language proficiency. They

stated that more proficient language learners use strategies more regularly and effectively than less proficient learners.

Some researchers examined the relationship between gender and strategy use but they have found mixed conclusions. Some of them claim that men and women do not show differences in language learning strategy use, while some found that women tend to use more language learning strategies than men (Griffiths, 2004).

Griffiths and Parr (2000) investigated the correlation between nation and language learning strategy use. They found out that European students use language learning strategies more frequently than the students of other nationalities.

2.3. Reading Strategies

According to the proficiency framework established by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), reading is valued as a receptive skill in which the reader actively produces understanding (Byrnes, 1985). However, because they are not proficient enough in target language and they do not have enough knowledge about grammar and vocabulary, ESL and EFL students are generally at a disadvantage in reading. As a result, readers should make use of some reading strategies in order to handle with comprehension problems.

Goodman (1988) explains that reading is a meaning-making process and he adds that there is an interaction between the reader and the text and readers use mental activities to be able to construct meaning from the text. However, as second or foreign language learners lack of linguistic or cultural knowledge, reading process can be more demanding (Bouvet, 2000). To be able to comprehend the text better, foreign language learners need to apply learning strategies while reading (Alderson, 1984).

Brown (1994) states that “strategies are specific “attacks” which learners apply when they face with a problem” (p.45). Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001) define reading strategies as “deliberate, conscious procedures used by readers to enhance text comprehension” (p. 433). Uzunçakmak (2005) presents a simple definition for reading strategies by explaining them as techniques used by readers to comprehend better. Barnett (1988) argues that reading strategies are processes for making sense of the text and she adds that “they include skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning,

predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting ideas” (p. 155).

2.3.1. Studies on Reading Strategies

An old proverb says that give a man a fish and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime. When this proverb is interpreted according to the field of language teaching, it can be said that if the teacher is always there to answer the students’ questions and help them with their problem, the problem is solved for a short time. However, if they are taught about language learning and reading strategies, they can always handle with their problems. Therefore, since the early seventies, researchers in the area of foreign / second language teaching have focused on teaching the students how to use a variety of language strategies in order to read better (Singhal, 2001).

Hosenfeld (1977) conducted a study to investigate the reading strategies used by successful and unsuccessful language learners. She used a think-aloud procedure to find out the relations between certain types of reading strategies and successful or unsuccessful second language reading. She found that successful readers kept the meaning of the passage in mind while reading, read in broad phrases, skipped less important words, and had a positive self-concept as a reader whereas unsuccessful readers lost the meaning of the sentences, seldom skipped unimportant words, and had a negative self-concept. Singhal, (2001) supports the other researchers and states that successful readers tended to use a wider range of strategies and to use them more frequently and appropriately than unsuccessful readers.

Some researchers searched for the relationship between age, proficiency level and strategy use. Garner (1987) and Waxman & Padron (1988) found that younger and less proficient students use fewer strategies and use them less effectively in their reading comprehension. Also, Civelek and Özek (2006) conducted a study to compare the strategy use of 1st and 4th year students. The results indicated that 4th year students tended to use the strategies of relating the title to the text content, reading without translating and also they did not classify the words according to their meanings whereas 1st year students used the

strategies of guessing the meaning of a word from the context, assimilating the text with background information, and reading the first line of each paragraph.

Abbott (2006) searched for the differences in strategy use of students from different nations. She studied with Chinese and Arabic EFL learners and found that Chinese readers tended to use bottom-up reading strategies whereas Arabic ones followed top-down reading strategies by the support of their teachers.

Some researchers claim that reading comprehension requires the integration and application of multiple strategies or skills. Those strategies include memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social, and test-taking strategies (Caverley, 1997; O'Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, 1990; Zhang, 1993). However, the most frequently used category is metacognitive strategies (Li & Wang, 2010). Therefore, for the research purpose, metacognitive strategies was selected and described as below.

2.4. Metacognition and Metacognitive Reading Strategies

The term "metacognition" was first introduced by John Flavell (Williams & Burden, 1997) and there are several definitions for metacognition. Karbalaei (2011) interprets the term metacognition as "one's understanding and control of any cognitive process" (p. 6). Some researchers define metacognitive knowledge as the knowledge about cognition and the self-regulation of cognition (Baker & Brown, 1984, p. 355) and Taraban, Kerr and Rynearson (2004) claim that metacognition depends on directed cognitive effort (p. 70).

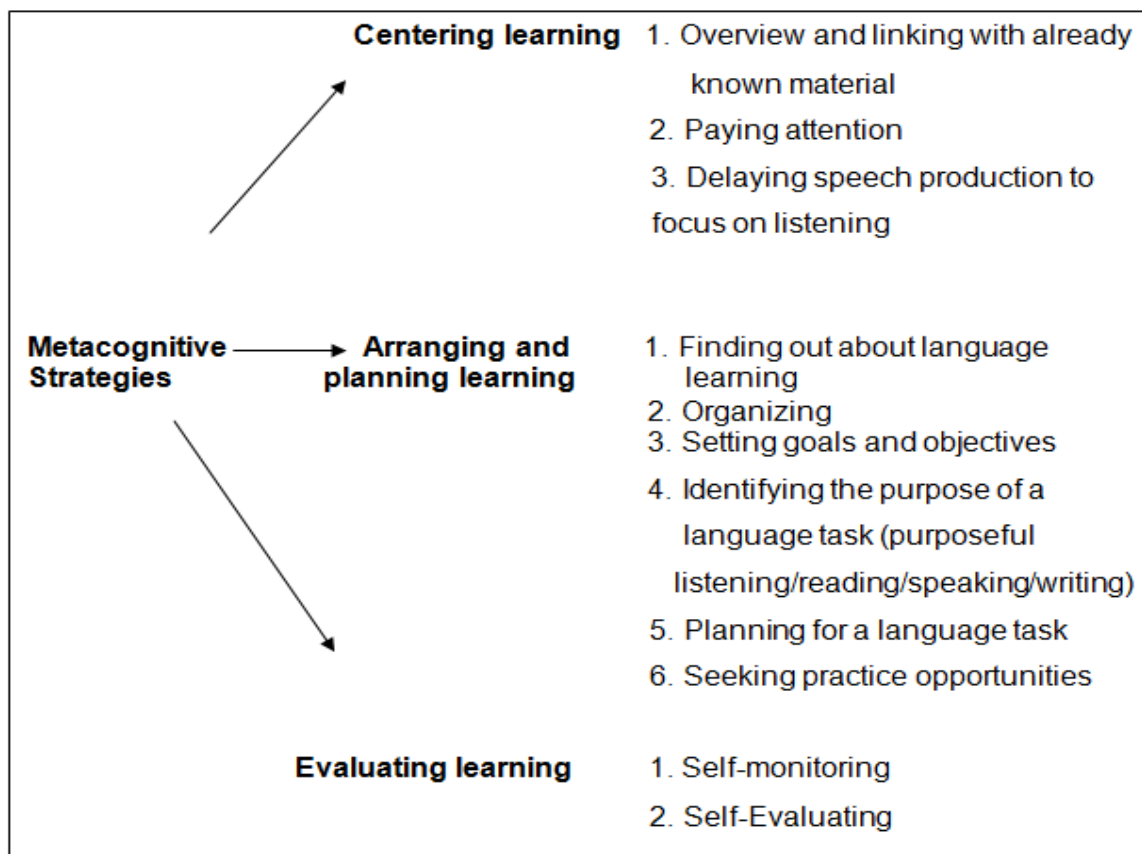
Öz (2005) states "metacognition is an internal process that has a direct bearing on students' learning experiences" (p. 9). O' Malley and Chamot (1990) claim that students without metacognitive approaches are learners without direction and they lack the opportunity to analyse their development, achievement, and future learning directions. Karbalaei (2011) adds "one reason why metacognition is important is that if learners are not aware of when comprehension is breaking down and what they can do about it, strategies introduced by the teacher will fail" (p. 6). Pressley, Snyder & Cariglia-Bull (1987) suggest that metacognition allows students to be aware of what they have learned, to identify circumstances in which it would be useful, and develop in using it. According to research on the reading strategies used by successful and less successful readers, most of the

comprehension activities of successful readers take place at the metacognitive level (Carrell, Gajdusek, & Wise, 1998; Hudson, 2007). Therefore, it can be said that metacognition plays a crucial role in reading.

In addition to being defined in several ways by the researcher, metacognitive strategies are also classified in different ways. Karbalaei (2011) claims that metacognitive strategies involve awareness and control of planning, monitoring, repairing, revising, summarizing, and evaluating. Pintrich (1999) proposes three strategy sets as planning, monitoring, and regulating. Similar to Pintrich' classification, Oxford (1990) proposes three types of strategies as centering, arranging - planning, and evaluating the learning whereas O'Malley et al. (1985b, p. 582) present a more detailed classification as "advance organizing, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation". The current study is based on both Oxford's (1990) and O'Malley's et al. (1985b) classification as their categorization contributed much to the literature on language learning strategies.

The tables below show Oxford's (1990) and O'Malley's et al. (1985b) classification for metacognitive learning strategies.

Table 2.1: Metacognitive Strategies Classifications According to Oxford



Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. USA: Pearson Longman (5th ed).

Table 2.2: Metacognitive Strategies Classifications of O'Malley et al

<i>Metacognitive Strategies</i>	<i>Description</i>
Advance organizing	Previewing the organizing concept or principle in general in an anticipated learning activity.
Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to avoid distracters.
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to focus on specific aspects of the language input.
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that suit one's learning and arrange for the presence of those conditions.
Functional planning	Planning and rehearsing linguistic elements necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
Self-monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness according to the setting or the people around.
Delayed production	Consciously deciding to delay speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension.
Self-evaluation	Checking the language output against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.

Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. USA: Pearson Longman (5th ed).

In reading, metacognition refers to the awareness of one's own reading processes (Brown, 1980). Therefore, when it comes to reading, it is more common to talk about metacognitive awareness (what one knows) (Karbalaei, 2011). Mokhtari & Reichards (2002) define metacognitive awareness as "the knowledge of the readers' cognition about reading and the self-control mechanisms they exercise when monitoring and regulating text comprehension" (p. 49). By means of metacognitive strategies, a reader gives significant attention to controlling, monitoring, and evaluating the reading process (Pressley, Brown, El-Dinary, & Afflerbach, 1995). Taraban, Kerr and Rynearson (2004) add "the metacognitive reader plans the reading task, monitors whether a coherent representation of the text is being maintained, and adopts different processing strategies related to the goals and outcomes of ongoing reading" (p.68).

2.4.1. Studies on Metacognition and Metacognitive Strategies

The reason why students find reading skill difficult and why they sometimes have difficulty in understanding reading text is an issue that needs to be answered to

help students be more successful in reading. Therefore, researchers in second and foreign language teaching have begun to concentrate on the role of metacognitive strategies in reading and numerous studies about metacognition and metacognitive strategy use have been carried out.

Some researchers investigated the relationship between metacognitive strategy use and language proficiency. Related to this, it was found that more proficient readers use metacognitive reading strategies more efficiently (Anderson 1991; Baird, 1998; Cohen, 1988; Grabe, 1991; Kaylani 1996; Meichenbaum & Biemiller, 1998; Paris & Winograd, 1990; (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). However, Green (1991) obtained different results from a study about the relationship between strategy use and proficiency. He studied 213 students of English and found that high proficiency students used more strategies than low proficiency ones, but moderately proficient students used more strategies than either high or low proficiency students. Also, Anderson (1991) investigated the kinds of strategies the students use and he reported that both high and low scoring readers use nearly the same kinds of strategies, but high scoring students use strategies more effectively and appropriately than low scoring students.

Sarıçoban and Alyas (2012) searched for the relationship between metacognitive strategies and learner autonomy in EFL reading. They discovered that there were significant relations between metacognitive reading strategies and reading autonomy and metacognitive reading strategies played an important role in fostering reading autonomy.

According to the research they conducted on bilingual children's metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness, Garcia et al. (1998) claim that "successful bilingual readers can use the information and strategies learned or acquired in one language to comprehend a text written in another language while the less successful bilingual readers believed that the two languages were not similar and the knowledge of one was not useful for reading the others (p. 204). Also, they saw the two languages as unconnected, so they did not believe it was important to evoke strategies such as searching for cognates, code mixing, and translation.

Yığıter, Sarıçoban and Gürses (2005) conducted a study to identify what strategies good ELT and EFL readers employ in pre-, during- and post reading stages in

classroom language learning. The preparatory ELT students at a state university in Turkey and the preparatory EFL students at a different state university in Turkey took part in the study. The results they obtained indicated that although good ELT and EFL readers used the same strategies in pre-reading stage, they differed in while- and post-reading stages.

Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) carried out a study to find out whether there are significant differences between first and second language readers in their metacognitive awareness and perceived use of specific strategies while reading. 350 college students (141 US and 209 Moroccan) participated in the study. According to the results, the two student groups reported remarkably similar patterns of strategy awareness and reported usage when reading academic texts in English. There were some small differences. Moroccan students reported using certain types of strategies more often than did their American counterparts.

Some researchers investigated the relationship between metacognitive strategies and other individual differences like age, gender, English learning experience and motivation. Grabe (1991) found out that older ESL students tend to use metacognitive strategies in their learning more efficiently. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) worked with 105 United States (US) and English as Second language (ESL) university students in the US to investigate the differences in the metacognitive awareness, perceived use of reading strategies and gender. They found that US female students reported a significantly higher usage of reading strategies than did their male counterparts, and that the use of reading strategies was associated with higher levels of reading ability for both groups of students. However, in their study with 213 ELT students in Turkey Sariçoban and Alys (2012) found no significant difference between students according to their gender, age and metacognitive reading strategy use. As for the English learning experience, they found a significant relationship between two metacognitive reading strategies (paying attention and self-evaluating) and English learning experience. Among the other individual variables, motivation is seen as one the most important one (Mendi, 2009), so some researchers examined the relationship between the use of metacognitive strategies and motivation. They found that claim that motivational variables can promote metacognitive strategy use (Bonney et al., 2008; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989).

2.5. Social Cognitive Theory

While behaviourism explains human behaviour according to stimulus response sequences, social learning theorists take both environmental and behavioural factors into consideration to define the nature of human behaviour (Bandura, 1997). Personal, behavioural, and environmental influences form the core of Bandura's social cognitive theory (Pajares, 2002a). According to this learning theory, human behaviour is a result of the interaction between personal factors, behaviour, and the environment (Bandura, 1986). He argues that "the things people think, believe, and feel affect their behaviour" (Bandura, 1986, p. 21). Social cognitive theory is based on the idea that "people are producers as well as products of social systems" (Bandura, 2001, p. 1). In his social cognitive theory, Bandura (1997) claims that humans can regulate their behaviour. Pajares (2002a) explains Bandura's claim "individuals possess a system of self-beliefs that enables them to exercise control over their thoughts, feelings and actions" (p. 6). In his theory, Bandura (2001) emphasises the importance of cognitive concepts. He focuses on both a person's cognitive operation in a social experience and the effect of cognition on his/her behaviour. Instead of overemphasizing biological aspects, he thinks that human agency and environmental factors are equally important in understanding human change and adaptation.

In his social cognitive theory, Bandura (1986) puts self-regulatory factors at the centre of human functioning. He argues that human behaviour is not only determined by external factors but people have the ability to contribute to their own feelings, actions, and thoughts through self-directedness. In addition, social cognitive theory underlines the importance of one's self-efficacy beliefs in one's self-regulatory skills. Therefore, the following section emphasizes the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in social cognitive theory.

2.5.1. Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The questions asking the reason why students choose some tasks and stay away from others, why they are successful in some but not in others, and why they approach some tasks with interest and others with panic have led the researchers to study students' self-beliefs. The beliefs the students have about themselves are believed to be the key components for academic success or failure. Therefore, self-efficacy is believed to be the vital part of the motivation (Pintrich & Schunk,

1996). The 'self-efficacy' construct was first introduced by Albert Bandura and it is at the heart of social cognitive theory which was put forward by Bandura in 1977 (Baloğlu, 2011). Baloğlu (2011), Saçıcı (2013), Pintrich and Schunk (1996), and Bandura (1986, 1997) define self-efficacy as beliefs in one's capabilities to succeed in a particular situation. He describes these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (Bandura, 1997).

2.5.1.1. Effects of self-efficacy

In addition to being vital in a variety of domains of life including mental health, health behaviour, decision making, sales performance in business, athletic performance, career choices; self-efficacy beliefs are also very important for academic achievement (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Academic self-efficacy is defined as a student's belief in his/her ability to accomplish academic tasks at different levels (Bandura, 1997; Bandura & Barbaranelli, 1996). Bandura and Locke (2003) state that people can be different from each other in terms of their level of self-efficacy beliefs for the same or different tasks or a person can feel self-efficacious for some tasks but not for the others and Bandura (1997) claims that low performance in academic tasks may stem from either the lack of required skills or low self-efficacy beliefs. He argues that the ones with high self-efficacy see a task not as a threat but as a challenge to be better. They see difficult tasks as motivating. When they face difficulties, they focus on how they can overcome those challenges, and they can easily feel efficacious again. When they fail, they do not blame external and environmental factors. They think that the failure is the result of inadequate effort into the activity they were engaged in. Moreover, they target more challenging goals for their future performance. However, the ones with low self-efficacy stay away from difficult tasks as they see them as threats. They do not trust in their ability to handle with the task and they worry too much about their incapability and the difficulty of the task, so they do not put much effort into the task, and they quit when they encounter difficulties. As a result, they feel stressed and even depressed (Bandura, 1995, p. 8, 1997, p. 20). Ekizoglu and Özçınar (2010) also claim that a person with a high perceived self-efficacy tries hard to achieve something. That is to say, "students with high self-efficacy tend to be more successful and successful students tend to have higher self-efficacy beliefs" (Tilfarlıoğlu & Cinkara, 2009, p.136).

2.5.1.2. Sources of self-efficacy

Bandura (1997) points out that self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by four main sources. These are enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal (social) persuasion, and physiological and affective states.

Enactive mastery experiences: Enactive mastery experiences can be defined as personal experiences of success or failure regarding the past performances. Therefore, they are considered to be the most powerful source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1997) claims that successful experiences encourage self-efficacy. He adds that after achieving difficult tasks, especially under difficult conditions, a positive sense of self-efficacy is developed (Bandura, 1986, 1995, 1997). However, “efficacy is not enhanced when success is achieved by means of extensive external assistance or an easy and unimportant task” (Tschannen-Moran et. al. 1998, p. 229).

Vicarious Experiences: Vicarious experiences refer to the comparison of one’s performance with another person’s who has similar capabilities (Palabiyik-Yeni, 2013). Bandura (1997) argues that when people are suspicious of their capabilities, vicarious experiences seem to play a more influential role in shaping people’s self-efficacy, even though enactive mastery experiences are accepted as the strongest source of people’s self-efficacy. He claims that when people observe the success of the other people who are similarly competent, their self-efficacy beliefs enhance and they infer that they will also be successful (Bandura, 1997). Similarly, when they watch the failure of others who have similar capabilities, their self-efficacy beliefs decline (Brown & Inouye, 1978). However, if the models they compare are different from them in terms of capabilities, self-efficacy beliefs are not much affected (Bandura, 1997). So, the key element here is the similarity because “one’s self-efficacy beliefs are affected by the similar model” (Bandura, 1997, p. 30).

Verbal Persuasion: Verbal persuasion is about the comments of others about one’s capabilities (Palabiyik-Yeni, 2013). Bandura (1997) states that if other people encourage and persuade someone that he or she can accomplish a task, this person’s self-efficacy beliefs are enhanced and it can be easier for her/him to struggle with challenges in performing the action. By contrast, discouraging and

demotivating verbal remarks may have negative effects on a person's self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura 1977, 1986, 1995, 1997).

Physiological and Affective States: Bandura (1995) claims that “physiological, affective, and mood states like increased heart rate, profuse sweating, fast breathing, high anxiety, nervousness, and tiredness can have considerable effects on self-efficacy” (p. 4). According to Bandura (1997), people interpret their emotional arousal differently and this affects their performance either positively or negatively. The ones who think that their emotional arousal is the result of personal deficiencies will lower their self-efficacy which causes failure (Bandura, 1997) whereas self-efficacious people feel that they are the indicators of energizing excitement and they are normal reactions that everyone can experience (Bandura, 1997). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2007) give an example of a teacher. When the teacher feels joy or pleasure from teaching a successful lesson, s/he may have higher self-efficacy. On the contrary, when s/he feels high levels of stress or anxiety and s/he is afraid of losing control, this may result in lower self-efficacy beliefs.

2.5.1.3. Studies on Self-Efficacy

As self-efficacy is an important factor in human behaviour, it is an appeal for many researchers from different fields like career choices, athletic performances, interpersonal relationships, career planning, self-regulation and teacher education (Açikel, 2011). Açikel (2011) claims that self-efficacy is the most effective self-belief on learning process. Therefore, it is one of the primary topics of language learning research studies as well.

A considerable amount of research has been done with EFL/ESL students from different countries and grades to examine the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievement of students. Most of the researchers found that students with high English self-efficacy were more successful in English (Duman, 2007; Huang & Chang 1996; Mahyuddin et al. 2006; Rahemi, 2007; Zimmerman et al., 1992). That is to say, according to the results obtained, there was a positive relationship between English self-efficacy belief and the achievement of students in English. However, some other researchers (Graham 2006; Schunk, 2003;

Wilhite, 1990) found no significant relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement.

Some researchers focused on the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and language skills like listening reading and writing. Rahimi and Abedini (2009) examined the relationship between learners' self-efficacy beliefs with regard to listening comprehension and listening proficiency. The results indicated there was a significant correlation between students' self-efficacy beliefs with regard to language learning and their listening proficiency. Similarly, Chen (2007) investigated the influence of English listening self-efficacy, English anxiety, and perceived value of English language and culture on EFL learners' English listening performance. The results showed that English listening self-efficacy was a better predictor of English listening performance than English listening anxiety and perceived value of English language and culture.

Huang and Chang (1996) studied on the relationship between reading and writing self-efficacy and achievement with four ESL students from highest level reading and writing classes. They found that students' self-efficacy is higher than their learning achievements and the participants' interest and the teacher's support affected their self-efficacy.

Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2007) conducted a study to examine the relationship between self-efficacy, anxiety, and gender on the listening and reading proficiency. The results of the study yielded that there was a significant relationship between reading self-efficacy and reading proficiency for all students and there was a relationship between listening self-efficacy and listening proficiency only for female students. In another study, Schunk and Rice (1993) examined self-efficacy regarding reading comprehension. The results showed that the students who got training to increase their self-efficacy enhanced both their self-efficacy and reading comprehension.

Özkasap (2009) tried to explore the extent to which Turkish university EFL students feel efficacious in regulating their English learning and the extent to which they feel responsibility for their English learning processes, and how these two constructs relate to each other. At the end of the study, she found out that Turkish university EFL students were moderately self-efficacious in regulating their English

learning and perceived themselves to be slightly more responsible than their teachers for their English learning processes. She also found out that there is a positive correlation between these two constructs.

The other focus of the researchers is the relationship between language learning strategies, reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs. In their study Magogwe and Oliver (2007) investigated the relationship between language learning strategies, proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs was investigated in an ESL context. The results indicated that there was a positive but weak relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and use of overall language learning strategies across all proficiency levels. Also, some researchers (Chamot et al., 1993; Li & Wang, 2010; Shang, 2010) examined the relationships between reading strategy use and perceived self-efficacy. The results of the study showed that there was a positive relationship between the use of reading strategies and perceptions of self-efficacy in most groups.

Sarıçoban and Serbez (2013) carried out a study from a different perspective. They investigated the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and being field-dependent or field-independent. They tried to find out which group's self-efficacy was higher. According to the results, they did not find a significant difference between the FI (Field Independent) and FD (Field Dependent) learners' self-efficacy beliefs.

Sarıçoban (2010) also searched for the views of both teachers and their students on teacher self-efficacy for classroom management in foreign language learning/teaching process. He found out that novice teachers had a moderately higher sense of teachers' self-efficacy in (a) helping students to think critically, (b) giving instructions, (c) classroom management issues and (d) evaluation and assessment, whereas students had a moderately higher sense of their teachers' self-efficacy only in teacher-student interaction.

2.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, a general view about reading process and its types, language learning strategies and metacognitive reading strategies have been explained. Then, the relationship between learning strategies & achievement and metacognitive strategies & reading comprehension has been given according to

previous research results. After that, social cognitive theory and self-efficacy beliefs of students have been defined. Additionally, the effects and sources of self-efficacy have been discussed. Finally, the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs of students and success has been explained with research evidence. However, few studies have examined the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of students. Therefore, there is a need for much more research to see if there is any relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs. In the next chapter, the methodology and data analysis procedures of the current study are mentioned.



3. METHODOLOGY

This study investigates the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students. In this chapter, the nature of the research methodology is explained by using a quantitative approach. Also, the design of the study, the participants, data collection tools, and data analysis procedures are presented.

3.1. Research Design

In this study, to be able to collect data, a questionnaire which consists of two parts was used. The first part was related to self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students which was designed by Pintrich et al. (1991) while the second part was related to metacognitive reading strategies which was designed by Alyas (2011) according to Oxford's and O'Malley et al.'s classifications of metacognitive learning strategies. The researcher didn't make any changes on the questionnaires prepared by Pintrich et al. and Alyas.

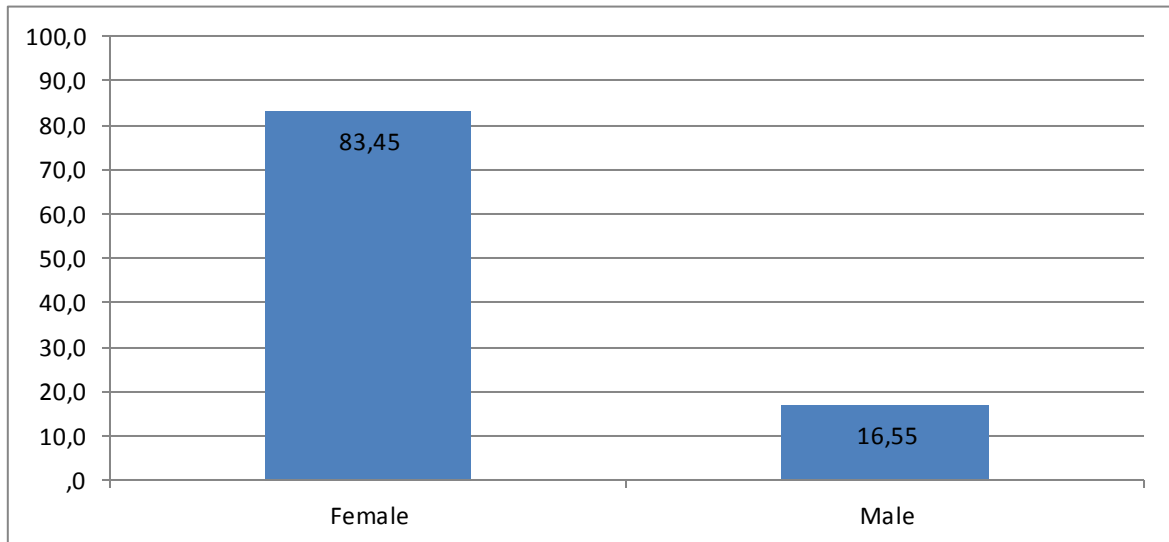
The study was conducted with first grade ELT students who took IDO 185 (Advanced Reading Skills I) course from Hacettepe University in the Fall semester of the 2013-2014 academic year. The results obtained were analysed to find out the effect of metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs on reading achievement, the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs and to show if female ELT students differ from male ELT students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs.

3.2. Participants

139 first class ELT students in English Language Teaching Department at Hacettepe University participated in the study. The participants were between 18 and 20 years of age and their level of English was B2 since they are assumed to have completed B1 level studies at The School of Foreign Languages or passed B1 level exemption test given by that school. Also, all of the participants voluntarily took part in the study.

Table 3.1: Distribution of the Participants According to Their Gender

	<i>Gender</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	
<i>Frequency</i>	116	23	139
<i>Percent</i>	83,45	16,55	100,0



Graphic 3.1: Distribution of the Participants According to Their Gender

Convenient sampling method was used to select participants in this study. The majority of the participants involved in this study were females; about 83.45% of the participants were females and 16.55% were males.

3.3. Instruments

As mentioned before, a questionnaire including two parts was given to the participants to see whether there is a relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students, if there is a relationship between metacognitive reading strategies, self-efficacy beliefs of students and their reading achievement and if female ELT students differ from male ELT students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs.

The first part is connected with self-efficacy beliefs of students. It was designed by Pintrich et al. (1991) and the reliability coefficient of the questionnaire is $\alpha = 0,93$. The second part is connected with metacognitive reading strategies. It was designed by Alyas (2011) according to Oxford's and O'Malley et al.'s classifications of metacognitive learning strategies and the reliability coefficient of

the questionnaire is $\alpha = 0,93$. The researcher did not make any changes or adaptations on the questionnaires.

Two parts of the questionnaire use a 5-point Likert scale. In the first part, the scale ranges from (strongly disagree) to (strongly agree). Participants' self-efficacy beliefs have been classified as low, mid and high. The point between 1-19 is accepted as low, the point between 20-29 is accepted as mid and the point between 30-40 is accepted as high level of self-efficacy. In the second part, the 5-point Likert scale ranges from (never) to (always). At the beginning of the questionnaire, which consisted of two parts, students were asked to report their demographic information.

The researcher conducted a pilot study with 30 ELT students at Hacettepe University. The pilot study illustrated that the questionnaire was comprehensive enough for the participants and it was at their level of understanding. With the help of the pilot study, the researcher found the reliability coefficient for the questionnaire by calculating the Cronbach Alpha Analysis. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha Analysis) for the two parts of the questionnaire were as follows:

Self-Efficacy part ($\alpha = 0.872$)

Metacognitive Reading Strategies part ($\alpha = 0.885$)

The researcher also calculated the Cronbach Alpha Analysis of the questionnaire after all of the participants (139) answered the questionnaire to see that whether the results changed when the number of the participants changed. The results changed positively, the reliability coefficients for the questionnaire were as follows:

Self-Efficacy part ($\alpha = 0.874$)

Metacognitive Reading Strategies part ($\alpha = 0.918$)

The overall reliability coefficients for the pilot study were $\alpha = 0.902$ and they were $\alpha = 0.930$ for the study's itself which meant the parts of the questionnaire "self-efficacy beliefs" and "metacognitive reading strategies" had a high level of reliability. As a result, it guaranteed the general reliability of the study.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

To be able to apply the questionnaires, Ethics Committee Approval was taken from Hacettepe University. The data were collected at the end of the Fall term of 2014-2015 academic year at Hacettepe University, English Language Teaching Department in İDO185 (Advanced Reading Skills I) course . Before the questionnaire was given, the participants were informed about the aims and purposes of the present study and they completed a consent form (see Appendix 2) to state that they participated in the study voluntarily.

During the data collection, both the researcher and the instructor of the course cooperated fully and willingly. The researcher and the instructor distributed the questionnaire to the students in the first 15 minutes of the lesson. The participants were asked to read each statement carefully and fill out the questionnaire with their truthful opinion.

The researcher asked the students to write their demographic information on the questionnaire, which was very important for the study to be able compare the students' self-efficacy beliefs-metacognitive reading strategies and reading achievement. She indicated that there were no correct or wrong answers and their answers had no effect on the grade they would take for the current course at the end of the term. She also assured that their answers and identities would definitely be kept confidential.

Although there was no time limit to answer the questionnaire, it took approximately 15 minutes to complete it. After the students completed the questionnaire, the researcher manually examined the completed copies. After that the usable ones were coded for analysis.

3.5. Data Analysis

As the current study is quantitative, the data obtained by means of a questionnaire were analysed quantitatively to find out if there is a relationship between metacognitive reading strategies – self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students and reading achievement and whether female ELT students differ from male ELT students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs. After examining the completed copies manually, the usable data were fed into the computer for the statistical analysis. The data were analysed with the use of

Predictive Analytics Software (PASW Statistics 18) which was a new version of SPSS by applying different measurement tools.

Descriptive Statistics were used to find out what metacognitive reading strategies are mostly employed by ELT students. In order to find what the ELT students' self-efficacy beliefs in reading are, descriptive statistics were used. Before employing descriptive statistics, self-efficacy beliefs of students were ranked as high, mid and low. Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) was used to see if there is any statistically significant relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Independent sample t-test was used to see if female ELT students differ from male ELT students in a) the use of metacognitive reading strategies, b) self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) was used to see if there is any significant relationship between ELT students' achievement in reading and a) metacognitive reading strategies, b) self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter firstly presented the design of the study. Following the design of the study, the participants under investigation, the instrument used in the study, the procedures followed during data collection and the method used while analysing the data were described elaborately. In the following chapter, the results of data analysis will be discussed and the findings of the study will be explained in detail.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the data analysis related to metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students. The results are given within the framework of the six research questions. To be able to analyse the data PASW Statistics 18 has been used. As mentioned before, the questionnaire consists of two parts. The research questions are as follows:

- 1) What metacognitive reading strategies are mostly employed by ELT students?
- 2) What are ELT students' self-efficacy beliefs in developing reading skills?
- 3) What is the relationship between ELT students' use of metacognitive reading strategies and their self-efficacy beliefs?
- 4) Is there any statistically significant correlation between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and
 - a) overview and linking with already known material strategy,
 - b) paying attention strategy,
 - c) directed attention strategy,
 - d) selective attention strategy,
 - e) advance organizing strategy,
 - f) setting goals and objectives strategy,
 - g) identifying the purpose of a language task strategy,
 - h) planning for a language task strategy,
 - i) seeking practice opportunities strategy,
 - j) self-management strategy,
 - k) self-monitoring strategy, and
 - l) self-evaluating strategy?
- 5) Do female students differ from male students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs?
- 6) Is there any statistically significant correlation between ELT students' achievement in reading and
 - a) their use of metacognitive reading strategies,
 - b) their self-efficacy beliefs?

4.1. Results and Discussions for Research Question 1

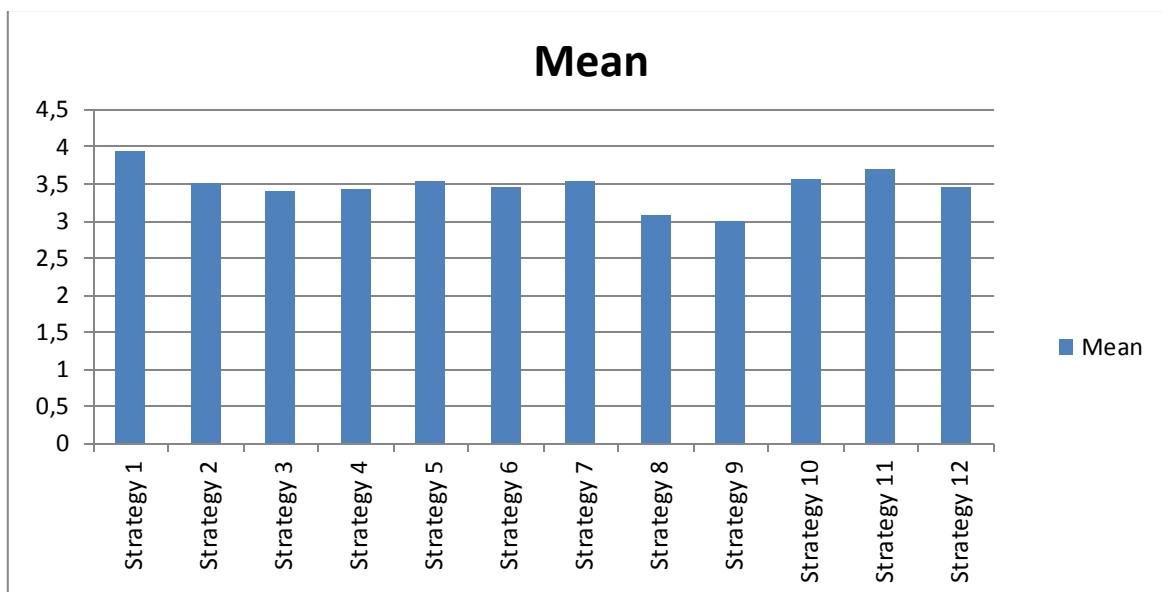
Research Question 1: What metacognitive reading strategies are mostly employed by ELT students?

To see what metacognitive reading strategy is employed most by the learners, descriptive statistics have been employed. In Table 4.1, the means of the students' responses for metacognitive reading strategies, standard deviation and standard error means were given and they were put in the table in descending order. Under the table below, the means of the students' responses for metacognitive reading strategies are shown in Graphic 4.1. The comments on the results are placed under the graphic.

The 12 different metacognitive strategies that are presented in the following table are as follows: *Strategy 1: overview and linking with already known material, Strategy 2: paying attention Strategy 3: directed attention, Strategy 4: selective attention, Strategy 5: advance organizing, Strategy 6: setting goals and objectives, Strategy 7: identifying the purpose of a language task, Strategy 8: planning for a language task, Strategy 9: seeking practice opportunities, Strategy 10: self-management, Strategy 11: self-monitoring, and Strategy 12: self-evaluating.*

Table 4.1: Learners' Preferences for the 12 Metacognitive Reading Strategies

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Strategy 1: overview and linking with already known material	3,93	139	,04904	,57818
Strategy 11: self-monitoring	3,70	139	,06437	,75896
Strategy 10: self-management	3,57	139	,05211	,61433
Strategy 5: advance organizing	3,53	139	,06497	,76602
Strategy 7: identifying the purpose of a language task	3,52	139	,07074	,83396
Strategy 2: Paying attention	3,51	139	,05565	,65608
Strategy 6: setting goals and objectives	3,46	139	,06682	,78778
Strategy 12: self-evaluating	3,44	139	,04897	,57730
Strategy 4: selective attention	3,44	139	,06307	,74361
Strategy 3: directed attention	3,40	139	,05974	,70429
Strategy 8: planning for a language task	3,07	139	,06249	,73673
Strategy 9: seeking practice opportunities	2,99	139	,07172	,84551



Graphic 4.2: Learners' Preferences for the 12 Metacognitive Reading Strategies

As seen in Table 4.1 and Graphic 4.1, “*overview and linking with already known material*” is the mostly employed strategy by ELT students. It is followed by *self-monitoring* (St 11), *self-management* (St 10), *advance organizing* (St 5), *identifying the purpose of a language task* (St 7), *paying attention* (St 2), *setting goals and objectives* (St 6), *self-evaluating* (St 12), *selective attention* (St 4), *directed attention* (St 3), *planning for a language task* (St 8). As for the least employed strategy, it is *seeking practice opportunities* (St 9).

Some possible reasons can be speculated on this result. While the students read a text, applying “*overview and linking with already known material*” helps them understand the text as this strategy activates their schemata. This may be the reason why they apply it more. As for the “*seeking practice opportunities*” strategy, students may not like sparing time for reading out of the class. However, a study based on this issue needs to be conducted in order to make a scientific comment on the reason why the learners favour *overview and linking with already known material* the most while they employ *seeking practice opportunities* the least.

4.2. Results and Discussions for Research Question 2

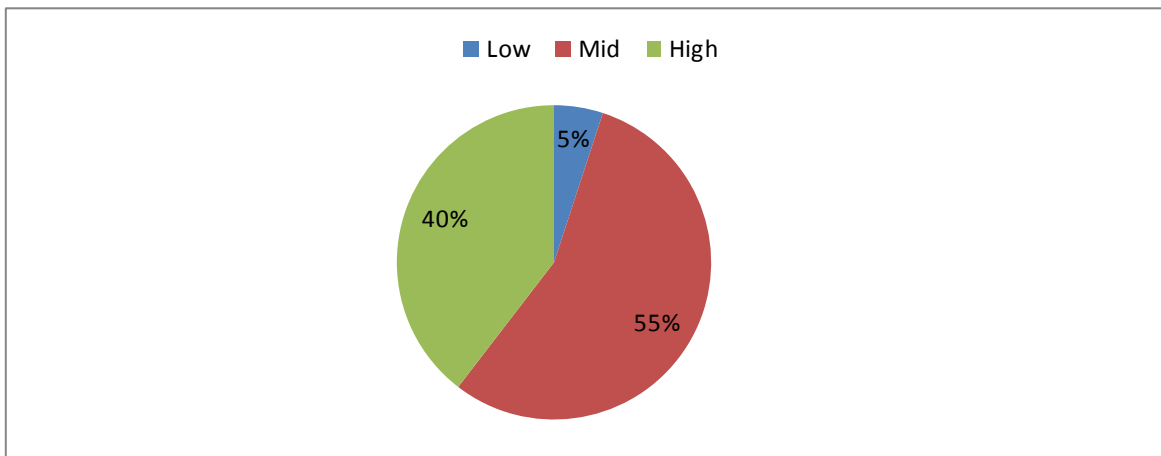
Research Question 2: What are ELT students' self-efficacy beliefs in developing reading skills?

To find out what the ELT students' self-efficacy beliefs in reading are descriptive statistics have been used. In Table 4.2 and the Graphic 4.2 below, the number of

the students whose self-efficacy beliefs in reading are low, mid or high are shown. The comments on the results are placed under the graphics.

Table 4.2: Self-Efficacy Beliefs of ELT Students in Reading

<i>Self- efficacy beliefs</i>				
	<i>Low</i>	<i>Mid</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Total</i>
Number	7	77	55	139



Graphic 4.3: Self-Efficacy Beliefs of ELT Students in Reading

It is obviously seen in Table 4.2 and Graphic 4.2, 7 (5%) out of 139 students have low self-efficacy beliefs in reading, while 77 (55%) of them have mid and 55 (40%) of them have high self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

While 55 of the students believe that they are good at reading no matter what the content is or how difficult the text, a few (7) of the students think just the opposite. More than half of the students have mid self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Their self-efficacy beliefs may depend on the reading text. If the text is too difficult or content is new for them, they have low self-efficacy and if the text is easy or they are familiar with the content, their self-efficacy is high. However, in order to tell what the exact reason is, more studies need to be done.

4.3. Results and Discussions for Research Question 3

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between ELT students' use of metacognitive reading strategies and their self-efficacy beliefs?

In Table 4.3 below, correlational coefficient (r) between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading is presented. In order to comment on the correlation coefficient (r) results, the researcher made use of Cohen's (1988)

classification. According to Cohen (1988) the correlation between 0,10 - 0,29 is low, the correlation between 0,30 – 0,49 is moderate and the correlation between 0,50 - 1,00 is high.

Table 4.3: The Correlational Coefficients between Metacognitive Reading Strategies and Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading

	<i>Metacognitive Reading Strategies</i>	
	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	0,475	,000

Note. **= p < .01. N = 139 for all analyses.

Table 4.3 indicates the relationship between the metacognitive strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading as 0,475**, which means that there is a moderate relationship between metacognitive strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. One can claim according to the result of this study that metacognitive reading strategies can promote self-efficacy beliefs in EFL reading.

Table 4.4: Learners' Preferences for Metacognitive Reading Strategies According to Their Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading

	<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>
<i>Metacognitive Reading Strategies</i>	<i>Low</i>	2,97	7	,54855	,20733
	<i>Mid</i>	3,35	77	,39506	,04502
	<i>High</i>	3,72	55	,38297	,05164
	<i>Total</i>	3,48	139	,44950	,03813

Also, learners' preferences of metacognitive reading strategies according to their self-efficacy beliefs, mean, standard deviation and standard error mean values are given in Table 4.4. According to Table 4.4, learners who have high self-efficacy beliefs in reading use metacognitive strategies more than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading. In order to discuss the reasons and to see if there is any significant correlation between each of the 12 metacognitive reading strategies one by one and self-efficacy beliefs in reading, the 12 metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading have to be tested separately as well.

4.4. Results and Discussions for Research Question 4

Research Question 4: Is there any statistically significant correlation between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and a) overview and linking with already known material strategy, b) paying attention strategy, c) directed attention strategy, d) selective attention strategy, e) advance organizing strategy, f) setting goals and objectives strategy, g) identifying the purpose of a language task strategy, h) planning for a language task strategy, i) seeking practice opportunities strategy, j) self-management strategy, k) self-monitoring strategy and l) self-evaluating strategy?

Table 4.5: The Correlational Coefficients between Metacognitive Reading Strategies and Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading

	<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	
	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>St 12: self-evaluating</i>	0,485	,000
<i>St 2: paying attention</i>	0,479	,000
<i>St 1: overview and linking with already known material</i>	0,445	,000
<i>St 10: self-management</i>	0,442	,000
<i>St 11: self-monitoring</i>	0,376	,000
<i>St 5: advance organizing</i>	0,335	,000
<i>St 8: planning for a language task</i>	0,325	,000
<i>St 7: identifying the purpose of a language task</i>	0,321	,000
<i>St 3: directed attention</i>	0,317	,000
<i>St 6: setting goals and objectives</i>	0,301	,000
<i>St 9: seeking practice opportunities</i>	0,198*	,019
<i>St 4: selective attention</i>	0,142	,096

Note. † = $p < .10$, * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$. N = 139 for all analyses.

Table 4.5 shows the relations between the 12 metacognitive reading strategies individually and self-efficacy beliefs in descending order.

Table 4.6: Learners' Preferences for 12 Metacognitive Reading Strategies According to Their Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading

	Self-Efficacy Beliefs	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
St 1: overview and linking with already known material	Low	7	3,20	,77460	,29277
	Mid	77	3,82	,52613	,05996
	High	55	4,20	,49064	,06616
	Total	139	3,94	,57818	,04904
St 2: paying attention	Low	7	3,10	,78680	,29738
	Mid	77	3,34	,57097	,06507
	High	55	3,81	,64690	,08723
	Total	139	3,51	,65608	,05565
St 3: directed attention	Low	7	2,61	,86431	,32668
	Mid	77	3,34	,70131	,07992
	High	55	3,58	,61058	,08233
	Total	139	3,40	,70429	,05974
St 4: selective attention	Low	7	3,10	,68622	,25937
	Mid	77	3,45	,78474	,08943
	High	55	3,48	,69038	,09309
	Total	139	3,44	,74361	,06307
St 5: advance organizing	Low	7	3,14	,99735	,37696
	Mid	77	3,39	,75844	,08643
	High	55	3,79	,68039	,09174
	Total	139	3,54	,76602	,06497
St 6: setting goals and objectives	Low	7	3,05	,23002	,08694
	Mid	77	3,36	,74798	,08524
	High	55	3,66	,84496	,11393
	Total	139	3,46	,78778	,06682
St 7: identifying the purpose of a language task	Low	7	2,71	,98936	,37394
	Mid	77	3,42	,80641	,09190
	High	55	3,78	,76502	,10316
	Total	139	3,53	,83396	,07074
St 8: planning for a language task	Low	7	2,63	,50897	,19237
	Mid	77	2,97	,65912	,07511
	High	55	3,28	,81513	,10991
	Total	139	3,07	,73673	,06249
St 9: seeking practice opportunities	Low	7	2,90	1,04906	,39651
	Mid	77	2,87	,77806	,08867
	High	55	3,16	,89551	,12075
	Total	139	2,99	,84551	,07172
St 10:	Low	7	3,08	,64869	,24518

self- managemen t	Mid	77	3,41	,58276	,06641
	High	55	3,86	,53558	,07222
	Total	139	3,57	,61433	,05211
St 11: self- monitoring	Low	7	3,21	,83452	,31542
	Mid	77	3,50	,72830	,08300
	High	55	4,05	,65914	,08888
	Total	139	3,71	,75896	,06437
St 12: self- evaluating	Low	7	2,98	,65566	,24782
	Mid	77	3,27	,48810	,05562
	High	55	3,75	,54796	,07389
	Total	139	3,45	,57730	,04897

Table 4.6 presents learners' preferences of the 12 metacognitive reading strategies according to their self-efficacy beliefs, mean, standard deviation and standard error mean values. Also, the tables (4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12, 4.13, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16, 4.17) showing the means of each item in the metacognitive reading strategies questionnaire are presented and related comments are made about the items which are given in descending order for each metacognitive reading strategy.

Table 4.7: Means of Items for Self-Evaluating Strategy (St 12)

	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation
Item 44	3,64	,06607	,77892
Item 45	3,50	,06878	,81092
Item 46	3,43	,06854	,80802
Item 47	3,32	,08119	,95717
Item 48	3,20	,08675	1,02278
Item 49	3,58	,07968	,93947

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 44 (*As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/ understanding of the subject*), 45 (*I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goals*), 46 (*As I read along, I check whether I had anticipated the current information*), 47 (*I evaluate my reading strategies to find out the existing problems and solutions*), 48 (*I check my own progress by doing reading exercises*), and 49 (*I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text rather than passively accept everything*) for self-evaluating strategy (St 12) have been employed to test the relationship between

self-evaluating strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The relationship has been got to be $r = 0,485^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which suggests that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and self-evaluating strategy. Besides, Table 4.6 indicates that learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high make more use of self-evaluating strategy than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Subsequently, self-evaluating strategy is the strategy that serves learners the most to have higher self-efficacy beliefs in reading by: (44) analysing the text critically to be sure whether it contributes to their knowledge/ understanding of the subject (M=3,6475), (49) evaluating the existing information .instead of passively accepting everything (M=3,5827), (45) evaluating whether what they are reading is compatible with their reading goals (M=3,5036), (46) checking if they had anticipated the information presented in the text (M=3,4317), (47) assessing their reading strategies to find out problems and solutions (M=3,3237), and (48) evaluating their own progress by means of reading exercises (M=3,2014) (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.8: Means of Items for Paying Attention Strategy (St 2)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 6</i>	3,07	,08728	1,02903
<i>Item 7</i>	3,34	,08943	1,05441
<i>Item 8</i>	3,95	,08032	,94693

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 6 (*I pay attention to all the information that I have read*), 7 (*While reading, I pay attention to the strategies that I use*), and 8 (*I pay attention to what I read as much as possible to avoid repetition*) for paying attention strategy (St 2) have been used to test the relationship between paying attention strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The association has been determined to be $r = 0,479^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which connotes that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and paying attention strategy. Additionally, Table 4.6 shows that learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high use paying attention strategy more than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

At that moment, paying attention strategy can support learners to have more self-efficacy beliefs in reading by means of: (8) paying attention to what is being read

in order not to repeat (M=3,9568), (7) paying attention to the strategies that they use intentionally while reading (M=3,3453) and (6) paying attention to as much information as possible in order not to repeat what they have read (M=3,0791) (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.9: Means of Items for Overview and Linking with Already Known Material Strategy (St 1)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 1</i>	3,60	,07818	,92171
<i>Item 2</i>	3,88	,07578	,89345
<i>Item 3</i>	3,91	,07036	,82955
<i>Item 4</i>	4,02	,07741	,91261
<i>Item 5</i>	4,27	,06110	,72036

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 1 (*I overview the texts to get general information about them*), 2 (*I try to draw on my knowledge of the topic to help me understand what I am reading*), 3 (*While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the topic, based on the text's content*), 4 (*As I am reading, I distinguish between information that I already know and new information*), and 5 (*I use my prior knowledge (e.g., knowledge about the theme of the text, or grammar knowledge) to help me understand what I read*) concerning overview and linking with already known material strategy (St 1) have been exploited to analyse the relationship between overview and linking with already known material strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. According to the results of these items displayed in Table 4.5, the connection has been noticed to be $r = 0,445^{**}$ which signifies that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and overview and linking with already known material strategy. In addition, Table 4.6 presents that learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high make more use of overview and linking with already known material strategy than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

At that time, overview and linking with already known material strategy can be of assistance to learners to promote their self-efficacy beliefs in reading since it advocates students to: (5) use their background knowledge about the theme and grammar for a better understanding of the text (M=4,2734), (4) differentiate between already known information and new information (M=4,0216), (3) make

use of their prior knowledge about the theme and language of the text to help them understand what they read (M=3,9137), (2) revise their background knowledge about the topic to help them understand what they read (M=3,8849), and (1) overview the texts to have general idea about them (M=3,6043) (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.10: Means of Items for Self-Management Strategy (St 10)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 33</i>	3,48	,08981	1,05880
<i>Item 34</i>	3,53	,07992	,94229
<i>Item 35</i>	3,30	,09170	1,08116
<i>Item 36</i>	3,50	,08064	,95077
<i>Item 37</i>	3,58	,07770	,91603
<i>Item 38</i>	3,66	,08934	1,05332
<i>Item 39</i>	3,92	,08146	,96038

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 33 (*I try to distinguish facts from opinions*), 34 (*I link the information in one sentence with the information from the preceding ones*), 35 (*I continue reading even if I have difficulty*), 36 (*While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my prior questions about the topic, based on the text's content*), 37 (*After I read the text, I consider other possible interpretations to determine whether I have understood the text*), 38 (*While reading, I exploit my personal strengths in order to better understand the text. If I am a good reader, I focus on the text; if I am good with figures and diagrams, I focus on that information*), and 39 (*I choose the reading materials that are suitable to my English level, neither too difficult nor too easy*) about self-management strategy (St 10) have been used to check the relationship between self-management strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The affiliation has been got to be $r = 0,442^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which denotes that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and self-management strategy. Also, according to Table 4.6, learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high use self-management strategy more than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Afterward, self-management strategy can give a hand to the students to have more self-efficacy beliefs in reading through: (39) choosing the reading materials

compatible with their English level, neither too difficult nor too easy (M=3,9281), (38) improving their personal strengths to be able to understand the text better (M=3,6619), (37) taking other possible interpretations into account to decide whether they understood the text after reading (M=3,5827), (34) associating information in one sentence with information from the previous ones (M=3,5396), (36) rethinking and revising their preceding questions about the text's content (M=3,5036), (33) trying to differentiate facts from opinions (M=3,4820), and (35) continuing reading even if they have difficulty (M=3,3022) (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.11: Means of Items for Self-Monitoring Strategy (St 11)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 40</i>	2,76	,10786	1,27167
<i>Item 41</i>	3,92	,08082	,95280
<i>Item 42</i>	4,03	,06728	,79318
<i>Item 43</i>	4,10	,07994	,94251

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 40 (*I correct my pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary while reading for appropriateness related to the setting or to the teacher who is present*), 41 (*I check my pronunciation as I read aloud*), 42 (*I monitor my fluency by recording my reading performance*), and 43 (*While reading, I check whether my pronunciation of the words is clear and understandable*) regarding self-monitoring strategy (St 11) have been employed to examine the relationship between self-monitoring strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The connection has been determined to be $r = 0,376^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which involves that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and self-monitoring strategy. Additionally, Table 4.6 shows that learners who have high self-efficacy beliefs in reading use self-monitoring strategy more than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Next, self-monitoring strategy can hold up students to promote their self-efficacy beliefs in reading by means of: (43) checking if their pronunciation is clear and understandable (M=4,1007), (42) checking their fluency by recording their reading performance (M=4,0360), (41) monitoring their pronunciation while reading aloud (M=3,9281), and (40) correcting their pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary while reading for accuracy related to the setting (M=2,7626) (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.12: Means of Items for Advance Organizing Strategy (St 5)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 16</i>	3,58	0,08226	0,96983
<i>Item 17</i>	3,49	0,08256	0,97337
<i>Item 18</i>	3,53	0,08437	0,99467

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 16 (*I try to find the topic I needed from the index*), 17 (*I anticipate information that will be presented later in the text*), and 18 (*I preview the text before reading*) about advance organizing strategy (St 5) have been employed to inspect the relationship between advance organizing strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The correlation has been realized to be $r = 0,335^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which entails that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and advance organizing strategy. Plus, Table 4.6 presents that learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high make more use of advance organizing strategy than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Subsequently, advance organizing strategy can assist learners to have higher self-efficacy beliefs in reading by: (16) looking for the topic they need from index (M=3,5827), (18) previewing the text in general before starting to read (M=3,5396), and (17) anticipating information that will be given in the text (M=3,4964) (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.13: Means of Items for Planning for a Language Task Strategy (St 8)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 25</i>	3,50	0,081	0,951
<i>Item 26</i>	3,07	0,09668	1,1398
<i>Item 27</i>	2,68	0,09259	1,09157
<i>Item 28</i>	2,88	0,08487	1,00057
<i>Item 29</i>	3,24	0,0803	0,94671

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 25 (*After I have read a text, I anticipate how I will use the knowledge that I have gained from reading the text*), 26 (*I have my own plan to read in English besides the homework assigned by my teacher*), 27 (*I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to read in English*), 28 (*I revise my plan in time once I find it not accordance with the real situation*), and 29 (*I revise what I will read in advance*) about planning for a language task strategy (St 8) have been utilized to test the relationship between planning for a language task strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The association has been ascertained to be $r = 0,325^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which represents that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and planning for a language task strategy. Also, Table 4.6 indicates that learners who have high self-efficacy beliefs use planning for a language task strategy more than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

In that case, planning for a language task strategy can help students to have higher self-efficacy beliefs in reading with: (25) planning how they can utilize the knowledge that they have obtained from reading a text (M=3,4964), (29) revising what they will read beforehand (M=3,2446), (26) planning to read in English in addition to their homework (M=3,0719), (28) modifying their plan in time if it does not fit the real situation (M=2,8849), and (27) organizing their schedule so they can have enough time to read in English (M=2,6763) (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.14: Means of Items for Identifying the Purpose of a Language Task Strategy (St 7)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 22</i>	3,35	0,09672	1,14025
<i>Item 23</i>	3,73	0,08013	0,94467
<i>Item 24</i>	3,50	0,08129	0,95837

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 22 (*Before starting to read any book at any time I, first of all, think about what the purposes of my reading are*), 23 (*I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose*), and 24 (*While reading, I try to remember the purpose of what I read to help me at utilizing my time efficiently*) for identifying the purpose of a language task strategy (St 7) have been made use of to assess the relationship between identifying the purpose of a language task strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The connection has been discovered to be $r = 0,321^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which indicates that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and identifying the purpose of a language task strategy. Besides, as shown in Table 4.6, learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high make more use of identifying the purpose of a language task strategy than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

It follows that, identifying the purpose of a language task strategy can encourage students' self-efficacy beliefs in reading by means of: (23) thinking about if the content of the text is suitable for their reading purpose or not ($M=3,7338$), (24) keeping the purpose of their reading in mind to help them use their time more effectively ($M=3,5036$), and (22) identifying the purposes of their reading before starting to read ($M=3,3453$) (see Table 14).

Table 4.15: Means of Items for Directed Attention Strategy (St 3)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 9</i>	3,42	0,09951	1,17324
<i>Item 10</i>	3,31	0,09786	1,15375
<i>Item 11</i>	3,50	0,08256	0,97337
<i>Item 12</i>	3,37	0,08241	0,97166

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 9 (*Before starting to read any book I will survey its title, topic and sub topic to be sure that it is the book I need*), 10 (*I read summary, topic sentence, chapter questions and heading or subheading before deciding to read that book*), 11 (*I look through the text as quickly as possible until I research the relevant part of the text. Then I read that part to get the information I want (scanning)*), and 12 (*I read the whole passage quickly to understand the main idea (skimming)*) which are related to directed attention strategy (St 3) have been used to assess the relationship between directed attention strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The relationship has been ascertained to be $r = 0,317^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which means that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and directed attention strategy. Also, as indicated in Table 4.6 learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high use directed attention strategy more than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Then, directed attention strategy can lend a hand to the students to develop their self-efficacy beliefs in reading as it urges students to: (12) read the whole text as quickly as possible to get the main idea (skimming) (M=3,3669), (11) look through the text quickly in order to find the relevant part of the text and to read that part to get the information they need (scanning) (M=3,5036), (9) examine a book's title, topic and sub topic to make sure that it is the book they need before deciding to read it (M=3,4245), and (10) read summary, topic sentence, chapter questions, heading or subheading before starting to read the book (M=3,3094) (see Table 4.15).

Table 4.16: Means of Items for Setting Goals and Objectives Strategy (St 6)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 19</i>	3,08	0,08728	1,02903
<i>Item 20</i>	3,35	0,08943	1,05441
<i>Item 21</i>	3,96	0,08032	0,94693

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 19 (*Before reading, I set clear goals to improve my English reading skills*), 20 (*I set goals to help me at using my time efficiently*), and 21 (*I set my reading objectives according to my interests and level in English*) related to setting goals and objectives strategy (St 6) have been utilized to examine the relationship between setting goals and objectives strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The relationship has been found to be $r = 0,301^{**}$ (see Table 4.5) which denotes that there is a moderate relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and setting goals and objectives strategy. Besides, Table 4.6 shows that learners who have high self-efficacy beliefs make more use of setting goals and objectives strategy than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Therefore, setting goals and objectives strategy is able to aid students to promote self-efficacy beliefs in reading with: (21) setting their reading objectives suitable for their level in English and interests (M=3,9568), (20) setting goals to assist them in using their time more efficiently (M=3,3453), and (19) setting clear goals for enhancing their English reading skills before reading (3,0791) (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.17: Means of Items for Seeking Practice Opportunities Strategy (St 9)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error of Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
<i>Item 30</i>	3,45	0,0897	1,05757
<i>Item 31</i>	2,89	0,09397	1,10788
<i>Item 32</i>	2,63	0,09477	1,11735

Note. N = 139 for all analyses.

The items 30 (*I seek practicing reading aloud to develop my fluency*), 31 (*I actively look for opportunities to participate in a variety of English reading activities*), and 32 (*I actively look for opportunities to practice reading in English with my classmates*) regarding seeking practice opportunities strategy (St 9) have been exploited in examining the relationship between seeking practice opportunities strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The relationship has been discovered

to be $r = 0,198^*$ (see Table 4.5) which signifies that there is a low relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and seeking practice opportunities strategy. Also, Table 4.6 shows that learners whose self-efficacy beliefs are high make more use of seeking practice opportunities strategy than the ones who have mid and low self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

Then, seeking practice opportunities strategy is the strategy that foster learners' self-efficacy beliefs in reading the least by: (30) looking for practice opportunities to read aloud in order to develop their fluency ($M=3,4460$), (31) seeking chances to participate actively in a variety of English reading activities ($2,8921$), and (32) looking for opportunities to practice reading in English with their classmates ($2,6331$) (see Table 4.17).

The items 13 (I look at the pictures, graphs, maps, diagrams, etc., of the passage), 14 (First, I read the first sentence of each paragraph), and 15 (I search out information relevant to my reading goals) about selective attention strategy (St 4) have been employed to check the relationship between selective attention strategy and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. The affiliation has been found to be $r = 0,142$ (see Table 4.5) which implies that there is not a noteworthy relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and selective attention strategy.

Consequently, it can be said that *selective attention strategy* does not play an important role in cultivating self-efficacy beliefs in reading. In order to make scientific comments on that issue, further research needs to be conducted.

So, except for only one strategy (St 4: Selective attention strategy), there is a moderate or low relationship between each of the 11 different metacognitive reading strategies individually and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. After that, it can be stated without doubt that metacognitive strategies have the ability to foster self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Therefore, students need to be aware of 11 metacognitive reading strategies that can help them to have more self-efficacy beliefs in reading by encouraging learners to:

- (1) overview the text and link it with already known information.
- (2) pay attention to what they read and the strategies they use while reading to avoid repetition.

- (3) look through or read the text quickly in order to have general idea about the text or to get the main idea of the text.
- (4) look for the topic they need from index.
- (5) set clear goals and objectives related to their needs and interest.
- (6) identify and keep the purpose of their reading in mind to save time.
- (7) plan the study time well for reading in English.
- (8) try to catch chances to read in English inside and outside the class.
- (9) distinguish facts from opinions.
- (10) correct their pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary while reading.
- (11) evaluate their own progress in reading.

4.5. Results and Discussions for Research Question 5

Research Question 5: Do female ELT students differ from male ELT students in a) metacognitive reading strategy use and b) self-efficacy beliefs?

In order to analyse the difference between learners' preferences and gender "independent sample t-test" has been used. The null hypothesis is examined by comparing the t_{table} value (1,645) with the $t_{calculated}$ one. If the $t_{calculated}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one, the null hypothesis is accepted ($df = 211$, $p < .05$). In addition, if the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) is larger than $p < .05$, the null hypothesis is accepted. It means that there is not any significant difference between learners' preferences and gender in relation to both metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

On the contrary, if the $t_{calculated}$ value is larger than the t_{table} one, or if the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) is smaller than $p < .05$, the null hypothesis is denied. It implies that there is a significant difference between learners' preferences and gender in relation to both metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

4.5.1. The Statistical Testing for Any significant Difference between Learners' Preferences of Metacognitive Reading Strategies According to Their Gender

The 12 different metacognitive reading strategies are respectively "St 1: Overview and linking with already known material", "St 2: Paying attention", "St 3: Directed attention", "St 4: Selective attention", "St 5: Advance organizing", "St 6: Setting goals and objectives", "St 7: Identifying the purpose of a language task", "St 8:

Planning for a language task, “St 9: Seeking practice opportunities”, “St 10: Self-management”, “St 11: Self-monitoring”, and “St 12: Self-evaluating”.

The results of t-test and the comments related to the results are given below.

1- Overview and linking with already known material strategy: The results show that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0,476 < t_{\text{table}}=1,645$). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) **“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for overview and linking with already known material strategy is not important”** is acknowledged. In addition, the null hypothesis above is accepted as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,635 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be speculated that the statistical difference between the averages of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *overview and linking with already known material strategy* is not important at 95%. Therefore, it can be asserted that female and male learners do not differ in employing *overview and linking with already known material strategy*.

2- Paying attention strategy: The results point out that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0,666 < t_{\text{table}}=1,645$). Subsequently, the null hypothesis (H_0) **“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for paying attention strategy is not important”** is accepted. Moreover, the null hypothesis above is agreed as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,506 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be stated that the statistical dissimilarity between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *paying attention strategy* is not imperative at 95%. As a result, gender is not a predictive aspect for learners’ preferences of *paying attention strategy*.

3- Directed attention strategy: According to the results, the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=1,291 < t_{\text{table}}=1,645$). As a result, the null hypothesis (H_0) **“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for directed attention strategy is not important”** is accepted. Further, the null hypothesis above should be carried out as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,199 is larger than $p < .05$. One can claim that the statistical unlikeness between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *directed attention strategy* is not fundamental at 95%. From this time, the

utilization of *directed attention strategy* by ELT learners is not affected by their gender.

4- Selective attention strategy: The results indicate that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0,164 < t_{\text{table}} =1,645$). Consequently, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for selective attention strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Furthermore, the null hypothesis above is okayed as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,870 is larger than $p<.05$. One can declare that the statistical variance between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *selective attention strategy* is not significant at 95%. After that, one can claim that there is not a difference between learners in their taking advantage of *selective attention strategy* by gender.

5- Advance organizing strategy: The results illustrate that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0,076 < t_{\text{table}} =1,645$). Then, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for advance organizing strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Likewise, the null hypothesis above is accepted because the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,939 is larger than $p<.05$. It can be believed that the statistical inequality between the averages of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *advance organizing strategy* is not major at 95%. Hence, making use of *advance organizing strategy* cannot be differentiated by learners’ gender.

6- Setting goals and objectives strategy: The results show that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}} =0,459 < t_{\text{table}} =1,645$). Thus, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for setting goals and objectives strategy is not important”*** is accepted. As well, the null hypothesis above is admitted as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,647 is larger than $p<.05$. It can be factual to state that the arithmetical difference between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *setting goals and objectives strategy* is not considerable at 95%. So, one can say that learners do not offer any diversity in their exploitation of *setting goals and objectives strategy* in keeping with their gender.

7- Identifying the purpose of a language task strategy: The results exhibit that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}} = 0,327 < t_{\text{table}} = 1,645$). Accordingly, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for identifying the purpose of a language task strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Also, the null hypothesis above is acknowledged since the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,744 is larger than $p < .05$. Also, it would be realistic to assert that the numerical variance between the averages of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *identifying the purpose of a language task strategy* is not significant at 95%. Thus, there is not a disparity between learners in their applying of *identifying the purpose of a language task strategy* in line with the two variables of their gender.

8- Planning for a language task strategy: According to the results, the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}} = 0,594 < t_{\text{table}} = 1,645$). In view of that, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for planning for a language task strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Supplementary, the null hypothesis above is acknowledged since the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,554 is larger than $p < .05$. One can say that the arithmetical contrast between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *planning for a language task strategy* is not crucial at 95%. From now, drawing on *planning for a language task strategy* by ELT learners does not vary according to their gender.

9- Seeking practice opportunities strategy: As one can make out from the results, the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}} = 0,688 < t_{\text{table}} = 1,645$). So, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for seeking practice opportunities strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Moreover, the null hypothesis above is agreed because the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,493 is larger than $p < .05$. One is capable of declaring that the numerical distinction between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *seeking practice opportunities strategy* is not momentous at 95%. Hence, one can assert that there is not a distinction between students by the two variables of their gender in their application of *seeking practice opportunities strategy*.

10- Self- management strategy: The results indicate that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0,370 < t_{\text{table}} =1,645$). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for self- management strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Also, the null hypothesis above is agreed since the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,712 is larger than $p<.05$. It would be true to state that the statistical variation between the averages of “female” and “male” learner’ responses for *self- management strategy* is not vital at 95%. For that reason, one can claim that *self- management strategy* exploitation does not have any relation to learners’ gender.

11- Self- monitoring strategy: According to the results, the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}}=0,452 < t_{\text{table}} =1,645$). Thus, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for self – monitoring strategy is not important”*** is accepted. Thus, the null hypothesis above is accepted as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,652 is larger than $p<.05$. It can be concluded that the algebraic contrast between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *self – monitoring strategy* is not important at 95%. That is, learners’ gender does not shape their using of *self – monitoring strategy*.

12- Self- evaluating strategy: The results show that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}} =0,584 < t_{\text{table}} =1,645$). As a result, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“The difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences for self- evaluating strategy is not important”*** is accepted. In addition, the null hypothesis is acknowledged as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,560 is larger than $p<.05$. By looking at results, one can hold that the arithmetical difference between the means of “female” and “male” learners’ responses for *self- evaluating strategy* is not noteworthy at 95%. Subsequently, females and males do not show any difference in their using of *self- evaluating strategy*.

4.5.2. The Statistical Testing for Any Significant Difference between Learners’ Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading According to Their Gender

The results of independent sample t-test for the variables of gender explain that the $t_{\text{calculated}}$ value is smaller than the t_{table} one ($t_{\text{calculated}} =0,608 < t_{\text{table}}=1,645$).

Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) ***“There is not a significant difference between “female” and “male” learners’ preferences in relation to self-efficacy beliefs in reading”*** is accepted. Additionally, the null hypothesis above is agreed as the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,544 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be stated that the statistical contrast between the averages of participants’ preferences according to the two variables of their gender (female and male) for self-efficacy beliefs in reading is not vital at 95%. Thus, one can assert that females and males do not differ in relation to self-efficacy beliefs in reading, either.

4.6. Results and Discussions for Research Question 6

Research Question 6: Is there any statistically significant correlation between ELT students’ achievement in reading and a) their use of metacognitive reading strategies b) their self-efficacy beliefs?

To find out if there is a significant relationship between learners’ preferences of metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in reading according to their achievement in reading, Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) has been used. The students’ grades range from F to A1. Coefficients have been used for each range as F=0; D=1,75; C3=2,00; C2=2,25; C1=2,50; B3=2,75; B2=3,00; B1=3,25; A3=3,50; A2=3,75; A1=4,00.

4.6.1. The Statistical Testing for any Significant Difference between Learners’ Preferences of Metacognitive Reading Strategies According to Their Achievement in Reading

The 12 metacognitive reading strategies are in that order *“St 1: Overview and linking with already known material”, “St 2: Paying attention”, “St 3: Directed attention”, “St 4: Selective attention”, “St 5: Advance organizing”, “St 6: Setting goals and objectives”, “St 7: Identifying the purpose of a language task”, “St 8: Planning for a language task”, “St 9: Seeking practice opportunities”, “St 10: Self-management”, “St 11: Self-monitoring”, and “St 12: Self-evaluating”.*

In Table 4.18 correlational coefficient (r) between 12 different metacognitive reading strategies and students’ achievement in reading is presented. The comments on the results are made under the table.

Table 4.18: The Correlational Coefficients between the 12 Metacognitive Reading Strategies and Students' Achievement in Reading

	<i>Achievement in reading</i>	
	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>St 1: overview and linking with already known material</i>	0,9	0,29
<i>St 2: paying attention</i>	0,22	0,796
<i>St 3: directed attention</i>	0,95	0,265
<i>St 4: selective attention</i>	-0,02	0,096
<i>St 5: advance organizing</i>	0,19	0,827
<i>St 6: setting goals and objectives</i>	0,9	0,294
<i>St 7: identifying the purpose of a language task</i>	0,1	0,905
<i>St 8: planning for a language task</i>	0,93	0,277
<i>St 9: seeking practice opportunities</i>	0,108	0,207
<i>St 10: self-management</i>	0,62	0,472
<i>St 11: self-monitoring</i>	0,376	0
<i>St 12: self-evaluating</i>	0,34	0,692
<i>Metacognitive reading strategies</i>	0,93	0,277

Note. † = $p < .10$, ** = $p < .01$. N = 139 for all analyses.

Table 4.18 shows that the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and students' grades in reading is $r = 0,93$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0, 277 is larger than $p < .05$. Therefore, it can be stated that metacognitive reading strategy usedoes not have an effect on students' achievement in reading. However, each of the 12 metacognitive reading strategies has been examined individually in order to see whether there is any significant correlation between each of the 12 metacognitive reading strategies one by one and students' achievement in reading.

1- Overview and linking with already known material strategy (St 1): Table 4.18 indicates that the relationship between *overview and linking with already known material strategy* and students' grades in reading is $r = 0, 90$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0, 290 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be stated that the statistical disparity between the means of students' achievement in reading and *overview and linking with already known material strategy* is not important at 95%. After this, using *overview and linking with already known material strategy* does not show any difference in students' achievement in reading.

2- Paying attention strategy (St 2): As one can see in Table 4.18, the relationship between learners' achievement in reading and *paying attention strategy* is $r = 0,22$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,769 is larger than $p < .05$. One can hold that statistical variation between the means of students' achievement in reading and *paying attention strategy* is not important at 95%. Henceforth, students' achievement in reading does not depend on the use of *paying attention strategy*.

3- Directed attention strategy (St 3): Table 4.18 enlightens that the correlation between learners' achievement in reading and *directed attention strategy* is $r = 0,95$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,265 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be supposed that the statistical dissimilarity between the means of students' achievement in reading and *directed attention strategy* is not important at 95%. So, utilizing *directed attention strategy* does not have an effect on students' achievement in reading.

4- Selective attention strategy (St 4): Table 4.18 explains that the correlation between learners' achievement in reading and *selective attention strategy* is $r = -0,02$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,096 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be thought that the arithmetic inequality between the means of students' achievement in reading and *selective attention strategy* is not important at 95%. From now, students' achievement in reading does not rely on *selective attention strategy*.

5- Advance organizing strategy (St 5): As seen in Table 4.18, the relationship between learners' achievement in reading and *advance organizing strategy* is $r = 0,19$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,827 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be presumed that the numerical diversity between the means of students' achievement in reading and *advance organizing strategy* is not important at 95%. After that, it can be stated that students' achievement in reading is not a variance in line with the use of *advance organizing strategy*.

6- Setting goals and objectives strategy (St 6): Table 4.18 verifies that the correlation between learners' achievement in reading and *setting goals and objectives strategy* is $r = 0,90$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,294 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be thought that the numerical difference between the

means of students' achievement in reading and *setting goals and objectives strategy* is not important at 95%. Subsequently, students do not differ in their achievement in reading in accordance with utilizing *setting goals and objectives strategy*.

7- Identifying the purpose of a language task strategy (St 7): Table 4.18 shows that the affiliation between learners' achievement in reading and *identifying the purpose of a language task strategy* is $r = 0,10$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,905 is larger than $p < .05$. One can think that the algebraic difference between the means of students' achievement in reading and *identifying the purpose of a language task strategy* is not important at 95%. Hence, taking advantage of *identifying the purpose of a language task strategy* does not affect students' achievement in reading.

8- Planning for a language task strategy (St 8): Table 4.18 confirms that the relationship between learners' achievement in reading and *planning for a language task strategy* is $r = 0,93$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,277 is larger than $p < .05$. One can suppose that the arithmetical diversity between the means of students' achievement in reading and *planning for a language task strategy* is not important at 95%. Therefore, students' achievement in reading does not depend on the use of *planning for a language task strategy*.

9- Seeking practice opportunities strategy (St 9): As it is demonstrated in Table 4.18, the correlation between learners' achievement in reading and *seeking practice opportunities strategy* $r = 0,108$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,207 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be assumed that the numerical variation between the means of students' achievement in reading and *seeking practice opportunities strategy* is not important at 95%. So, students' achievement in reading does not depend on the use of *seeking practice opportunities strategy*.

10- Self-management strategy (St 10): As Table 4.18 explains, the relationship between learners' achievement in reading and *self-management strategy* is $r = 0,62$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,472 is larger than $p < .05$. It would be true to think that the statistical distinction between the means of students' achievement in reading and *self-management strategy* is not important

at 95%. Thus, employing *self-management strategy* does not play a significant factor in students' achievement in reading.

11- Self-monitoring strategy (St 11): Table 4.18 shows that the affiliation between learners' achievement in reading and *self-monitoring strategy* is $r = 0,376^{**}$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,000 is smaller than $p < .05$. It can be stated that there is a moderate relationship between learners' achievement in reading and *self-monitoring strategy*. When students monitor their grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation beforehand, this can be helpful for their achievement in the exam. Therefore, this may be the reason why self-monitoring strategy affects reading achievement. Also results indicate that learners whose grade was C2 used *self-monitoring strategy* the most ($M=5$) while the students who got B2 used *self-monitoring strategy* the least ($M=3,3$).

12- Self-evaluating strategy (St 12): As one can notice in Table 4.18, the connection between learners' achievement in reading and *self-evaluating strategy* is $r = 0,34$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,692 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be concluded that the numerical variation between the means of students' achievement in reading and *self-evaluating strategy* is not important at 95%. Namely, the utilization of *self-evaluating strategy* does not need to be taken into consideration in relation to students' achievement in reading.

4.6.2. The Statistical Testing for any Significant Difference between Learners' Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading According to Their Achievement in Reading

Table 4.19 shows correlational coefficient (r) between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and achievement in reading. Table 4.25 presents learners' self-efficacy beliefs in reading consistent with their achievement in reading variables, basic statistics mean, standard deviation, and the standard error mean values. The comments on the results are made under the table.

Table 4.19: The Correlational Coefficients between Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Reading and Students' Grades

<i>Achievement in reading</i>		
	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	0,037	0,668

As it is obvious in Table 4.19, the relationship between learners' achievement in reading and their self-efficacy beliefs in reading $r = 0,037$ and the value of sig. (significance 2-tailed) 0,668 is larger than $p < .05$. It can be stated that the statistical variation between the means of students' achievement in reading and self-efficacy beliefs in reading is not important at 95%. Therefore, students' self-efficacy beliefs in reading do not need to be taken into consideration in relation to their achievement in reading.

The results indicate that the use of metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of students in reading do not have an effect on students' achievement in reading. The reason why such a result has been obtained may stem from the way the students were assessed. The students were not assessed by the researcher; they took a midterm and final exam which were prepared by the instructor of the course. The first part of the exams was related to the words they studied in which the students needed to complete the sentences with target vocabulary. In the next part, they answered a couple of questions related to the literary texts they read in the lesson such as "Why did Little Prince value his flower that much?" (They read Little Prince in the lesson. In order to answer this question, they needed to study their lecture notes before taking the exam as the text was not given in the exam). For the next part, they were expected to find metaphors and metonymies in the paragraphs given in the exam. Lastly, there was a writing part in the exam in which they needed to write a letter to one of the authors about their text.

It is obvious that the exam was literature based. The students weren't asked questions that made them use metacognitive reading strategies. They were tested on the literary information and vocabulary they covered during the lesson hours and on their skill to comment on a literary text.

4.7. Conclusion

In the fourth chapter, the data analysis related to metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students was presented. The results for six research questions were analysed by PASW Statistics 18, they were explained in detail and discussed.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The fifth chapter of the study presents a brief summary of the research, the overall evaluation of the findings and recommendations for further studies. The summary of the study explains what has been included in each chapter. In the overall evaluation part, the findings of the study have been summarized. Lastly, some recommendations for future studies are made.

5.1. Summary of the Study

This study has been conducted to analyse the relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students at Hacettepe University. In the first chapter of the study, an introduction to the subject and content is explained. Background to the study is given, the problem is stated and the purpose of the study is explained as it is to find out whether there is a relationship between metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students. After that, 6 research questions are presented and the significance of the study is stated. Lastly, the assumptions and the limitations of the study are discussed and the terms used inside the study are defined.

The second chapter presents a detailed review of the related literature. Firstly, reading process and its types are explained as top-down and bottom-up processing, intensive-extensive reading. After that, language learning strategies as memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies are given briefly. Later, the studies conducted on language learning strategies are reviewed from the literature. Then, reading strategies and research on reading strategies are stated. After examining reading strategies, metacognition and metacognitive reading strategies which is the basis of this study are explained in detail and the studies about metacognitive reading strategies are given to see the research done before this study. After seeing the studies in ELT, social cognitive theory is explained in order to understand self-efficacy beliefs better. After that, self-efficacy beliefs, effects and sources of self-efficacy are presented. Lastly, studies about self-efficacy beliefs are mentioned.

In the third chapter of the study, methodology of the study is given. The research design of the study is presented, the participants took part in the study are

mentioned and shown in a table and figure. Then the instruments used in study and the procedure to collect data are explained in detail. Lastly, how the collect data is analysed stated.

In the fourth chapter of study, data analysis and discussions are presented. All the research questions are answered and explained with the help of the data collected from the questionnaire. The collected data is analysed through PASW Statistics 18 with the help of descriptive statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r), independent sample t-test. The mean scores and percentages of the items in the questionnaire are calculated with PASW Statistics and commented by looking at the mean of each item.

5.2. Summary and the Evaluation of the Findings

In order to see what metacognitive reading strategy (Strategy 1: Overview and linking with already known material, Strategy 2: Paying attention, Strategy 3: Directed attention, Strategy 4: Selective attention, Strategy 5: Advance organizing, Strategy 6: Setting goals and objectives, Strategy 7: Identifying the purpose of a language task, Strategy 8: Planning for a language task, Strategy 9: Seeking practice opportunities, Strategy 10: Self-management, Strategy 11: Self-monitoring, and Strategy 12: Self-evaluating) is employed most by the learners, descriptive statistics have been employed. The results indicate that while Strategy 1 (Overview and linking with already known material) is the most employed strategy by ELT students, Strategy 9 (Seeking practice opportunities) is the least employed metacognitive reading strategy. Some possible reasons can be speculated on this result. Applying “overview and linking with already known material” helps students understand the text as this strategy activates their schemata. This may be the reason why they apply it the most. As for the “seeking practice opportunities” strategy, which is the least used one, students may not like spending time on reading out of the class.

To find out what the ELT students’ self-efficacy beliefs in reading are descriptive statistics have been used. According to the results, 7 out of 139 students have low self-efficacy beliefs in reading while 77 of them have mid and 55 of them have high self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Students’ self-efficacy beliefs may change according to the reading text. If the text is too difficult or content is new for them,

they may have low self-efficacy and if the text is easy or they are familiar with the content, their self-efficacy may be high.

In order to find out what the relationship between ELT students' use of metacognitive reading strategies and their self-efficacy beliefs is and if there is a correlation between 12 metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs, Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) has been used. It is obvious from the results that except for only one strategy selective attention strategy (St 4), there is a moderate or low relationship between each of 11 different metacognitive reading strategy individually and self-efficacy beliefs in reading. Therefore, it can be said that metacognitive reading strategies foster self-efficacy beliefs in reading.

To be able to understand if female students differ from male students in metacognitive reading strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs, independent sample t-test" has been utilized. Each of 12 metacognitive reading strategy is examined one by one and the results show that the difference between female and male learners' preferences for metacognitive strategies is not statistically significant. As for the self-efficacy beliefs in reading, any significant differences between "female" and "male" learners' preferences in relation to self-efficacy beliefs in reading have not been found, either.

In order to discover whether there is any statistically significant correlation between ELT students' achievement in reading and a) their use of metacognitive reading strategies b) their self-efficacy beliefs, Pearson Product Moment Correlational Coefficient (r) has been employed. The results declare that except for self-monitoring strategy (St 11), students' achievement in reading does not depend on the use of metacognitive reading strategies and the results also showed that self-efficacy beliefs of students does not affect students' grades in reading. As for the possible reasons why self-monitoring strategy affect reading achievement; when students monitor their grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation before the exam, they can get prepared well for the exam and get high marks.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Studies

This study is about the relationship between 12 metacognitive reading strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of ELT students. It also tried to find out whether there is a relationship between metacognitive reading strategy use, self-efficacy beliefs in

reading and students' achievement in reading. Future research can be conducted with a larger group which is homogenous in terms of gender disturbance. Also, in order to examine students' actual strategy use, think-aloud protocols or interviews can be used instead of Likert scale questionnaire. Lastly, different results can be obtained in future studies if the exams the students took are prepared by the researcher.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX -1: ETİK KOMİSYONU BAŞVURU FORMU



T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

22 Şubat 2016

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EGİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgili: 20.01.2016 tarih ve 153 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden **Emine SOY**'un Doç. Dr. Arif SARİCOBAN danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "**İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Öğrencilerinin Bilişüstü Okuma Stratejileri ve Özyeterlilik İnançları**" başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonuzun **26 Ocak 2016** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.


Prof. Dr. A. Haluk ÖZEN
Rektör

APPENDIX-2: GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışma, Doç. Dr. Arif Sarıçoban ve Emine Soy tarafından “İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Öğrencilerinin Bilişüstü Okuma Sıtratejileri ve Özyeterlilik İnançları” başlıklı yüksek lisans tezinin bir parçası olarak yürütölmektedir. Bu araştırmanın amacı Hacettepe Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü'nde okuyan öğrencilerin bilişüstü okuma sıtratejileri ve özyeterlilik inançları arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını bulmaktır. Diğer amacı, öğrencilerinin bilişüstü okuma sıtratejilerinin ve özyeterlilik inançlarının okuma dersindeki başarısına etkisinin olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Son olarak, kız ve erkek öğrencilerin bilişüstü okuma sıtratejileri kullanmada ve özyeterlilik inançları arasında bir farklılık olup olmadığını bulmak çalışmanın amaçları arasındadır. Bilişüstü okuma sıtratejilerinin ve özyeterlilik inançlarının okuma dersindeki başarısına etkisinin olup olmadığını bulmak amacıyla katılımcıların anketlere isim, soyisim ve cinsiyetlerini yazması gerekmektedir. Ancak sizden alınan veriler tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecek, anketteki sorulara vermiş olduğunuz cevaplar hiçbir şekilde bu dersten alacağınız notu etkilemeyecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacak ancak katılımcıların kimlik bilgileri paylaşılmayacaktır. Tüm oturum araştırmacı kontrolünde geçmektedir. Katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz oturumu yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda, araştırmacıyı bilgilendirmeniz yeterli olacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Emine Soy (E-posta: emineucak90@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad

Tarih

İmza

Alınan Ders

----/----/-----

APPENDIX-3: QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

Self-Efficacy Inventory

Gender: Female
 Male

Dear students,

This form of Self-Efficacy Inventory is for ELT students. You will find statements about how confident you are. Please think about yourself as a foreign language student. For each statement below, put a tick ✓ to the number that best present your confidence. (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5)

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Undecided
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.					
2	I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings for this course.					
3	I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in this course.					
4	I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in this course.					
5	I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in this course.					
6	I expect to do well in this class.					
7	I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this class.					
8	Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this class.					

Thank you for your contribution to the study

SECTION B

Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire

Metacognitive reading strategies questionnaire includes 49 statements. While responding to the statements, imagine that you are reading a text for school. Take a moment to think about the typical things you do to help you comprehend the text. For each strategy statement, put a tick✓ to the statement that best indicates how much you use that strategy. Feel free to give your real opinions on the matter. Please, read each statement carefully.

(N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, O=Often, A=Always)

	Items	N	R	S	O	A
1	I overview the texts to get general information about them.					
2	I try to draw on my knowledge of the topic to help me understand what I am reading.					
3	While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the topic, based on the text's content.					
4	As I am reading, I distinguish between information that I already know and new information.					
5	I use my prior knowledge (e.g., knowledge about the theme of the text, or grammar knowledge) to help me understand what I read.					
6	I pay attention to all the information that I have read.					
7	While reading, I pay attention to the strategies that I use.					
8	I pay attention to what I read as much as possible to avoid repetition.					
9	Before starting to read any book I will survey its title, topic and sub topic to be sure that it is the book I need.					
10	I read summary, topic sentence, chapter questions and heading or subheading before deciding to read that book.					
11	I look through the text as quickly as possible until I research the relevant part of the text. Then I read that part to get the information I want (scanning).					
12	I read the whole passage quickly to understand the main idea (skimming).					
13	I look at the pictures, graphs, maps, diagrams, etc., of the passage.					
14	First, I read the first sentence of each paragraph.					
15	I search out information relevant to my reading goals.					
16	I try to find the topic I needed from the index.					

	Items	N	R	S	O	A
17	I anticipate information that will be presented later in the text.					
18	I preview the text before reading.					
19	Before reading, I set clear goals to improve my English reading skills.					
20	I set goals to help me at using my time efficiently.					
21	I set my reading objectives according to my interests and level in English.					
22	Before starting to read any book at any time I, first of all, think about what the purposes of my reading are.					
23	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.					
24	While reading, I try to remember the purpose of what I read to help me at utilizing my time efficiently.					
25	After I have read a text, I anticipate how I will use the knowledge that I have gained from reading the text.					
26	I have my own plan to read in English besides the homework assigned by my teacher.					
27	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to read in English.					
28	I revise my plan in time once I find it not accordance with the real situation.					
29	I revise what I will read in advance.					
30	I seek practicing reading aloud to develop my fluency.					
31	I actively look for opportunities to participate in a variety of English reading activities.					
32	I actively look for opportunities to practice reading in English with my classmates.					
33	I try to distinguish facts from opinions.					
34	I link the information in one sentence with the information from the preceding ones.					
35	I continue reading even if I have difficulty.					
36	While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my prior questions about the topic, based on the text's content.					
37	After I read the text, I consider other possible interpretations to determine whether I have understood the text.					
38	While reading, I exploit my personal strengths in order to better understand the text. If I am a good reader, I focus on the text; if I am good with figures and diagrams, I focus on that information.					

	Items	N	R	S	O	A
39	I choose the reading materials that are suitable to my English level, neither too difficult nor too easy.					
40	I correct my pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary while reading for appropriateness related to the setting or to the teacher who is present.					
41	I check my pronunciation as I read aloud.					
42	I monitor my fluency by recording my reading performance.					
43	While reading, I check whether my pronunciation of the words is clear and understandable.					
44	As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/ understanding of the subject.					
45	I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goals.					
46	As I read along, I check whether I had anticipated the current information.					
47	I evaluate my reading strategies to find out the existing problems and solutions.					
48	I check my own progress by doing reading exercises.					
49	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text rather than passively accept everything.					

Thank you for your contribution to the study

Name-surname:

Student no:

APPENDIX-4: ORIGINALITY REPORT

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METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES AND SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS OF
BY EMINE SOY

İNGLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN BİLİŞSÜTÜ
OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ VE ÖZYETERLİK İNANÇLARI

METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES AND SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS OF ELT STUDENTS

Emine SOY

Submitted to the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University as a partial fulfillment to the requirements to the Award for Degree of Master in English Teaching Program
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CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

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Education

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<i>Undergraduate</i>	Middle East Technical University	2012
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<i>Languages</i>	English: Advance	

Work Experience

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<i>Working places</i>	Turgut Özal University	2013- ...

Academic

Publications

Uçak, E. (2013) 'Opinions of Students and Teachers on Using Different Foreign Language Teaching Activities in Young Learners' Classrooms in Turkey', International Online Journal of Education and Teaching, Vol.1 No.1

Certificates

Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA)
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