

ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION Department of English Language Teaching

EFFECTS OF A READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON 10th GRADE EFL STUDENTS' METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS

İlkay Banu TAMİN

Supervisor

Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA

MASTER'S THESIS

May, 2019

COPYRIGHT STATEMENT

Within the framework of the provisions of the Additional Paragraph 40 of the Higher Education Law No. 2547 (Annex: 22/2 / 2018-7100 / 10) "Unless the decision of confidentiality is taken by the authorized institutions and organisations, master theses are opened to access to electronic media by the Higher Education Council National Thesis Center". Researchers can not use, publish, distribute or copy all or part of theses for commercial or financial gain without permission of the author. Researchers using the National Thesis Center Web Page make use of the theses within the framework of scientific ethics and citation rules.

AUTHOR

Name	: İlkay Banu
Surname	: TAMİN
Department	: English Language Education
Signature	:

THESIS

Submission Date : 22/05/2019

Turkish : Okuma Stratejileri Programının 10.Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Bilişüstü Farkındalıklarına Etkileri

English : Effects of a Reading Strategy Instruction on 10th Grade EFL Students' Metacognitive Awareness

ETHICAL STATEMENT

I hereby declare that all the information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that I have fully cited and referenced all the material and results that are original to this work.

Name, Surname: İlkay Banu TAMİN

:

Signature

APPROVAL

Thesis study prepared by İlkay Banu TAMİN "Effects of a Reading Strategy Instruction on 10th Grade Efl Students' Metacognitive Awareness" was approved by consensus by the jury below as a thesis for Master of Arts Degree in English Language Education by Department of Foreign Language Education in Ondokuz Mayıs University.

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA	
English Language Teaching, Ondokuz Mayıs University	
Head : Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA	
English Language Teaching, Ondokuz Mayıs University	
Member:	
Member:	

I confirm that this thesis fulfills the requirements for being a MA thesis in the English Language Teaching Program, Department of Educational Sciences.

Date: 22/05/2019

Prof. Dr. Ali ERARSLAN

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would not have been able to complete my thesis without the support of people around me. I would like to thank my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA for her guidance, patience, encouragement and suggestions at every stage of the study. I am inclined to express my sincere appreciation to my mother Ayten and my father Orhan TAMİN for their invaluable encouragement, support and endless love throughout my life. I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to Adem DEMİR and Emre AK for their support and valuable opinions about my study. My sincere thanks go to Volkan DURAN for helping me analyze the data. They all contributed much with their thoughtful insights and helpful feedback to the study.

OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ PROGRAMININ

10. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN

BİLİŞÜSTÜ FARKINDALIKLARINA ETKİLERİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

İlkay Banu TAMİN

ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Mayıs, 2019

ÖΖ

Flavell (1979) tarafından, bireylerin Bilisüstü farkındalık öğrenmelerini zenginleştirmek için kendi bilişsel süreçlerini anlama, kontrol etme ve düzenleme yeteneği olarak tanımlanmıştır. Yabancı dil öğretimi alanında yürütülen çok sayıda araştırma, okuyucuların okuma sürecinde hangi stratejileri, nasıl kullanmaları gerektiğini bilmelerini ve bu stratejilerin kullanımını takip edip düzenlemeleri için bilişüstü farkındalıklarının geliştirilmesi gerektiğini ileri sürmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, bilişüstü okuma stratejileri programının öğrencilerin bilişüstü farkındalıklarına etkisini araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, 10. sınıf öğrencilerinin bilişüstü farkındalıklarını artırmak için İngilizce dersinde 10 haftalık okuma stratejileri programı geliştirilmiştir. Bu çalışmada eylem araştırması yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar, 2017-2018 Eğitim Öğretim Yılı Güz Döneminde, Havza 25 Mayıs Anadolu Lisesi 10/ B sınıfında bulunan 25 (11 kız, 14 erkek) 10. sınıf öğrencisinden olusmaktadır. O'Malley ve Chamot'un (1990) dil öğrenme stratejileri sınıflandırması dikkate alınarak bilişüstü stratejiler okuma programına entegre edilmiş, 10 haftalık bir okuma stratejisi programı geliştirilmiştir. Çalışmada yüzeysel tarama, tarama, K-W-L tablosu, görselleştirme, sesli düşünme, not alma, resiprokal ve öz değerlendirme stratejileri öğretimi yapılmıştır. Nitel ve nicel veri toplama aracı bir arada kullanılmıştır. Nitel veri aracı olarak araştırmacı günlüğü ve öğrenci ile yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler, nicel veri aracı olarak da öğrenciler için Likert tipi ölçek kullanılmıştır. Araştırmacı günlüğü araştırma süresince, araştırmacının kendisinin ya da öğrencilerin ne tür ihtiyaçları olduğu, strateji öğretim programının planlandığı gibi gidip gitmediği konusunda dikkatli olmasını sağlar. Araştırmacı, her hafta strateji kullanımına yönelik öğrenci

tepkilerini ve ders işleyişini araştırmacı günlüğüne not almıştır. Araştırmacı günlükteki gözlemlerini dikkate alarak, strateji kullanımına olumlu tepki veren ve stratejiyi kullanırken zorluk yaşayan öğrencileri seçip yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapmıştır ve elde edilen nitel veriler seçici kodlama ile analiz edilmiştir. Öğrencilerin görüşme sorularına verdikleri yorumlar benzerlik ve farklılıkları gruplandırılarak ortak bir perspektifle analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmanın nicel verileri, öğrencilerin bilişüstü okuma stratejileri farkındalık düzeylerini belirlemek amacıyla Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) tarafından geliştirilen "Bilişüstü Okuma Stratejileri Farkındalık Envanteri" kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Likert tipi hazırlanmış bu envanter toplam 30 ifadeden oluşmakta ve küresel, destekleyici ve problem çözme stratejileri olmak üzere 3 ayrı bilişüstü okuma stratejileri farkındalığını göstermektedir. Nicel veri aracı olarak, 10 haftalık strateji öğretimi programında, strateji öğretimi programının bilişüstü farkındalığa etkisinin olup olmadığının araştırmak amacıyla envanterin Öztürk (2012) tarafından Türkceye adapte edilen versiyonu ilk ve son haftalarda uygulanmıştır. Sürec sonunda, veriler SPSS 5 programi ile ortalamalar, standart sapmalar, Mann-Whitney U ve Wilcoxon W test sonuçları ile analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular, hem toplamda hem bütün alt kategorilerde öğrencilerin bilişüstü okuma stratejileri farkındalıklarında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir artış olduğunu göstermektedir. Katılımcıların toplam bilişüstü okuma stratejileri kullanım algıları düşük aralıktan orta aralığa yükselmiştir. Sonuçlar, öğrencilerin en çok problem çözme startejilerini, ardından küresel okuma stratejilerini ve en az destekleyici okuma stratejilerini kullanmayı tercih ettiklerini göstermiştir. Görüşme sonuçları ve ölçek bulgularının paralel olduğu gözlenmiştir. Ayrıca, kız ve erkek öğrencilerin bilişüstü okuma stratejileri tercihleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler	: Bilişüstü Farkındalık, Okuma Stratejileri, Bilişüstü
	Okuma Stratejileri Eğitimi
Sayfa Sayısı	: 149

Danışman : Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA

EFFECTS OF A READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

ON 10th GRADE EFL STUDENTS'

METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS

MA Thesis

İlkay Banu TAMİN

ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

May, 2019

ABSTRACT

Metacognitive awareness was defined by Flavell (1979) as one's ability to understand, control and regulate his own cognitive process to boost learning. A great deal of research carried out within the field of foreign language teaching has asserted that students are asked to know what/ how reading strategies are employed, and their metacognitive awareness to be promoted in order to follow and regulate the use of strategies in reading comprehension process. This study aimed to investigate the effect of a reading strategy programme on the students' metacognitive awareness. To this end, a 10-week reading strategy instruction was developed to promote the 10th grade students' metacognitive awareness. The current research adopted action research design. The participants consisted of 25 (11 females, 14 males) 10th grade students of 10/ B class in 25 Mayıs Anatolian High School in Havza in 2017-2018 education year fall term. Considering O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification for language learning strategies, metacognitive strategies were integrated into a reading programme and a 10-week reading strategy program was developped. Skimming, scanning, K-W-L, visualization, think aloud, annotating, reciprocal, self assessment strategies were included in strategy training programme in the current study. Both qualitative and quantitave data collection tools were used in the research. The researcher diary and semi-structured interview with 10th grade students were adopted to gather qualitative data whereas a Likert type scale was used for quantitative data. The researcher diary enables the researcher to be more alert about the contours of what the students or she/he needs, whether the strategy training is going on as planned during research time. The researcher took notes about the reading instruction and reactions of students to the use of strategies. The researcher, taking into consideration of the observations in the diary, employed semi-structured interviews with students who reacted positively and who had difficulty in using the strategy every week. The qualitative data gathered were analyzed using selective coding. The students' responses were categorized according to similarities and differences and also were analyzed through common perspectives. As a quantitative data instrument, Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) was used in order to determine the students' awareness level of metacognitive reading strategies. The Likert type MARSI consists of 30 statements and indicates 3 different reading strategies as global, support and problem solving metacognitive strategies awareness. The Turkish version of MARSI adapted by Öztürk (2012) was used both in the first week and in the tenth week of the research to investigate whether strategy training programme had effect on metacognitive awareness for a 10-week strategy training programme. At the end of the process, the obtained data were statistically analyzed through SPSS 5 with means, standard deviations, Mann-Whitney U and Wilcoxon W tests. The findings indicated statistically significant increase in the students' perceptions of the metacognitive reading strategies both in all sub-categories and overall use. Participants' perceptions of metacognitive reading strategy use increased to moderate level of overall use from low level use. The results indicated that the students employed problem solving strategies the most, followed by global reading strategies and they preferred using support reading strategies the least. It was observed that the interview results and the findings of the scale were parallel. In addition, there was not found any significant difference between metacognitive reading strategy awareness of male and that of female students.

Key Words	: Metacognitive Awareness, Reading Strategies,
	Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training
Number of Pages	: 149
Supervisor	: Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek BÜYÜKAHISKA

TABLE OF CONTENTS

COPYRIGHT STATEMENT II
ETHICAL STATEMENTIII
APPROVALXIV
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSVI
ÖZXI
ABSTRACT XIX
TABLE OF CONTENTSXI
LIST OF TABLES XIII
LIST OF FIGURESXIV
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONSXV
CHAPTER 11
I. INTRODUCTION1
1.1 Statement of the Problem
1.2 Purpose of the Study 4
1.3 Significance of the Study 5
1.4 Assumptions
1.5 Limitations
1.6 Research Questions7
1.7 Definitions of Terms7
CHAPTER 2 9
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE9
2.1 Reading9
2.2 Reading Process and Reading Types12
2.2.1 Bottom-up Reading Process12
2.2.2 Top-down Reading Process13
2.2.3 Interactive Reading Process14
2.2.4 Intensive Reading15
2.2.5 Extensive Reading15
2.3 Reading Comprehension16
2.4 Language Learning Strategies17
2.5 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies
2.5.1 Rubin's Classification18
2.5.2 Stern's Classification19

2.5.3 Oxford's Classification	20
2.5.4 O'Malley and Chamot's Classification	21
2.6 Metacognition	25
2.6.1 Metacognitive Awareness and Reading Comprehension	27
2.7 Metacognitive Reading Strategies	28
2.8 Types of Metacognitive Reading Strategies	31
2.8.1 Skimming Strategy	31
2.8.2 Scaning Strategy	32
2.8.3 K-W-L Strategy	32
2.8.4 Visualization Strategy	33
2.8.5 Think Aloud Strategy	33
2.8.6 Annotating Strategy	
2.8.7 Reciprocal Strategy	34
2.8.8 Self- Assessment Strategy	
CHAPTER 3	37
III. METHODOLOGY	37
3.1 Research Method	37
3.2 Participants	39
3.3 Research Instruments	40
3.3.1 The Reading Strategy Scale	41
3.3.2 The Researcher Diary	44
3.3.3 Semi- Structured Interviews	45
3.4 Data Collection Procedure	46
CHAPTER 4	67
IV FINDINGS	67
4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis	67
4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis	77
CHAPTER 5	95
V. CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	95
5.1 Conclusion	95
5.2 Discussion	99
5.3 Recommendations	109
5.3.1 Implications	109
5.3.2 Recommendations for Further Studies	112
REFERENCES	113
APPENDICES	123

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Classification of O'Malley and Chamot's LLS (1990, p. 119-120)	23
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Overall Global Reading Strategies	67
Table 3: Statistics of Mann- Whitney U and Wilcoxon Tests	68
Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Global Reading Strategies	69
Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Overall Problem Solving Strategies	69
Table 6: Statistics of Mann- Whitney and Wilcoxon W Tests	70
Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Problem Solving Strategies	70
Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of Overall Support Reading Strategies	71
Table 9: Statistics of Mann- Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests	71
Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of Support Reading Strategies	72
Table 11: Statistics of the Most and the Least Preferred Strategies	73
Table 12: Statistics of Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests in Pretest	73
Table 13: Statistics of Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests in Posttest	75
Table 14: Statistics of Reported Overall Use of Strategies in Pretest and Posttest	75
Table 15: Statistics of Mean Ranks in Pretest and Posttest	75
Table 16: Statistics of Overall Reported Strategies in Three Categories	76

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Organization of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.16)......20 Figure 2: Oxford's Metacognitive Strategies Classification (1990, p.137)......21



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- EFL English as a Foreign Language
- LLS Language Learning Strategies
- M Mean
- N Number of the Students in the Sample
- SD Standard Deviation
- K-W-L What do you Know, What do you Want to learn,

What did you Learn

CHAPTER ONE

I. INTRODUCTION

As noted by Susser and Robb (1990), reading has been the mainstay of language instruction in traditional foreign language teaching. Reading is considered as a highly valuable skill by both learners and instructors for two main reasons. First, foreign language readers aim at acquiring reading skill to read for information, enjoyment, career or study purposes. Second, written texts present some pedagogical opportunities. Readers might be provided with good models for writing, new topics to learn or discuss, tools to study language in terms of different domains like vocabulary, grammar or idioms (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

The language skills have led researchers to do considerable research as learners confront difficulties while engaging in skills. Considering the four language skills, reading has been the centered skill throughout language teaching history as reading and memorization are commonly preferred in classes. Reading as an instrument or skill is crucially important to reach sources of information (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

The reading skill is not just recognizing letters, combining and sounding them, rather it goes beyond necessarily. The cornerstone of reading skill is the comprehension of the material (Bernhardt, 2011; Samuels & Farstrup, 2011; Tercanlioglu & Demiröz, 2015). Barnett (1988) points out that the reading comprehension strategies were obtained by the late 1970s and continue as readers employ some reading comprehension strategies for easier reading process. To enhance better reading comprehension, teachers should make learners be aware of reading strategies and utilize them appropriately (Yiğiter, Sarıçoban & Gürses, 2005). Reading strategies' awareness is approached as "the knowledge of the readers' cognition about reading and the self control mechanisms they exercise when monitoring and regulating text comprehension" (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002, p. 249). This controlled mechanism is commonly named as "metacognition". When metacognition is considered in the language learning area, it connotes to the action that one uses for planning, regulating, assessing and following of his or her language learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Simply, metacognition is identified as one's awareness of and management over the process engaged in learning (Meltzer, Pollica & Barzillai, 2007). Metacognition is in the domain of language learning strategies and is noticed progressively for the influence in reading comprehension. Foreign language leaners need to follow learning strategies to reach good comprehension. Chun (1997) describes reading comprehension process that readers make sense of a reading material when they build a mental representation for incoming elements of verbal knowledge. Readers consult to various learning strategies, namely thoughts or behaviours, to find out the text message and increase comprehension (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Learners mostly resort to learning strategies while dealing with specific situation related to not only reading, but basic language skills (Ghani, 2003). The two prominent versions of learning strategies' grouping belong to the forerunners O 'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) divide learning strategies into three sections: metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies. Oxford's (1990) six types of learning strategies are divided into two broad groups; direct and indirect. Oxford (1990) lists 'memory', 'cognitive' and 'compensation' strategies in the direct group; while 'metacognitive', 'affective' and 'social' strategies are in the indirect group. She asserts that there is a mutual effect between direct and indirect strategies; so indirect strategies may be used through direct strategies.

When competent readers have difficulty in grasping the meaning or message of a text, they prefer using strategies to succed in dealing with the obstacles (Tercanlioglu, 2004). Importance of reading skills in academic contexts has made way for a great deal of investigation in a second/or foreign language reading (Day & Bamford, 2002; Grabe, 1991; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Yigiter, Saricoban & Gurses, 2005). Studies on learners' metacognitive facets of reading strategy use have indicated that successful readers use reading strategies more appropriately thanks to their higher degree of metacognitive awareness (Carrell, 1989; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2001). As proposed by Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989) metacognition literally, cognition of cognition, has received a considerable attention recently. Metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and the relationships among perception of strategies, strategy use

and reading comprehension are investigated. Strategy investigation brings forward that less competent learners may enhance their skills and use strategies employed by more successful learners if they undergo strategy training.

Teachers should teach students how to become better thinkers in equal learning conditions in which all students may proceed (Wilson & Conyers, 2016). Metacognitive strategies are known as to be included in several classroom cognitive exercises such as comprehension, evaluation, reading, writing, and problem solving. Hence, this study aims to develop a reading strategy instruction to high school EFL readers to find out whether the instruction has influence on their awareness of metacognitive reading strategies. In this respect, the present study explores whether teachers may teach metacognitive reading strategies in EFL classroom settings.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Most language learners undergo disappointment after they try to learn language for long years. There are certain students who do not notice what the text they have read means. Usually, they start reading and go on reading to the end without comprehending the text. They are not aware of what they comprehend or not. Besides that, some students do not use relevant reading strategies. Students need to know that using appropriate strategies effectively has an undeniable positive effect on reading process (Wilson & Conyers, 2016). Students may learn the reading strategies, but they may not utilize appropriately. Students need to learn to know how, when, where and why to implement the strategies independently. There are several studies which highlight the relationship between success and strategy use (Eilers & Pinkley, 2006; Onovughe & Hannah, 2011; Paris & Jacobs, 1984). The purpose of guiding students to be metacognitive learners is to lead them to be aware of the appropriate way and time to handle cognitive strategies for different occasions individually. Having a successful reading is not only thanks to the content knowledge, but it happens also with the help of thinking skills and using their minds metacognitively.

The students in state schools may display negative attitudes towards reading texts in their course books. Most students may have difficulties in comprehending reading texts even if they are good at grammar activities. Çubukçu (2008) claims that incompetent readers may become competent readers and learners if they are instructed

in practical strategies and are trained to supervise their comprehension while they engage in reading.

Accordingly, it is essential that more scientific research should be studied in foreign language contexts especially in real classrooms as students spend long years to learn English in schools in Turkey. Integration of a reading program into English lessons is to make students aware of their thinking processes and the use of metacognitive strategies to improve their reading comprehension and be autonomous in their reading. Students should be motivated to have more positive attitudes towards reading tasks, to be interested in reading materials and to develop better comprehension. Also, foreign language teachers should be informed about how effectively they may teach foreign language reading and use metacognitive strategies.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

A review of literature reveals that language learning process should not only focus on knowledge of grammar structures. It is of vital importance to explore reading as a receptive skill in order to learn a foreign language effectively. As Grabe (2009) holds that reading skills do not ensure success, rather ease the way to reach success. Metacognitive strategies are regarded as one of the critical components to be handled in reading as a dynamic process.

Hence, this research tries to reveal whether a reading program integrated into English lessons increases learners' metacognitive awareness in 25 Mayıs Anatolian High School. In this respect, it aims to motivate students to be metacognitively aware of using reading strategies and to be interested in the reading texts. If students' interest and motivation are enhanced, their reading performance is to be blossomed (Retelsdorf, Köller & Möller, 2011). The motivation is important in reading process, as it helps the students change their negative perceptions of reading to positive ones. The overarching purpose of this study is to provide insights to teachers about when, where and how the strategies are needed to be used and also how to harmonize the reading strategies with regular English lesson plans. On the other hand, students need to be provided ample chances to evaluate their perceiving of strategies so that a positive and optimum outcome of strategy use may be adopted. In a sense, it may not be sufficient for students only employing definite functional strategies, but also they

need to use a profile of strategies efficiently. To this end, the current research aims to present a large number of references for EFL reading-strategy instruction especially in high schools.

The readers are centered in the study as it addresses reading as a process. Therefore, the aim is to bring forward metacognitive reading strategies that readers use in the process of reading. Effective readers utilize a vast of strategies as they read different types of texts. From this perspective, it is vitally important that language teachers explicitly teach students how to select suitable strategies and how to use them in reading materials (Tankersley, 2003). All in all, this study aims to develop a reading strategy programme to promote the 10th grade EFL students' metacognitive awareness. Namely, the current research investigates the probable effects of a reading strategy programme on the high school students' metacognitive awareness. Additionally, the research is an attempt to assess the readers' metacognitive awareness along with their perception of metacognitive reading strategies while reading school related materials. Further, it aims to investigate what students care about or like, how they may be motivated to read, what hinderances come into play to get students be concerned in reading. Effective reading happens when readers know task-specific strategies, use these strategies appropriately and learn planning, monitoring and evaluating their reading. Therefore, the findings from this study are assumed to bring about useful implications for EFL reading-strategy instruction in high schools in Turkey or in other similar foreign language learning contexts.

1.3 Significance of the Study

The four basic skills; reading, writing, speaking and listening have been emphasized by different bodies of research within the field of foreign language learning recently. Among these skills, reading skill may be attained effectively with the use of strategies. Learners are exposed to failures in language learning, specifically in reading at a reasonable rate. Generally, self- regulation is stated as the reason of failure (Çubukçu, 2009). If readers have stronger metacognitive awareness, they may interpret a reading task accordingly as they decide to use specific reading strategies for reading aims, task requirements, and their own cognitive style. They know how to monitor their comprehension, evaluate the outcomes of the determined strategies, and accommodate strategies if required (Cohen, 2014).

The results may give an idea to state school teachers, how to integrate the metacognitive reading strategies to the English lessons. Techers may be informed about how to make aware of the students own potentials on comprehending reading texts in their books or exams. During and after the training program, it may be revealed that how students assess using the stategies actively and consciously. The findings about which metacognitive stategies are preferred the most and the least is to shed light to instruction of reading. The teachers may adapt the lesson plans to their own plans in their usual lessons. The study is assumed to enrich not only the awareness of the students, but also the teachers' awareness of how metacognitive reading strategies foster students' interaction with the texts and comprehension of the texts. This study is expected to contribute to the literature in that it will be among the studies trying to find the effects of a reading strategy program on students' metacognitive awareness through four-hour English lessons in high schools in Turkey.

1.4 Assumptions

The participants were native Turkish speakers in a state high school who are exposed to English in lesson time for about 7 years, but they do not have the chance to be exposed to English like in real life, as a communicative tool, apart from classrooms; therefore native language is used. The researcher needed to get feedback from the learners, so she aimed to inspire learners to take part actively in the process and feel stress free to reflect their opinions. The participants honestly, sincerely responded to survey as there was no score anxiety. Also, they were told that if they gave honest results, this would be for their own sake as the lessons would be designed accordingly.

1.5 Limitations

Participants in this study were delimited to 10th grade high school EFL learners of 25 Mayıs Anatolian High School. When the age of the participants is considered, the results of the current study may not certainly induce to middle-aged or elderly learners. The results may not be necessarily generalized to the students in other countries with different cultures. To reveal metacognitive awareness of students in reading, Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) was used. The scale is such a self-report as participants report what they declare to do. In fact, participants might not say what they actually do when responding to the statements in the MARSI. For this reason, interviews were conducted with students to see whether they were really using reading strategies consciously or with suitable purposes. Also, the researcher observed the training process, students' attitudes and the flow of lessons.

1.6 Research Questions

It is highly important to know when, where and how to use the strategies together with knowing the strategy itself. So, this study aimed to find out whether the strategy training program would affect the students' use of metacognitive strategies appropriately. In order to fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research questions were raised:

- 1. Is there any significant difference in global reading strategies between pre and posttest?
- 2. Is there any significant difference in problem-solving reading strategies between pre and posttest?
- 3. Is there any significant difference in support reading strategies between pre and posttest?
- 4. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the most and the least used reading strategies of all three areas between pre and posttest?
- 5. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies in terms of gender variable between pre and posttest?
- 6. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies as a whole between pre and posttest?

I.7 Definitons of Terms

In this present study, some distinct terms are used to discuss the effects of a reading program on metacognitive awareness of students in English lessons. The definitions of some frequently used terms are given in order to bring a clear understanding of the phenomenon. The definitions of the terms related to the current study are as follows:

Foreign Language: The language which is studied doesn't belong to the same country the learners live (Cook, 2003). People are not exposed to the language in a communicative way directly, as the official and common language is another one.

Second Language: It is simply an official language or mostly used language of a country (Cook, 2003).

Reading Stategies: Purposeful and planned activities exerted by readers to make sense and get the message of a text (MacLeish, 1968; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Metacognition: Metacognition or metacognitive awareness was first described by Flavell (1979) as one's ability to understand, control and regulate his own cognitive process to boost learning. It is simply knowledge about cognition and management of cognition (Grabe, 1991).

Metacognitive strategies: Behaviours, skills used for planning, monitoring, self regulating and assessing one's own learning process (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989).

Metacognitive Reading Strategies Awareness: In terms of reading, metacognitive reading strategies awareness refers to readers' competency in knowing strategies to process texts, to monitor comprehension and to adapt strategies necessarily (Auerbach & Paxton, 1997).

CHAPTER TWO

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Reading

Languages are mostly taught and evaluated concerning the four skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing. Listening and reading are specified as receptive skills while speaking and writing are identified as productive skills. According to Sallabaş (2008), language may be approached through two dimensions; comprehension (reading and listening) and expression (speaking and writing) dimensions. Reading involves within the comprehension dimension and it is at the core of effective ways of communication. Karatay (2009) adds that people use basic language skills like understanding and explaining while communicating. While reading and listening are receptive skills, they are assessed under the understanding skills area; speaking and writing are productive skills, so they are under the explaining skills area. Ríos Olaya and Valcárcel Goyeneche (2005) also define reading skill as a receptive language process in which the reader both realizes and uncovers all kinds of symbols. This process continues until the reader attributes a meaning to the uncovered written language and delivers the information reflected and appreciated in his experience. Through the learning process, reading is one of the best ways to reach and update knowledge.

All language learners are expected to improve their skills in each of reading, writing, speaking, listening and grammar areas and language teachers should blend related activities to the lessons. It is the necessity of school syllabus that learners are supposed to deal with lots of sources based on texts and so on reading skills (Karatay, 2009). The main focus of this study is the 'reading skill'. Reading is considered to be one of the basic skills that is crucial in foreign language teaching and one of the main skills that is strikingly an important aspect of foreign language learning.

Students need reading skill both in their regular and academic lives. Among the four language skills, it has a crucial role in that it is a means to improve other language skills, also to learn grammar and vocabulary (Tercanlioglu & Demiröz, 2015).

It is thought that from the beginning of education, the progress of students' reading comprehension, gradually high level cognitive interpretation and evaluation will flourish the effectiveness of education in accordance with its objectives (Kuzu, 2004). Reading has a significant role in learning. Furthermore, reading skill has an essential role in school success and daily life of students. Reading ability will guide students to enhance their knowledge and insights on learning materials more effectively. According to Grabe (2009), reading skill does not guarantee success for anyone, but it will make easier to reach success. Reading is not only the source of information, but also a skill which develops someone's personality, enriches imagination and contributes to learning different experiences and perspectives (Özbay & Özdemir, 2012).

According to Kuzu (2004), students approach towards the scientific texts prejudicedly which use high-level language and the texts written with an indirect way as the students think they may not comprehend the texts. The students do not prefer reading such texts, because they sometimes think they are not capable of understanding so they do not want to handle the situation. Sometimes they think that reading is more boring and tiring than visual learning, unfortunately they do not notice the intellectual and affective richness in reading. It is thought that thanks to the studies about comprehending of texts and pedagogic motivational ways, students will have interests in texts and reading.

So far, many definitons or interpretations of reading have been offered. Some of them may be given as the following:

Goodman (1998) deals with reading as psycholinguistic process in which writers create a message through linguistic elements and the reader works out to find it. He supposes that there is an inevitable interplay between language and thought in reading, as the writers transmit their thoughts to the texts and the reader figures out the messages of the texts. Diaz and Laguado (2013) outlook on the interaction between language and thought in reading similarly as the writers encode their thoughts via

language and the readers decode language to thought. Ur (1996) supports that when readers begin reading a text, they are inclined to concentrate on decoding the letters to get what they represent and imply.

Karatay (2009) maintains reading as a complex process in which visuals like letters, words, graphics and pictures are comprehended through sense organs. These visuals are recognized and interpreted via background knowledge of readers. Similarly, Moreillon (2007) holds that reading is not a simple process, rather it is a complex process requiring both practice and skill to elicit meaning from words and pictures. Reading happens with the use of perceptual, psycholinguistic and cognitive abilities (Anastasiou & Griva, 2009). Grabe and Stoller (2011) urge that reading may be thought as the way to get information and to comment about by reforming this information. While reading, readers perceive the written forms of language either visually or kinaesthetically (using Braille). Fluent reading proceeds purposeful, motivated, also in such a way that results in interaction in terms of component skills and the link from the knowledge to the printed word. It happens progressively with continuing effort and improvement (Alderson, 2000). Briefly, reading may be described as the capability to extract meaning from the printed and make sense of this information accordingly (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). According to Kirci (2004), reading is vocalization of the symbolic images and understanding of the thoughts that the images state. Reading happens when the eye and speech organs function together and when the mind makes inferences from the written symbols. As Harmer (2001) affirms, a reader uses some clues to make out what the writer is signifying, so this means that the reader should be able to see what further apparent meaning of words.

When the definitions and interpretations of reading are considered together, they have 'understanding' as the common point. The goal of reading is to understand the material whatever it is, it does not matter if it is a novel, story, coursebook or newspaper (Özbay & Özdemir, 2012). In other words, the main aim in reading is to 'comprehend' (Çöğmen & Saracaloğlu, 2010; Kırcı, 2004; Othman & Jaidi, 2012). Comprehension is the center of reading and is effected by three factors: the linguistic structures of the text, metacognitive control over the content and sufficient background knowledge or vocabulary (Tankersley, 2003). Briefly, reading is more than combining the words in

a text. Through the reading process, it is not enough to see the symbols, rather it is necessary to understand these symbols and comment or reach an idea about them.

2.2 Reading Process and Reading Types

According to Goodman (1998), information processing happens thanks to brain organ, as it chooses available information and the tasks, the strategies, the sources to acquire the information. It tries to maximize the information and minimize the energy and effort to access it. Goodman (1998) refers to two perspectives for reading; one defines reading as "matching sounds to letters", and the other mentions that reading is such an enigma in which the way it works is ambigious (p. 11). Before him, MacLeish (1968) proposes that readers are "getting sounds from the printed page" and "reading evokes oral response to the graphic stimuli" (p. 43). However, together with the research into reading process recently, it is no longer a mystery. Although through the views reading originally considered a passive process, then active, and recently interactive (Wallace, 2001), reading has not only been defined as happening through one-way aspect, (Nassaji, 2003), rather as an active, interactive and fluent process (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). As reading is an important component of language learning, EFL/ ESL teachers need to be aware of how reading process works and how to involve that knowledge appropriately into regular English lessons. Therefore, before reading strategies, it is crucial to examine reading process and its types. Basic reading processes have been classified as bottom-up and top-down, recently as interactive (Alderson, 2000).

2.2.1 Bottom-up Reading Process

Readers go through a piece-by-piece mental decoding of the information printed mechanically. Readers identify the letters, syllables and words, then proceed gradually to larger chunks to sentences and reach meaning in the end. During this process, there occurs little or no intervention between the readers' background world knowledge and the text (Anderson, 1999). As the focal point is the linguistic forms which facilitate identifying the words automatically, this model is known as the Automaticity Model (Zainal, 2003).

A bottom-up process of reading is a single-way process from parts to whole of a reading text. It is considered as a serial model beginning with the printed word, being identified graphic stimuli and decoding them to sound recognized words, and constructing meaning by readers. It has a linear nature from letters to words and to

sentences (Alderson, 2000). Similarly Grabe and Stoller (2002) connote that bottomup approach is identical to learning reading in that joining little units of language to the bigger parts. However, bottom-up process has been considered insufficient as the process does not continue in a reasoning and intentional manner, rather it acts mechanically. Letter by letter, then word by word decoding result in slow, tiring and effortful reading. As short-term memory loaded heavily, readers have difficulty in remembering what they have read till the end of the text (Adams, 1990). As a consequence, readers remember only specific facts or concepts, because readers do not make connections among them. Proceeding in one way without creativity and ability to transferring from lower processing to higher one are the weaknesses of bottom-up process. Also, the readers' active role and personal background knowledge are ignored (Zainal, 2003).

2.2.2 Top-down Reading Process

Top-down process, apart from the previous process, is delineated to develop reading comprehension process. This model admits readers' active role and enables them to utilize their own background knowledge and prior experience to construct meaning. Readers do not read all words or sentences, instead they choose the necessary ones in order to predict or infer while understanding. In contrast to bottom-up process, they translate meaning from print by using general knowledge and some contextual information given in the text (Pearson & Kamil, 1978). Readers are to transfer prior knowledge to text unlike bottom-up model.

The top-down model is developed by Goodman (1967) and is signified as a guessing game. Readers interact with the text and rely on prior knowledge to guess meaning. Reading comprehension occurs thanks to the skill in using practical cues to reach guesses rather than definite perception and recognization of certain elements. As to top-down process, since reading occurs via assumptions, predictions and some specific purposes, readers are referred to people having a set of assumptions about text content and sampling necessary information from the text to check these assumptions (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Background knowledge is centered in top-down models as it impacts reading process and surely comprehension of reading materials. Alderson (2000) features the core element of top-down approaches as schemata. In this regard, schema theory comes to stage in top- down process. It deals with what readers contribute to the text and it also enlightens the effectiveness of background knowledge. For schemata is regarded as mental respresantations of readers' knowledge, it is supposed to affect readers' understanding of the text. On the other hand, highlighting the prior linguistic background and prior experiences or knowledge excessively are the drawbacks of topdown process (Zainal, 2003).

2.2.3 Interactive Reading Process

Due to the weaknesses of bottom-up and top-down models, interactive model is brought up. According to Anderson (2000), interactive model combines features of both bottom-up and top-down models to present the most extensive depiction of the reading process. Interactive processes place emphasis not only on previous knowledge and expectations, but also processing of the words in the text. The clues present on the print detected by the eye are conveyed to the brain; then, the brain moves to meet existing knowledge with the information presented to process new information (Yiğiter, Sarıçoban & Gürses, 2005).

Grabe and Stoller (2011) address reading as an interactive and active process apart from bottom up and top down processes. Reading may be approached as an interactive operation in at least two ways. First, when engaged in reading, readers involve in several processes nearly concurrently (Erten & Razı, 2009). While the readers are identifying words quickly and retaining them active in their working memories, they also figure out the structure of sentences to capture the most reasonable clause-level meanings, reaching theme model of text comprehension in their heads, following comprehension and so on. The mutual effect between the linguistic information and the reader's information activated from long-term memory, as background knowledge, is another sign for interactive side of language. Reading process involves comprehending implied meaning of the text besides understanding its direct meaning. Reading is also an interactive process between the reader and the writer. The writer wants readers to understand the given information or story through the texts and the reader constitutes meaning by understanding and interpreting with a range of background knowledge (Erten & Razı, 2009; Grabe, 2009). As Wallace (2001) declares, although reading is once considered a passive process, then active and

recently interactive process, reading is not characterized as a single-factor process anymore, but it is a progressive and flowing process (Bernhardt, 2011; Nassaji, 2003).

Chastain (1988) proposes that readers need to assess their own schemata, should penetrate and go beyond the printed material to catch meaning. Similarly, Harmer (2001) claims that a reader benefits from the cues to understand what meaning the writer intends to give, so this means that the reader needs to be able to figure out what is beyond the literal meaning of the words.

Karatay (2009) states that when reading is regarded generally as understanding what is read and learning and interpreting information, this process is such an interaction that happens between the reader and the text. This process is the reading attempt based on the background information and experience to reach the existing or wanted information. In order this attempt to be successful, it is necessary that the reader is aware of several comprehension strategies and use these strategies during reading process consciously. There are two main approaches employed to develop reading skills as intensive and extensive reading. The two approaches are instrumental in helping learners reach fluency, both in vocabulary and word recognition, then in improving comprehension skills (Rashidi & Piran, 2011).

2.2.4 Intensive Reading

Learners read a short text and often deal with translation exercises, notably in a foreign language situation (Yamashita, 2004). Reading happens generally slowly and requires a higher degree of understanding. Readers generally engage in linguistic or semantic details of a text. Readers are to give their attention to grammatical structures and discourse markers to get literal meaning, implications or rhetorical relationships. Readers slowly and carefully catch meaning beyond the words in a sentence or in a whole text (Brown, 2007).

2.2.5 Extensive Reading

Students read rather easier materials than in intensive reading, and they do not have to prove their understanding elaboratively as they would in intensive reading, rather they are expected to read as much as possible while enjoying reading (Ríos Olaya & Valcárcel Goyeneche, 2005; Yamashita, 2004). Richards and Schmidt (2010) review extensive reading as reading a mass of texts to reach a general outlook of what is read. It aims readers to have good reading habits, to enhance vocabulary and structure

knowledge besides promoting interest in reading. Also, it lets readers to get back from analyzing deeply or focusing on unknown words, rather they go for understanding the text (Brown, 2007). It is essential to characterize the extensive reading with reading a vast amount of materials, reading quickly and real-world experiences in extensive reading (Day, 2015). Extensive reading motivates learners to read more and enhances rich background knowledge and vocabulary. It helps learners to build reading speed and guessing ability, to discover reading strategies on their own (Hayashi, 1999).

2.3 Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is one of the key factors in learning and academic success. So, the factors affecting reading comprehension should be addressed and evaluated. Readers do not only read the words, they also make out what they say. According to Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003), readers must have sufficient conceptual knowledge and also must be good at necessary reading comprehension strategies in order to comprehend a text adequately. As Karbalaei (2010) remarks, if students are able to comprehend what they are reading through using several strategies, they will develop a responsive attitude and manage autonomously the process to embrace academic achievement.

Reading comprehension is a cognitive and metacognitive process. Skilled readers know a vast amount of cognitive, metacognitive and motivational strategies, because while reading, a person does not just recognize the letters on the page and transfer them into sounds. Instead, the person benefits from present knowledge of words, grammatical structures, meanings and the real life world to comprehend the written elements. The process is portrayed as an interactive bottom-up and top-down processing of linguistic elements. Hence, in order to achieve this interactive process efficiently, it is crucial to involve cognitive and metacognive aspects to reading (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008; Salmer'on, Kintsch & Kintsch, 2010). In a similar vein, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) also remark the relationship between the reader's background knowledge and the text for reading comprehension. The act of reading is dynamic as readers do not elicit the information without effort, they interact with the text in order to constitute meaning relying on prior knowledge, personal preferences, experiences and cultural readiness. So, the interaction is not one-directed, but two-directed process.

Comprehension grows up as the reader frames a mental representation of a given message in the text. Readers considering coherence in their representation of a text need to monitor their understanding. Readers justify or fix their understanding if they lack comprehension through monitoring. Competent readers may respond positively to comprehension failures by rereading and repairing. If readers execute low monitoring, then reading comprehension diminishes (Perfetti, Landi & Oakhill, 2005). The complex nature of reading comprehension happens especially in foreign language settings as readers need to get over texts with limited vocabulary and syntactic structures (Ölmez, 2016).

Regarding the importance of reading comprehension both in first and second/foreign languages, reading strategies draw considerable interest in the field of reading research. In addition, metacognitive awareness of reading strategies, approaches to strategies, strategy training and use in reading comprehension have also burgeoned in the area of teaching reading.

2.4 Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning" (Oxford, 1990, p. 1). Strategies enhance learners to be involved in active, autonomous learning which is indispensable to develop communicative competence. Appropriately used strategies contribute self-confidence and proficiency of students. Oxford (1990) attributes great importance to language learning strategies (LLS) as addressing them means of activities and self-directed movement for promoting communicative competence.

According to Rumpp and Guffrey (1999), learning strategies are plans of individuals for achieving goals in various mental tasks. Oxford and Chamot (2005) support that learning strategies advance learning tasks. They explain that learning strategies are preferred and changed according to the learning context and preferences of the learners. Learning strategies help language learners to be active participants in the real-like communication present in the communicative classroom (Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989). LLS involve strategies for specifying the material to be learned and differentiating from other material, dealing with a material repeatedly and formally enacting to memorize the new information (Cohen, 2014). LLS are an indispensable

part of learners' language learning achievement together with the tendency and motivation (Rubin, 1975).

2.5 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

It is crucial for learners to be aware of language learning strategies and to find the most appropriate strategies to reach an effective learning. Therefore, since 1970, there has been considerable amount of research concerning the effect of language learning strategies on learning process. LLS term is an umbrella term for the operations or processes that learners engage in to learn the target language. There are some specific strategies to be classified in some way (Karbalaei, 2011). These strategies, consisting of some methods and techniques to facilitate learning process, expose to several classifications and theoretical definitions. There is no consensus on identifying and classifying strategies exactly, there is a variety of definitions, explanations or conflicting ideas in the field. Oxford (1990) explains that there is not an exact concurrence on the definite scientifically accepted hierarchy of strategies. There will be certain divergence of conflicts among classifications. However, they have similar characteristics and similar roles.

2.5.1. Rubin's Classification

Rubin (1975) defined language learning strategies as techniques or tools by which learners may reach knowledge and she paved the way for research on strategies. Rubin (1981) made the earliest classification and categorized strategies as "direct and indirect strategies". Direct strategies were divided into six types as clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice. Indirect strategies or metacognitive strategies include two subgroups as creation of opportunities for practice and production tricks in relation to communication focus, drive and motivation. They may be employed through opening conversations, questioning and answering, practicing with native speakers, paraphrasing, and using gestures.

Oxford's classification is similar to Rubin's (1981) classification since Rubin previously distinguish strategies that contribute directly to learning from the ones that contribute indirectly to learning.

18

In 1987, Rubin divided language learning strategies into three categories after her first two categorized classifications. Rubin (1987) proposed that there are three main groups of strategies that learners utilize as social strategies, communication strategies and learning strategies (cited in Liu, 2010, p. 100). Social strategies indirectly contribute to language learning although they enable learners to be exposed to the target language. They help learners to practice the language by asking questions to native speakers or teachers in order to initiate conversations, also listening to the media, etc. Communication strategies encompass the processes of participating in or practising a conversation, speaker's clarifying the messages and making the addressee get what is said (Hismanoglu, 2000; Liu, 2010). They help speakers to overcome comprehension problems. Learning strategies affect learning directly. While learning strategies have an indirect role in learning.

2.5.2 Stern's Classification

The other outstanding categorization of learning strategies of Stern (1992) involves five groups: management and planning, cognitive, communicative-experiential, interpersonal, and affective. Metacognitive strategies are in this categorization under the title of management and planning including learners' plans, objectives, assessment of progress, and evaluation of achievement. His classification resembles that of Oxford (1990) in terms of the categories.

According to Stern (1992), management and planning strategies are used by good language learners to cope with their own learning. The learner set goals or objectives, decides appropriate skills or techniques, selects the suitable sources or materials and assesses his/her performance. Cognitive strategies are used to execute a specific task, analyze, transmit and synthesize language information. Learners verify, clarify, practice, memorize, monitor and relate the recent learned items. Communicativeexperimental strategies include techniques of verbal and nonverbal sources like gesturing, repetition to continue dialogues. Interpersonal strategies are utilized by good language learners to evaluate their learning process, their self-development and performance by communicating with native or native like speakers and familiarizing with foreign language culture. Affective strategies are consulted to control their negative feelings while learning. Learners take positive attitudes towards the target language, cope with the emotional difficulties while learning and overcome the prejudice against native speakers or target language culture.

2.5.3 Oxford's Classification

One of the most attributed LLS' pioneers in previous studies Oxford (1990) divides strategies as direct and indirect. She classifies direct strategies as memory, cognitive and compensation strategies; indirect strategies are metacognitive, affective and social strategies and explains them in detail.

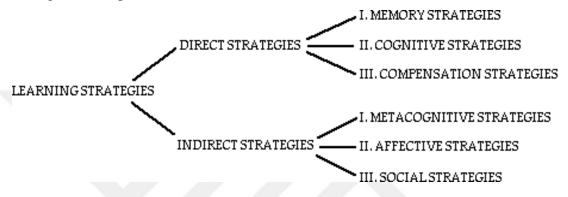


Figure 1: Organization of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.16).

Oxford (1990) adds two new categories (affective and social strategies) to the classifications made before which were basically based on cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In her classification, Oxford(1990) categorizes the strategies into six groups: memory strategies (grouping, imagery, rhyming and structured reviewing), cognitive strategies (reasoning, analyzing, summarizing), compensation strategies (guessing meanings from context, using synonyms and gestures to convey meaning), metacognitive strategies (paying attention, planning, self evaluating and monitoring), affective strategies (anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, self reward), social strategies (asking questions, cooperation, becoming culturally aware). The six categories, on the other hand, are divided into two categories as direct and indirect strategies; therefore learners may need to refer to their direct strategies in order to use an indirect strategy.

Oxford's (1990) metacognitive classification is given as follows:

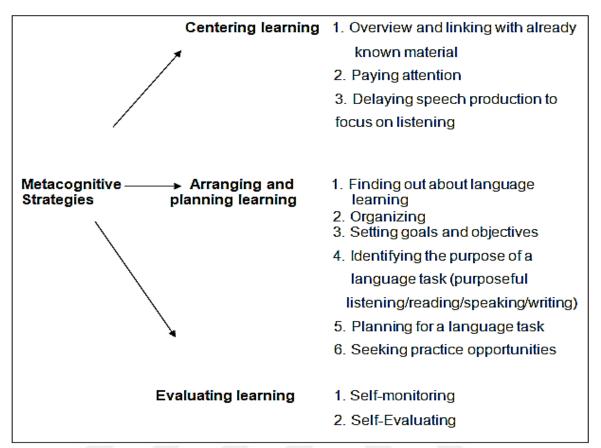


Figure 2: Oxford's Metacognitive Strategies Classification (1990, p.137).

It is possible to relate Oxford's classification with Rubin's (1981) studies since Rubin previously separates strategies that contribute directly to learning from the ones that contribute indirectly to learning.

2.5.4 O'Malley and Chamot's Classification

The present study is based on the classification of O'Malley and Chamot (1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) evaluate LLS in three main sections: metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies refer to higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity. These include self-regulatory strategies such as planning, selective attention, monitoring, advance organizers, delayed production and self- evaluation; applicable to a variety of learning tasks. The second group, cognitive strategies stand for direct manipulation of incoming information in ways that enhance learning. Typical examples are rehearsal, grouping and classifying words, summarizing, deduction, imagery, transfer, and elaboration. The third category, social/affective strategies involve active interaction with other people and regulation of emotional factors. They require cooperation, tactics for clarification, and self initiated talk from the learners. Learners employ these social/ affective strategies to control their own emotions, attitudes or beliefs to facilitate their learning by interaction (Cook, 2001).

The metacognitive and cognitive strategies are almost parallel with the direct and indirect strategies in Rubin's taxonomy. The distinct feature of this classification is that it involves social aspect category indicating that the strategies related with interaction. The learning strategies and their definitions are summarized in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Classification of O'Malley and	d Chamot (1990, p.119-120)
---	----------------------------

Learning strategy	Definition	a star a star
THE REAL PROPERTY AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY O		and an an an and a statement of the second

A. Metacognitive Strategies

A. Metacognitive Strategies	
Planning	
Advance organizers	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming
Directed attention	the text for the organizing principle. Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors.
Functional planning	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, often by scanning for key words, concepts, and/or linguistic markers.
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
Monitoring	
Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
Evaluation	
Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against a standard after it has been completed.
B. Cognitive Strategies	
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.
Grouping	Classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their attributes or meaning.
Deduction	Applying rules to understand or produce the second language or making up rules based on language analysis.
Imagery	Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand or remember new information.
Auditory representation	Planning back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.

(Table 1 continued)

•

Learning strategy	Definition	
Keyword method	Remembering a new word in the second language by: (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship with the first language homonym and the new word in the second language.	
Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.	
Transfer	Using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to assist comprehension or production.	
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.	
Note taking	Writing down key words or concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form while listening or reading.	
Summarizing	Making a mental, oral, or written summary of new information gained through listening or reading.	
Recombination	Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.	
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language.	
C. Social Mediation		
Question for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanations, rephrasing, examples, or verification.	
Cooperation	Working together with one or more peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.	

According to the communicative approach which emphasizes the importance of active, communicative involvement in language learning, it is essential for learners to be responsible for their own learning and to utilize a wide range of language learning strategies (Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989). They add that, in the communicative approach, all four skills are cornerstones of communication in several meaningful ways because communication happens between listeners and speakers, also between readers and writers. So, it requires learners to dominate all these skills via active learning, which brings about the use of learning.

2.6 Metacognition

Metacognition is an important component of learning in terms of cognitive processes and the control of the learning process (Solmaz, 2015). According to Anderson (2002), the most general definition of metacognition is defined as "thinking about thinking" (p. 23). This term was first coined by Flavell in the mid 1970s and research studies in cognitive/developmental psychology have gained success significantly thanks to especially Kreutzer, Leonard, Flavell and Hagen's (1975) study on children's meta memory, based on advanced memory capabilities of children although the theory of metacognition originated from the research on learning and memory (cited in Karbalaei, 2010, p.166). Thereafter the metacognition concept was brought to literature. Various definitions of the concept of metacognition are reached in the relevant literature.

Metacognition's core meaning is explained as one's understanding and management of his or her own cognitive processes (Carrell, Gajdusek & Wise, 1998; Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 1993; Hartman, 2001; Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters & Afflerbach, 2006).

Biehler, McCown and Snowman (2012) signify that metacognition refers to the knowledge of one's own thought processes. Kuhn (2000) defines metacognition as increasing the control of the upper strategies that aim to control the use of strategies that you already know, what you believe and how metacognitive awareness and a significant improvement in the process of new knowledge and educational strategies occur. In a similar path, Onovughe and Hannah (2011) find out that there is a notable relationship between students' awareness and use of metacognitive strategies.

Flavell (1979) assesses metacognitive awareness as a whole process. According to him, this process happens in four steps as a result of various interplays by inducing

each other. These processes consist of metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experience, metacognitive goals or tasks and metacognitive action or strategies. Metacognitive knowledge involves the person's knowledge or perceptions about three variables: person, task and strategy. The person variable refers to competency about how one learns and processes information. Task variable involves the knowledge about the nature of the task. The third variable includes the strategies necessary to reach the goals. The second category, metacognitive experiences refer to cognitive or affective experiences. One's mental operations, success, anxiety or satisfaction about things are in this category. As for goals (or tasks), they refer to the aims of any cognitive projects. The last category involves the actions or strategies employed by learners to attain their metacognitive goals (Iwai, 2011).

Metacognitive domain comprises the knowledge about cognition and how to manage cognition. (Flavell, Miller & Miller, 1993). Metacognition helps learners realize their own thinking and stimulates independent learning. Paris and Winograd (1990) claim that metacognition enhances students' motivation and may improve academic achievement. When students are aware of the metacognitive strategies, they specialize in the field of learning and also have the chance to be autonomous learners by reviewing their own learning strategies and mental processes. As Teng (2019) supports, autonomous learners may feel responsible for their own learning so effectively that they may regulate their learning. So, an individual's metacognitive awareness implies to what extent a learner is autonomous.

Oxford (1990) emphasizes that metacognitive strategies allow learners to shape their own learning way and the process. As a result, the definition of metacognition includes the information about one's own learning process. However, this information does not necessarily generate metacognitive awareness by itself, rather it is necessary to know to use this information appropriately. If students focus on not only what they learn but also how they learn, then they are thinking their learning process which refers to metacognition (Velzen, 2016).

The term metacognition has been associated with the knowledge about how to perceive, recall, think, and move that is, what to know about what we know. Some educators supplement with self-coordination of one's own cognition to the metacognition concept (Maitland, 2000).

As pointed out from the previous definitions, metacognition may be summarized as the conscious awareness of one's own cognition and control of one's own learning. Farstrup (2011) indicates that students do not generally deal in metacognition on their own until the intermediate grades, so it is important to lead students towards this type of thought well before then. Metacognition enables students to be conscious about what they have learned and to understand how to progress accordingly. Likewise, weak learners have problems with perception, attention, memory, metacognition (Biehler et al., 2012).

According to Karbalaei (2011), metacognition encompasses the knowledge and control over our cognitive processes. When tied to reading, there come metacognitive awareness and metacognitive regulation or control over reading. In this regard, metacognition is regarded as an important variable in reading activities. Related to this, a good reader's metacognitive awareness encompasses the knowledge and competence about which strategies to use, how and where to use a strategy or combinations of some certain strategies (Grabe, 2009).

2.6.1 Metacognitive Awareness and Reading Comprehension

Numerous studies pinpoint the role of metacognitive awareness in reading comprehension, both in the native language or foreign/ second language. The common view is that strategic awareness and monitoring of the comprehension process are corner stones of skilled reading (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). As Çetinkaya and Erktin (2002) represent, the use of reading comprehension strategies is indispensable for successful reading comprehension. When the strategies are taught to students directly, their strategy awareness increases and reading comprehension performance gets better (Antoniou & Souvignier, 2007; Houtveen & Van de Grift, 2007). Paris and Jacobs (1984) indicate that readers who are good at comprehending deal in purposeful activities which necessitate planning adaptable strategies and individual monitoring oneself. On the other hand, novice readers mostly seem inattentive to these strategies, they even do not notice the need to employ. Knowing how to use reading strategies to facilitate comprehension is considered as an important feature of learning to read (Tercanlioglu & Demiröz, 2015). Students' approach to learning and assumptions they have about the results of their effort refer to 'metacognitive knowledge'. It is the necessary component of active language learning (Wenden, 1998). Readers must

resort to metacognitive knowledge and must use appropriate strategies consciously to reach comprehension successfully. Successful readers use suitable comprehension strategies in pre- while and post reading processes to understand texts better (Mokhtar & Reichard, 2002). For reading, metacognitive awareness lets readers be aware of strategic reading processes of the reading-strategy spectacles and performances, and of their deliberate use of the strategies to enhance text comprehension (Carrell et al., 1998; Forrest-Pressley & Waller, 1984; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Thus, readers who are capable of metacognitive awareness have potential to benefit from a range of clues to interpret texts accordingly.

2.7 Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Cohen signifies reading strategies as "those mental processes that readers consciously choose to use in accomplishing reading tasks" (cited in Zhang &Wu, 2009, p.39). Therefore, second language or foreign language reading research shows that reading has to be interactive process to comprehend meaning (Alderson, 2000; Carrell et al., 1998; Course, 2017; Grabe & Stoller, 2011) in which readers appeal to many different available sources and a variety of strategies to reach comprehension. It is necessary to employ suitable reading strategies to be able to reach comprehension. Reading strategies are mental actions readers implement to examine a text and to understand what they read (Barnett, 1988).

The term "strategies" indicates the reader's active attendance and execution, whereas the term "skills" may encompass the reader's competence or only passive abilities (Carrell et al., 1998). According to Hacker, Dunlosky and Graesser (2009), readers bring some competencies to a text, such as decoding or inferencing abilities. They have the skills that move them to comprehend a text unconsciously and effortlessly, but while reading there may be some obstacles. Sometimes even proficient readers do not know what to do when they come accross unfamiliar vocabulary or technical explanations and comprehension may break down. In such circumstances, readers must appeal to conscious strategies to repair comprehension. They might reread that part of the text, or they might underline certain information or ask questions to solve the point in the text. Some situations require quick and unnoticed strategies whereas some require deliberate strategies and effort.

28

As Karbalaei (2011) points out, metacognitive reading strategies are some kind of tools chosen by students consciously in order to organize their own reading processes and to evaluate the effectiveness of their strategy use. Students manage reading successfully with the help of their ability to use strategies appropriately. Anastasiou and Griva (2009) take attention to the point that planning, monitoring and evaluation metacognitive strategies may happen before, during, and after any thinking act, such as reading. Planning, monitoring and evaluating are required for effective reading (Hassan, 2017).

Many studies shed light to the relation between success and the use of strategies (Eilers & Pinkley, 2006; Onovughe & Hannah, 2011; Paris & Jacobs, 1984). Anderson (2002) revealed that learners become better thinkers thanks to the use of metacognitive strategies and so have better performances. Also, Onovughe and Hannah (2011) supported the same idea that students who use varied metacognitive skills together are more successful in examinations and finish their work effectively.

Reading and understanding a text is beyond academic skills as it is crucial in terms of lifelong learning skills. When the contribution of reading to success is considered, the strengthening of reading comprehension could be possible thanks to several strategies teachers teach. Reading strategies are not the goals but the tools to reach knowledge and comprehension (Bernhardt, 2011; Samuels & Farstrup, 2011).

Readers employ several learning strategies to make out what message the text gives, in other words, thoughts and behaviours to quicken comprehension (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Oxford (1990) claims that metacognitive strategies provide learners the opportunity to check their own learning.

According to Samuels and Farstrup (2011), there is a false binary whether content instruction or strategy instruction is to be centered for teaching reading. Educators do not focus on either teaching strategies or building knowledge. Teachers and researchers may both integrate goals and let students move to read strategically to learn new information which is necessary for good reading comprehension.

Good strategy users are capable of using a variety of specific tactics, using them in a planned sequence and monitoring their use. They regulate themselves depending on learning situation and goals (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). They state that while

cognitive-based study strategies are linked with the process of information by learners, metacognitive strategies are linked with students' selecting, monitoring and using appropriate strategies in their repertoire purposefully.

Karbalaei (2011) argues that while cognitive reading strategies are at knowledge level in which the types and the use of strategies are known, metacognitive strategic knowledge overlaps understanding the basis for utilizing a specific strategy in the required task and assessing its practicality in terms of that situaiton.

Metacognitive awareness is inevitable to have effective study habits. Learners should arrange their studying and act upon the changing learning situation. Students who are aware of their metacognitive skills know which study strategies to choose, monitor their studying and arrange their time accordingly (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) specify that skilled readers are better at choosing suitable strategies to use for the correct tasks, reflect and regulate their cognitive processes while reading. In other words, they know how to manage both their strategies and the conditions accordingly during reading.

Readers are expected to build up awareness and control in order to complete reading process successfully (Kuhn, 2000). Louca (2003) defines metacognition as "cognition about cognition" (p.10). It refers to post level of cognition. Thinking about thinking connotes the knowledge about knowledge and feedback about actions.

As Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) indicate, such significant reading strategies as planning, controlling and assessing one's understanding (e.g., setting purpose for reading, prediction, summarizing, questioning, self-monitoring, etc.) are generally used by first and second language readers. Competent bilingual and biliterate readers usually resort to individual and practical strategies while reading in a second language, e.g., code mixing, translating, and using cognates (Jimenez, Garcia & Pearson, 1996).

Singhal (2001) supports that there is a strong relationship between reading strategies employed by readers and their proficiency level. Comprehension or reading strategies show the process of conceiving of a task, commenting on the text appropriately or not. Reading strategies help learners meet comprehension and overcome comprehension failures. According to Bazerman (1985), successful comprehension does not emerge by itself. Rather, it occurs as a result of guided cognitive effort, referred to as metacognitive processing which is knowing and regulating the process. While reading successful readers must purposefully and deliberately invoke strategies, also they deal with metacognitive processing with "procedural, deliberate, demanding, willful, essential and facilitative in nature" (Alexander & Jetton, 2000, p. 295).

2.8 Types of Metacognitive Reading Strategies

When reading is concerned, metacognitive awareness points at readers' deliberate awareness of strategic reading procedure, various reading strategies and their actual practice of the strategies to cultivate comprehension of texts (Carrell et al., 1998; Forrest-Pressley & Waller, 1984; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang, 2001). This denotes that if readers are aware of metacognitive strategies, they comment on a reading text regarding what contexts require. They decide reading strategies according to reading purposes, task requirements and their own cognitive style. They supervise the process of decoding the information to get the message or general idea, assess the effects of the determined strategies and regulate strategies when needed independently (Zhang, 2008).

2.8.1 Skimming Strategy

Skimming is acknowledged as a metacognitive skill which good readers employ (Alderson, 2000). Skimming combines surveying and scanning together (Wallace, 1999). It leads the reader to decide which points should be focused in a limited time for reading. According to Hong (2013), it involves running one's eyes rapidly to get the general idea of a text. It is possible to guess the purpose of the text, main topic or message. This strategy enables readers to focus on reading. Readers may get a general impression about the theme, purpose, issues or organizational structures as they care introduction or conclusions, graphics, visuals. As O'Malley and Chamot (1990) claim that skimming lets readers preview the main ideas or concepts as a planning metacognitive strategy with organizing principle. Generally, reading in a foreign language is seen as a complex process and they do not generally try a technique to comprehend texts. Therefore, students need to be introduced skimming technique to deal with a reading text effectively as they need to gain the main idea of a text as a first step to comprehend all of it and later to interpret and criticize the text (Calderón

Agudelo, Carvajal Ávila & Guerrero López, 2007). Alderson (2000) adds that skimming is a metacognitive reading strategy used by proficient readers for the general understanding of the texts. Nara (2003) states that teachers ask readers to skim in order to check their assumption about a story line; to get the gist of a text; to clarify the message; to scrutinize the details while reading it for the next time and to teach linking words to less competent readers while taking into consideration the genere of a text.

2.8.2 Scanning Strategy

Maxwell (1978) regards scanning as a desirable reading skill students use to find specific facts and details rapidly. Readers quickly search for detailed specific information in a text. Scanning is within the scope of selective attention metacognitive strategy as it attends to key words, specific phrases or linguistic markers (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Readers sometimes look for dates or names, definitions or supporting details to make a list. The goal in scanning is not to read a whole text, rather finding and picking up specific piece of information. As it is a speed reading, it is indispensable for academic reading, whilst it is essential to deal with different types of genres like schedules, timetables, lists, manuals or forms in general English (Brown, 2007).

2.8.3 K-W-L Strategy

K-W-L strategy is created by Donna Ogle in 1986. It is an instructional 3-phase chart which provides the framework about what students' prior knowledge are about the text, what students *want* to learn by reading and what they actually learn from reading (Ogle, 1986). Through this strategy, students are to read actively while connecting their background knowledge to the new information given in the texts, finding out what they know about some definite information and the ways that information is possible to be established. Then teachers direct students to figure out questions they want to have responded and students write notes. Also, they may place the old and new information in graphic and detailed written form. Fritz (2014) supports the idea that K-W-L reading strategy promotes active reading, enhances critical thinking, teacher-student interaction and recalling of the texts. In order reading to be effective, good readers need to ask questions and think about the ideas rather than just looking at the text. Readers need to find key ideas, focus on necessary information, emphasize and organize the given information (Ogle & Carr, 1987). Chamot and O'Malley (1994)'s metacognitive strategies involve K-W-L strategy as it an advance organizer and

planner to accomplish the learning task, to get an overview of topic while identifying previous knowledge. As K-W-L strategy helps readers distinguish and focus on important information through the text while connecting new information to the older ones, it in fact improves readers' self-regulation skills. So, it is recommended to involve such activities to the learning environment that motivate self regulation skills (Eker, 2015). It is necessary for readers to self-regulate their undertanding and keep reading on track to be active constructors of meaning (O'Reilly, Deane & Sabatini, 2015).

2.8.4 Visualization Strategy

According to Glenberg (2007), visualizing is a strategy through which readers use to "learn to mentally create and describe movies in their heads as they read" (p. 300). In supporting this, Tankersley (2003) recommends that students should be assisted to visualize what they read by making pictures or "movies" in their mind as they read. Instructors should model their own thinking, visualizing process and make a connection to pictures in their minds. Long, Winograd and Bridge (1989) claim that while readers imagine spontaneously when reading a text, they often include not only sights, but also sounds, tastes, touch, smells, feelings and stories. Different senses may richen the imagery process to improve comprehension. Moreover, as De Salas and Huxley (2014) emphasize, visual representation boosts problem solving and decision making processes. It is a visual vehicle of mind which transforms the raw data into images, pictures or figures and make the ideas or thoughts visible which enables understanding more accessible. Considering the LLS classification of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), visualization includes both self management and self-monitoring metacognitive strategies dimensions, because readers know what conditions help them to learn and seek or arrange them. Also, while reflecting their ideas through viuals, they evaluate their reading performance and consult to self assessment.

According to De Koning and Van Der Schoot (2013), visualization strategies aim at assisting readers to go beyond the text. They are devoted to facilitate key features and inferences, relations of elements described in the text. In order to help readers create mental imagery for improved reading comprehension, it is a must to instruct explicitly rather than simply asking readers to visualize. Otherwise, only readers who know visualizing mentally may achieve visualization spontaneously.

33

2.8.5 Think Aloud Strategy

Think aloud is like a kind of verbal report in which learners reflect their thoughts and behaviors to comprehend a text (Block, 1986). Ur (1996) states that reading is like a dialogue between reader and the text. The purpose for think aloud protocols is to ensure students promote the ability to look over their understanding and to deal in strategies that ease reading comprehension (Baumann, Jones & Seifert-Kessell, 1993). Chamot and O'Malley (1994) state that thinking while reading as monitoring comprehension is a metacognitive strategy. Think aloud strategy is one of the ways to create awareness for students, because it motivates learners to recognize what they think, what they understand from the text and what they do not understand. Also, they may be aware of what to do when they confront difficulties in understanding during reading process (Hassan, 2003).

According to Oster (2001), readers' thoughts comprise commenting, predicting or questioning about the text and connecting prior knowledge or experience to the text. Their comments signal about their weaknesses or strenghts in comprehending texts by which teachers get ideas about the needs of readers to plan instruction effectively. Also, readers take responsibility for their own understanding as they verbalize their thoughts.

2.8.6 Annotating Strategy

Annotating strategy promotes active reading as students write to learn while reading or rereading. Students display their own thoughts that pop up by taking notes while interpreting what they are reading (Porter-O'Donnell, 2004). Readers ignore irrelevant distractors, arrange and check their comprehension. In this way, they self-manage their reading through annotating (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Notemaking requires readers to record information attentively in order to cite their own sources (Moreillon, 2007). Post-its provide a tool for good readers who interact with the text predicting, questioning, clarifying or connecting, in a way responding to a reading text. They keep track on their own interaction and get feedback in the ongoing or later reading process (O' Shaughnessy, 2001). Annotations help readers to comprehend, to embrace and internalize the texts. Also, readers might be aware of their different aspects of interests with regarding to a text through their responses by specifying or marking up (Golovchinsky, Price & Schilit, 1999). According to Marshall (1997), students should develop systems of annotation personally in which symbols and pen colors meant something to themselves. Students value some doodlings, symbols or markings individually as different meanings for reading process. The signals may involve asteriks, crossouts, circles or underlying specific points. However, Conley (2008) advises that teachers should teach annotation techniques explicitly and integrate it to the content till students will catch its aim and function in regular lessons.

2.8.7 Reciprocal Strategy

Reciprocal strategy is a collaborative grouping strategy in which students take the role of teacher and work in groups to make sense of the text. Teachers and students engage in a dialogue among each others. The dialogue takes shape through four strategies; summarizing, question generating, clarifying and predicting. Teachers should kept in mind that each of the strategies has been taught and practiced before reciprocal teaching occurs (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Reciprocal strategy enables readers develop good comprehension skills. It provides students with guided practice through predicting, questioning, summarizing, and clarifying strategies. Students become groups and they choose a leader among themselves or teacher leads a discussion of the text using the four strategies. The aim is to reach a shared sense of meaning with the help of the four strategies (Tankersley, 2003). The readers need to behave according to their roles' functions, they plan what to do to accomplish their tasks. This involves functional planning or organizational planning metacognitive strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Reciprocal teaching involves the procedure in which an instructor or lecturer appoint a text, swap roles to sum up, simplify, illustrate, infer and interrogate each section to the procedure in which the teacher and students performing alternately the four strategies; summarizing, clarifying, predicting, and asking a question after each part of text is read (Hacker et al., 2009).

2.8.8 Self-Assessment Strategy

Sef-assessment is such a two-phased process that students monitor and assess their thinking quality and behaviours while they identify strategies to improve their understanding. They judge their own work to perform better comparing present and desired performances (McMillan & Hearn, 2008). Through self-assessment

metacognitive strategy, readers judge how well they have accomplished a learning task and reflect their learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994).

Boud (1995 notifies that if the learner monitors what is known, what to know and what is required to close the gap between the two, then effective learning pops up. McMillan and Hearn (2008) share the similar idea that students' self assessment enables learners to line up their own learning and to personalize the basis of assessing success.

Regarding reading strategy training, students need to be convinced that being more strategic readers facilitates their comprehension so that they use strategies and self-regulation processes paying more effort in a longer time. Teachers may help students build short-term and self-referenced goals which indicate one's own improvement rather than competition. Teachers are to give the opportunities with tasks to offer real choices (Souvignier & Mokhlesgerami, 2006). Ames (1992) is in line with the idea that students should be instructed to set achievable goals individually as a criterion for self-assessment. As a result, students should learn that they need to give effort for tasks and attain success, also reaching achievement gives way to improve competence. Therefore, employing self-assessment strategy helps students to evaluate their individual abilities in a rational way.

CHAPTER THREE

III. METHODOLOGY

This section consists of research method, participants and setting, instruments, data collection procedure and the reading strategy instruction.

3.1 Research Method

This is an action research study aiming at determining to what extent the students are aware of metacognitive reading strategies while reading and to assess the integration of a reading strategy instruction to the Engish lessons to increase students' metacognitive awareness.

Action research is a work in progress. Action research has a relationship between work and learning. Teachers need to be practical and concerned with achieving real outcomes with real people considering the needs of the students (Burns, 2010).

According to Richards and Farrell (2005), action research is a teacher-conducted classroom research that aims to shed light on some possible teaching issues and problems. The term "action research" indicates two aspects of the activity itself. The word "research" refers to dealing with systematic collection and analysis of data to enlighten an issue or a problem in actual classrooms. The word "action" refers to experience practical action to overcome problems or enhance learning issues. Mcniff and Whitehead (2002) note the action research is not composed of a bunch of solid explicit steps, rather it is a process of learning from experience "a dialectical interplay between practice, reflection and learning" (p.15). There is not an end to reach, learning is always in progress. The process leads to continuously assessing the effects of actions and looking for more effective ones if necessary.

Wallace (1999) proposes that experience is valued in a way that for some jobs or employments, improvement is expected after a period of practice until it reaches to an adequate competence level. For professions like teaching, the process goes on continuously and is exposed to ongoing experiences. Teachers need some strategies to turn the negative experiences to positive experiences. How would the process of selfimprovement be not threatening but be challenging for teachers? In a similar path,

37

classroom action research enables teachers to improve their way of teaching. Teachers have the chance to see their teaching strengths and weaknesses as they take into account the impact of their teaching naturally (Mettetall, 2002).

As Richards and Farrell (2005) bring forward, action research takes place in the teacher's real classroom environment and involves a series of activities ranging from spotting a problem or issue, gathering information about the issue, constructing a strategy to address the issue, testing the strategy and monitoring its effects. Action research in real classrooms is not only for students' improvements, but also it gives insights to teachers understand various concerns, problems, practical solutions in teaching and learning. Teachers have the opportunities to elicit useful classroom investigation skills thanks to the planning and carrying out process during regular classroom teaching. Both the teachers and students "learn by doing" (Wallace, 1999, p. 2).

Action research begins with a concern a teacher has about his or her classes or with an issue the teacher would like to explore and learn more about. There are different models of action research, but Kemmis and McTaggart's model, who are pioneer authors in this field, is a kind of 'classic' and it appears often in the literature on action research. It consists of four broad phases in a spiral cycle. The first cycle may continue repeatedly which persist until the action researcher reaches convincing outcomes. It is a handy model as it outlines essential phases as a cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Burns, 2010). The cycle is an action-reflecting cycle and may reproduce new cycle until it shows a change in both thinking and action. When thinking changes, learning happens naturally as action research requires openness to learning (Mcniff &Whitehead, 2002).

Snell (1999) states that action research gets involved in trying to advance specific points in a teacher's technique or approach in the real classrooms using empirical measurement. As its name signifies, the action research involves some basic goals to achieve both action and research.

The classroom action research may be designed in several ways. It may be formed through pretest-posttest design, similar classes' comparisons or descriptive case study of a single class or even a student. It may be enriched with either quantitative or qualitative methods or with both of them. In order to enhance validity in natural classroom atmosphere, the triangulation of data is used (Mettetall, 2002).

In this study, the quantitative data was mainly gathered via MARSI scale as both pretest and posttest and the qualitative data was collected via the researher diary and semi-structured interviews. In the analysis of the scales, pretest and posttest, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 5 was used. The Likert-type scale was used in this study and reported numbers regarding the frequency of using the strategies in the scales were entered to the programme. The obtained data was statistically analyzed through SPSS 5 with means, standard deviations, Mann-Whitney U and Wilcoxon W tests. On the other hand, the qualitative data was gathered from the researcher's diary and semi-structured interviews. Every week, 10 different students were interviewed and all interview items were assessed. The students' responses were classified according to their similarities and differences for each open-ended interview questions. After grouping the responses, selective coding, which scrutinizes on central idea present in the research, was employed (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Selective coding is a coding procedure in "Grounded Theory" that is a general approach for discovering theory grounded in the data gathered and analysed in order. Data is narrowed down to concepts and related statements to integrate and refine (Lawrence & Tar, 2013). This research stands on the practical and common aspects of O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) learning strategies classification. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) claim that when learners are in the process of metacognitive strategies, they simply try to plan, prioritise, set goals and self-manage. Their metacognitive strategies steps are more clear and comprehensible to apply with reading strategies through action research steps. When learners use metacognitive strategies, they think about their learning process, monitor their own production and evaluate their comprehension (Cook, 2001).

3.2 Participants

The study was conducted at 25 Mayıs Anatolian High School with 10/B class in the first term of 2017-2018 education year fall term in Havza, SAMSUN. There were 25 students in researcher's class, the researcher had the chance compare and contrast the effects of a reading strategy training on the perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies on her own.

In the present study, convenience sampling was used to choose the participants. Freankel and Wallen (2009) maintain that "A convenience sample is a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study" (p. 98). In some areas, especially in educational organisations, it is more suitable to choose convenience sampling as it is easier to reach the participants. The students are 10th grade students and receive four hours English course per week. In the group, there are 14 males and 11 females aged between 15 and 16.

3.3 Research Instruments

In order to collect data, mainly three research instruments were used in this study. Attaining deeper information from the findings was the primary impulse for using a couple of data collection tool instead of one tool, so triangulation method was applied for the present study. Triangulation is typically the correspondance or confirmation between methods or perspectives. Two or more different methods should be involved together in one study or be combined across two or more different studies (Gorard & Taylor, 2004). Mcniff and Whitehead (2002) remark that triangulation helps the researcher get reasonable agreement that the situation is as the researcher expects through the data obtained from multiple perspectives. When a conclusion is backed up by data gathered from several various instruments, different dimensions of the same phenemenon could be captured. This kind of checking, using a variety of instruments to collect data, is often referred to as triangulation (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). Triangulation is one of the validity strategies frequently used and easy to implement. A researcher may triangulate several data sources by examining information from the sources and sustain consensus among different themes (Creswell, 2009). In order to use a variety of instruments and attain both qualitative and quantitative data, semistructured interviews, the researcher diary and The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) were used. For the qualitative data collection and analysis process, the researcher held a diary to observe the students' reactions to strategy training, the flow of lessons and employed semi- structured intervivews with 10 different participants for each strategy. The researcher took notes during both modelling and students' strategy employing process. The researcher observed and wrote down the participants' reactions to the strategies in order to choose students for semi-structured interviews who had difficulty in using the present strategy and who

reacted more positively to the strategy during lesson time. They were analyzed together and grouped regarding similarities and differences for each interview questions to ensure reliability and objectivity for the study and analyzed via selective coding. Semi-structured interviews provided the researcher with the opportunity to obtain new different insights towards strategies other than interview questions. It was possible to get anecdotes, suggestions and personal views in accordance with strategy use. Moreover, semi-structured interviews and diary observations enabled the researcher to get students' metacognitive assessment of their learning process, capabilities of monitoring and regulating processes in line with the study's purpose. For quantitative data collection, MARSI scale was used both in the first and last weeks to seek students' perception of metacognitive reading strategies statistically. The effects of strategy training program on metacognitive awareness of students were indicated via MARSI scale. The data obtained were descriptively analyzed via SPSS 5 program.

3.3.1 The Reading Strategy Scale

The first data collection tool was The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) Turkish version as a quantitative data collection tool in the study. The Turkish version of MARSI adapted by Öztürk (2012) was introduced by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) in order to assess the readers' metacognitive awareness along with their perception of metacognitive reading strategies while reading academic or school related materials. The ground of giving the Turkish version of the scale was that the students could adequately understand the questions and could avoid comprehension difficulties they might encounter through English version taking into consideration their EFL proficiency level.

According to Öztürk (2012), the Turkish version was found to be coherent to the original form in terms of item-factor consistency and structure. Two forms were assessed as equal since the correlation between them was 0.96. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was adopted and it was obtained that three-factor structure of the original scale was preserved when it was headed to Turkish students. Both the original format and its Turkish version include three subdimensions. The variance expressed by the inventory, consisting of general reading strategy, problem-solving strategy and supporting reading strategies, for which reliability and validity studies were

conducted, is 42 .6%. The Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is 0.93. All items in the Turkish form were found to be coherent to the sub-factors of the original scale; only the order of sub-factors was altered. First and second confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to find out whether the Turkish scale was consistent with the original scale. Fit indices were found to be (sd=397, p.=.00), χ 2/sd=1.44, RMSEA=0.044, SRMR=0.052, GFI=0.86, AGFI=0.85, CFI=0.98, NFI=0.94, IFI=0.98 ve NNFI=0.98. When fit indices are examined, it may be deduced that all values satisfied the criterion values or were very similar to them. Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was found to be .93 for the overall scale. The reliability values for the Global Reading strategies as the first factor was .85, for the Problem Solving Strategies as the second factor was .76 and Support Reading Strategies as the third factor was .81. As all the internal consistency values obtained are higher than 75, it indicates that reliability values are high and produces consistent values. The reliability scores for the instrument were acceptable to use it in the present study.

The adapted Turkish version of MARSI was given as the pretest and at the end as the posttest to uncover students' metacognitive awareness and perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies while reading academic or school related materials (see Appendix 1). Before the scale was given, the participants were informed about the aims and purposes of the survey that there would not be any correct or wrong answers and their answers would not affect their grade for the current course at the end of the term. This would indicate their perceived use of some strategies while reading and accordingly they would do some practises in order to improve their reading comprehension. Therefore, the participants were asked to evaluate each statement carefully and choose the best suitable option with their real honest opinion. In other words, this instrument may be accepted as an assessment means of measuring students' reported use of metacognitive strategies to understand the text.

It contains 30 items. These items measure three board subcategories of reading strategies: global reading strategies, problem solving strategies and support strategies. A 5-point Likert scale following each item indicates the frequency of strategy use ranging from (I never or almost never do this) to 5 (I always or almost always do this). Students were asked to read all statements and select the number that appealed to them, marking the frequency with which they use the reading strategy given in the statement.

42

Thus, the higher the number, the more frequent the use of the strategy dealt with. A key was provided to interpret the mean for each item and overall item ratings of the MARSI. They considered a mean ≤ 2 . 4 as low usage, 2. 5–3.4 as medium usage, and ≥ 3.5 as high usage in its both original and Öztürk's (2012) scale. If a frequency (mean score) of 3. 5 and above, it is taken as signifying high strategy use, 2.5 to 3.4 as medium, and 2.4 and below as low.

The adapted Turkish version of MARSI measures three broad category of reading strategies like MARSI (2002). The first factor, Global Reading Strategies, (GLOB) contain 13 items (1, 3, 4, 7, 10, 14, 17, 19, 22, 23, 25, 26, 29) and depict a bunch of reading strategies familiarizing a global analysis of text. Examples include "I decide what to read closely and what to ignore;" "I think about what I know to help me understand what I read;" and "I have a purpose in mind when I read." These strategies may be thought of as generalized, purposeful reading strategies aiming at setting the stage for the reading act (e.g., setting purpose for reading, making predictions). The second factor, Problem-Solving Strategies, (PROB) involve 8 items (8, 11, 13, 16, 18, 21, 27, 30) that appear to be oriented around strategies for solving problems when confronted comprehension difficulties. Problem-Solving Strategies are localized or repair strategies (e.g., checking one's understanding on encountering conflicting information or rereading for better understanding) used to understand better when problems or difficulties happen (Karbalaei, 2010). Examples of these strategies include "When the text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding;" and "I adjust my reading speed according to what I read." These strategies equip readers with action plans that allow them to navigate through text skillfully. The third factor, Support Reading Strategies, (SUP) consist of 9 items (2, 5, 6, 9, 12, 15, 20, 24, 28) and essentially involve the use of outside reference materials, taking notes, and other practical strategies that might be identified as functional or support strategies. Examples include "I take notes while reading;" "I underline or circle information in the text to understand".

As a pretest, the survey was given to students to what extent they were aware of metacognitive reading strategies and see their perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies while reading school related texts; as a posttest, the survey was given to

figure out to what extent the metacognitive reading strategy had an effect on the perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies while comprehending reading texts.

3.3.2 The Researcher Diary

The researcher kept a diary during the process as the second data collection. The diary was kept each week to reflect and compose observations about the students' attitudes during the strategy training process. It also allowed the researcher to review what was done at any stage and to record the effectiveness of the process both for the researcher and students.

Diaries are personal accounts keeping tracks of observations towards thoughts, representations, emotions, ideas, impressions, views and considerations regularly about cases of concern or matter. Diary keeping is a practice of regulating your ideas about ongoing events. They have become an abundant amount of sources investigating various members' various insights (Kemmis, Mcgart & Nixon, 2014). Diaries are subjective sources in searching a language and may be centered on both teaching and teachers and learning and learners (Nunan, 1992).

According to Mcniff and Whitehead (2002), diaries are important sources of data because while development in the action may be recorded, development in thinking also may be followed through notes. Throught the study, writing lets the scientist/instructor on returning to their conclusions and finding out patterns and contacts which appear in their teaching process. The observations or views may change over the time, or the new ways of learning or teaching might affect the situation in a continuously positive way, observations may be converted into action and researched in the classroom.

It must definitely be kept a project diary or journal regardless of other techniques or instrusted to gather information or evidence. They will allow people to note down their opininons and insights as they go, and will allow them to remember more accurately what actually happened as they proceed (Kemmis et al, 2014).

In the present study, the researcher took into account the the cycles of the research and took notes accordingly each week during and after lessons. In the diary, the researcher answered such questions herself as; what students learned, what helped the students understand better the strategy, what feedbacks the students gave during the training and to the strategy, what hindered the flow of training. These questions were answered in a way that corresponded pre-while and post reading stages.

3.3.3 Semi-structured Interviews

It is usually preferred to keep a journal, diary or log in action research. In general, they are likely to be used together with other methods such as observations or interviews instead of used alone. Interviews are highly practical as a means of attaining considerable reflections and events in a continuing way (Burns, 2010). The information from interviews may be recorded through making hand-written notes, videotaping or audiotaping. Even the interview is videotaped, taking notes would be better in case the equipment breaks down (Cresswell, 2009).

Semi-structured interviews enable researchers not only to ask previously determined questions, they also give the flexibility to add new questions necessarily (Mackey & Gass, 2005). As the name implies, it does not give a strict structured format to follow during interviews. So, semi-structured interviews give the opportunities for the participants to convey richer and deeper responses to the questions (Bryman, 2012).

In order to get a general overview of students' strategy use with the aim of triangulation the data in the study, several students were chosen purposefully from the group and interviewed by the researcher while balancing to choose different students bearing in mind to involve ten different students giving different reactions to the strategy use after strategy training each week. Furthermore, students' reactions to the training were taken into consideration to choose them for interviews. The researcher used the similar set of questions adapting to the present strategy accordingly. The researcher asked questions about whether they had an idea about strategy before the instruction, what the strategy was and its practical uses, what limitations of present strategy could be , whether researchers' modeling of the strategy helped them follow the strategies they found most handy to use, and how they thought about the practicability of the strategy instruction program and its effect on their reading comprehension ability.

The researcher tried to create a peaceful relaxing atmosphere for encouraging students' free expression of their ideas as this study would be independent from lesson scores Students spoke both in the native and target languages while switching between them from time to time. Moreover, the interview data was used to get feedback as well as to determine and prepare the reading texts and appliances of the strategies for the next cycle (See Appendix 2). The purpose of the study was to know students' feelings about the strategy, the advance they had experienced and a critical assessment of their own processes.

In short, all data collection methods were resorted constantly together both while and after the research procedures in all four research cycles so as to enhance more reliability and credibility of the research outcomes.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure is carried out as the following: First the group was chosen with convenience sampling. The researcher implemented the strategy training to the group while the procedures of the cycles in the present action research study was grounded on a commonly known cycle of the influential model of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988); plan, act, observe and reflect. "The first cycle may become a continuing, or iterative, spiral of cycles which recur until the action researcher has achieved a satisfactory outcome and feels it is time to stop" (cited in Burns, 2010, p.7). The study was carried through ten weeks in an attempt to develop a reading strategy development program.

The stages may be intersected, or initial plans may lack the needs of the students or learning environment in the light of learning from experience. The process does not run rigidly, rather it is more likely to be visible and responsive (Kemmis et al., 2014). Burns (1999) claims that action research should be seen as flexible, the researchers make their own interpretations of what are appropriate processes for different situations. It is an ongoing process, rather than a program. Phases of project might be fulfilled in a few weeks, evaluated and the process may be restarted with existing new information. These steps may be followed out recurrently and applied to any learning situation or problem for extended improvement in classroom instruction. In the present study, action research was followed in a way that met the needs of the students and learning environment, and accordingly action research plan was created.

In planning phase of the study, the researcher adressed the issue that students need to be instructed about metacognitive reading strategies in order them to be conscious, autonomous and qualified readers for regular class time and outside classroom. Having

reflected on literature, the researcher considered that the suitable study type would be action research in order to integrate strategy training to the regular lessons regarding the actual classroom situations. Data collection tools were decided as a survey, a diary and semi- structured interviews with students along. At the beginning, Reading Strategy Scale was used in order to identify the students perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies and then which strategies to involve in the training accordingly later. Metacognitive reading strategies to be involved were chosen as skimming, scanning, K-W-L, visualization, think aloud, annotating, reciprocal, and self assessment strategy regarding the needs of students according to their responses. Reading task for both modeling and practice of the strategies were chosen considering how to present the strategies in a better and effective way. For the reading texts, Englishhood A2+ -B1 Student's Book and Workbook of Yds Publishing (2016) are followed. The books given by National Ministery of Education are not followed, instead Englishhood A2+ -B1 Student's Book and Workbook of Yds Publishing (2016), which are based on 10th Grade English Curriculum in Turkey, are followed in regular EFL lessons. The main aim of these books is to develop four basic skills through a skill-based approach. The texts of the books are prepared to have a broad array of subjects appealing to all students. For the current study, the texts were chosen considering the target strategy from both the books and from some authentic materials (book contents, film trailers, travel brochures, travel guidebooks, videos, movie posters, real stories, news...)

10th Weekly lesson plans lasting for 80 minutes were prepared and then the next cycle, action stage started. According to Gamel (2015), teachers firstly are to model strategies so that students are provided with the knowledge about how to employ suitable necessary reading strategies in texts. Students need to see active reading process and then be guided while they practice themselves.

In the action phase of the study, the strategies were implemented for two lesson hours each week. In the first lesson, the teacher modelled, students observed and sometimes attended partially. In the second lesson, students used strategies individually or as groups.

A Ten-Week Reading Strategy Instruction

WEEK 1

Date of Teaching: 31.10.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: "MARSI" (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002) (See Appendix 1).

Aims:

- to draw Ss attention to their own reading habits in their native language
- to make Ss aware of their reading strategies in the target language
- to make students brainstorm the qualities of good readers
- to identify Ss' use of metacognitive reading strategies

Step-By-Step Presentation: In the first lesson:

The teacher asked students to mention their reading habits. In order to motivate students to talk, firstly she gave examples from her own reading habits.

Teacher aimed at making students aware of reading strategies, good readers' qualities. She asked some questions to take their attention to themselves and think about their own reading process.

- Do you think reading is important? Why? Why not?
- Why do you read?
- What do you care about while reading both in Turkish and English?
- What do you think about the qualities of good readers?
- Do you have any special strategy to understand a text better?

In the second lesson:

After students gave answers, the teacher handed out the scales to the students and wanted them to answer frankly about their real reading habits. Teacher warned them that there wouldn't be any correct answer to the questions and wouldn't be related to their English grades. The result would show what metacognitive reading strategies they use.

WEEK 2

Date of Teaching: 07.11.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: "Drive your Brain" visual (Appendix 3), Movie Posters, Englishhood Student's Book A1- A2 (Vinten &Humphries, 2015) - Unit 10 b, 10 c, Tv Shows

Strategy: Skimming

Aims:

- to familiarize and clarify metacognitive reading strategies
- to develop skimming as a reading skill (to make students aware of)
- to identify students' reading goals
- to get the main idea in the texts
- to preview the texts to find out the information related to their reading goals
- to give chance students to use strategy themselves

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

Lesson began with a visual metaphor hand-out 'Drive Your Brains' (Wilson & Conyers, 2016).

The expectation from the students was to link this visual with their own thinking so that the concept of metacognition become more concrete and practical. Teacher asked questions to students to explain and to explore how metacognition works and how students could benefit from becoming more metacognitive.

1- How do you accelarate your brain cars and control your brain cars?

2-Have you ever heard about meta or metacognition?

2-Do you focus on what you are reading or do you think other things while reading?

3-Do you have difficulty in understanding a text easily?

After students brainstormed about the questions and shared ideas with each other, the teacher defined the 'metacognition' as thinking about their own thinking. It means to regulate one's thinking (Wilson & Conyers, 2016).

- Introducing the metacognitive reading strategies: Skimming, Scanning, Annotating, Visualizing, K-W-L, Think- aloud, Reciprocal Teaching, Self Assessing...

- Discussing about the role of these strategies in reading process.

- Giving a simple example to get their understanding to the importance of these strategies.

Teacher gave examples such as thinking memory strategies which worked for them best, project steps (developing a plan and check off each step to complete on time) Teacher let students discuss and encourage them to share examples of how metacognition may be employed inside and outside the classrooms.

In the second lesson:

Teacher modelled a reading text to the students. Teacher showed the text on the board and asked what could be the text about through looking the title, text quickly and the pictures. Then, teacher introduced the first strategy: "Skimming" .Teacher stated how and why skimming is used. Teacher clarifed this strategy that 'It is a way of reading the text quickly to get the main idea of a paragraph, page, chapter or article; getting the idea of a few details, but not all.'

They were reminded that they wouldn't read every word. Later, the teacher let students look at the text on their coursebook and do the same procedure. While students were using the strategy to the text, the teacher observed the class and recorded the students' attitudes. After the lesson, the teacher interviewed with ten students.

WEEK 3

Date of Teaching: 14.11.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Book Content, TV broadcast stream, menus, movie summaries, Englishhood A2₊ -B1 Student's Book. (Humphries & Vinten, 2016)- Unit 2b, Programme for School Trip to London, London video.

Strategy: Scanning

Aims:

- to develop scanning as a reading skill
- to internalize scanning strategy through daily examples
- to find the details in the texts
- to give chance students to use strategy themselves

Step-By-Step Presentation: In the first lesson:

In order to take attention of the students to the strategy, the teacher asked them a question about their daily lives:

When you want to go to cinema, how do you choose which movie to watch? Teacher waited and took answers from students. Teacher explained that 'You don't need to look at the information in the schedule. You look only the necessary information such as the type, time, cast, director...'. Teacher continued over the same example situation. Teacher asked them how would they decide to choose, would they get a general idea

before the film? Students could get recommendations or watch trailers, then this would be skimming. Teacher clarified that 'if you look at details, there you need to do scanning'. Then, teacher differentiated scanning from skimming. She asked what scanning meant to them. Teacher aimed students to make connections the word scanning to the strategy itself through following questions: What do you understand from scanning? When you think about a text, how or why do you scan? Teacher gave examples for students to elicit the strategy use in readings. If they looked at the actors and actresses then that would be scanning, because 'scanning strategy is finding specific information from lists, web pages, ads, reading passages...'. Teacher told them they need to use clues, numbers, days, years... Students gave such examples as lesson programs, menus...

Ex: Teacher asked students to look at the content page of their coursebooks and what grammar topics would they learn in 3rd unit? In which unit would they learn about unusual hobbies?

After giving examples, teacher modelled the strategy on the text on coursebook about announcements on school notice board. Teacher reminded students that when they looked at the pictures and the titles, they could get the idea that this text would be about school clubs. "Skimming strategy" was expected to use. Then, teacher showed the 8th activity which asked details that there were some preference sentences and would be decided which club would be suitable for them. Teacher did not read all the words, she caught only key words and matched clubs with the students in the activity.

In the second lesson:

The students were asked to look at reading text about school trip in their coursebooks. As pre-reading activities, Teacher asked some questions: 'Do you like travelling? Have you ever been on a school trip? Which country would you like to go?'

Then, they together looked at the pictures of some countries on the net. Next, teacher showed a video of London touristic attractions. For the 8th. activity, before reading the text, teacher asked students to place special numbers in the box to the related sentences. They studied individually and just looked for the numbers in the text. While students were doing the activity, teacher walked around the class and helped some student. For the next activity, students were asked to mark some sentences T (True) F (False) or NG (Not Given) according to the text. The teacher gave the answers together with the class and summarised the use of strategy. Teacher interviewed with ten students.

WEEK 4

Date of Teaching: 21.11.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Online Istanbul travel brochure, Englishhood A2₊ -B1 Student's Book (Humphries & Vinten, 2016) - Culture Corner 9, Heroes Who Made a Difference in the World.

Strategy: K-W-L

Aim:

- to develop K-W-L chart as a reading skill
- to elicit K-W-L strategy through daily examples
- to find the details in the texts
- to brainstorm background knowledge
- to set a purpose for reading
- to distinguish the new information
- to control comprehension individually
- to give chance students to use strategy themselves

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

The lesson started with previously prepared questions. Teacher asked "Imagine that you have a friend from a foreign country. Where would you take him or her in Turkey? What do you know about there? Have you ever gone? Most students said 'Istanbul' and so the class chose Istanbul as the imaginary destination. Teacher wanted students to think and brainstorm about Istanbul. Also, she made them brainstorm what they would like to know more closely. Teacher asked them what aspects they knew little. While they were discussing, Teacher divided the board into three parts and wrote K, W and L on the top of each parts. Ogle (1992) asserts that "K-W-L stand for the process of making meaning that begins with what students KNOW, moves to the articulation of questions of what they WANT TO KNOW, and continues as students record what they LEARN" (p.270). Therefore, the teacher wrote the explanations for each letter standed for "K" for What do you Know, "W" for What do you Want to Learn and L

for What did you Learn? Then, students were asked to write what they knew about Istanbul under the K column. Students categorized all the information accordingly. Students were encouraged to write what they would like to learn more under the W column. Next, Teacher showed a video about Istanbul and then they read about Istanbul on the board together. While reading, they took notes and in the end they wrote what they learned from the text under the L column. Teacher completed the missing new information on the board. They modelled the K-W-L strategy together and they would be able to adapt the chart to their texts individually.

In the second lesson:

Teacher explained that they would try the same tactic to the text in their course books. Teacher chose an expository text as it would be easier to adapt the strategy. Before telling which text they would deal with, Teacher asked some questions in order to take their attention to the topic as pre-reading.

Who are your favourite famous heroes? Why?

How may a person become hero for people?

Who is your hero? Who do you admire?

After students talked about the topic, they opened the text on their coursebook 'Heroes Who Made a Difference in the World'. Teacher handed out the charts sheets and wanted them to fill in the chart as they did in the first lesson. They looked at the pictures and names and wrote their guesses about the heroes' countries, achievements. Under the K column in their hand outs. Then, they wrote what they would want to learn under L column. They started reading and wrote what they learned during and after reading. Teacher walked around the students and followed the students one by one. Teacher helped the students who had difficulty during the process. When the students finished the chart, teacher asked them to match the facts, successes and all outstanding realities about the heroes to the charts, they took advantage of the information in the chart in an easy and fast way. Teacher took notes again in her diary and collected their hand outs. At the end of the lesson, teacher made interviews with ten students.

WEEK 5

Date of Teaching: 28.11.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: The True Story of Hachiko, movie trailers, news, An Irish Boy in New York

Happy St. Patrick's Day.

Strategy: Visualization

Aims:

- to activate relevant schema
- to strenghten reading comprehension
- to internalize what is read
- to make reading more memorable
- to engage in reading more actively

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

Teacher started the lesson with some questions in order students to be aware of their brain TVs. 'Our environment is full of visual pictures, messages. Isn't it? Can you give examples?'Students stated that 'Even in advertisements of shops or products, there are visuals and we are affected by them while choosing. Tvs are full of advertisements and visuals'. When teacher asked whether they liked watching or not, most students answered positively. They enjoyed the TV audially and visually. Students were drawn to think about the following questions:

-Why do you like watching Tvs?

-Do you consider anything while watching?

-Do you think you are active or passive while watching?

-Don't you feel sometimes the time is flying?

- Experts say 'Don't watch Tv at meal times'. Why do they say so?

Teacher explained the last question as that 'You don't realize how much you eat while watching, because your brain is off while the Tv gives all visuals, sounds instead of your brain'. Then, teacher wanted them to think for reading 'Do the images or pictures in a book affect their preferences to read? Are the visual aids important for reading comprehension? While reading if there is no visual, they turn on their brain Tvs'. The class all talked about this and at last they linked brain Tvs in reading with dreaming, imagining, describing, taking photos of the text in reading.

The best way to teach students is to model and later give the chance to practice independently. The text should be suitable to spot opportunities to create visuals such a process explanation or description of anything to be represented easily. Students should be informed that they do not have to visualize only pictures, but also they display charts, timelines, graphs easy to recall later (Gamel, 2015). Therefore, teacher chose a descriptive short text and modelled visualization strategy for students. Teacher opened a relaxing music and read the descriptive passage to the students. While reading, the teacher took notes and draw some things accordingly and thought aloud. At the end, teacher drew her own last image in order to motivate shy students to draw. Teacher stated that 'The images of the drawings are not important, rather your own thoughts, creativeness are more important'. She added that they could draw either during or after reading themselves. She added thay they could visualize scenes, tastes, whole stories, characters, events, facts in the text and could appeal to their senses such as taste, smell for contemplation.

In the second lesson:

Students wanted to try the strategy themselves. Teacher prepared some questions in order to activate their schema aboout the topic and make them remember the previously employed strategies. Teacher directed them as:

Listen as I read the text. Note down what you imagine as you listen to the story.

Use illustrations, key words, expressions, phrases or sentences or you combine them all!

Draw and write as YOU imagine it in your mind. There will not be definite correct or wrong drawings. As a warm-up, teacher wrote the story's name 'Hachiko' asked:

Which country do you think this name belongs to?

How does a dog become famous in a country?

What are they famous for?

Do you know any interesting story about dogs?

Teacher mentioned that they would learn the true story of a famous dog around the world. Teacher handed out the stories and blank pages for drawings. Before reading, teacher wrote some possible unfamiliar vocabulary on the board and began reading the passage aloud to the students at a moderate pace with relaxing background music. Teacher paused and gave some time to get their visualizations down on papers handed out before. Teacher stopped and reread at planned points to clarify and to check their

understanding. When they finished the story, they drew what they dreamt of and what images came to their minds. Teacher reminded them the messages or feelings were more important than the good-looking of their drawings. Then they answered questions about Hachiko and talked about their drawings and impressions about the story. At the end of the lesson, teacher interviewed with ten students.

WEEK 6

Date of Teaching: 05.12.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Englishhood A2+ -B1 Workbook (Humphries & Vinten, 2016)- Unit 3a,

Miss Marple, movie trailer, My Life without Money

Strategy: Think Aloud

Aims:

-to help students monitor their thinking during reading

- to recognize confusion and use fix-up strategies during reading

- to activate background knowledge

- to internalize the text for better comprehension

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

Teacher asked a few questions:

Before reading a text, do you look at its title, pictures or organization of it or do you start reading directly?

Do you try to predict what the text is about?

What is the event, who are the people, what are the characters like?

What am I going to learn?

The aim was to catch their atteniton to thinking their own thinking before reading time.

They were expected to brainstorm and question their approaches to texts. Teacher went on asking the following questions:

Do you make connections with the text you read and your environment in real life?

Is there any time you get confused while reading?

What do you do when there is an unknown word?

Can you infer the meaning of unknown word from the context?

Can you feel like the characters in a story or event?

After reading, can you summarize a text, story in your own words?

Teacher explained that while thinking aloud during and after reading, more competent readers check their understanding by rereading a sentence, reading ahead to simplify, or looking for contextual cues. Students then learned to answer to the questions as the teacher leaded the think-aloud. Teacher wanted the students to open the text in their books. First, they talked about the visuals of the text and tried to answer the following questions.

What does the magnifier imply?

What is the text about? Is it about a dedective stroy?

Who is the old woman?

Can the old woman be a criminal or dedective?

What do dedectives look like?

Might she be a dedective?

After answering the questions, teacher started reading loudly. Teacher paid attention to use I-statements, as in, "I wonder if the author means …" or "I connect this event to…" while modelling. Through "I" language, students began to learn how to utilize reading strategies to their independent reading. Teacher used "thinking aloud strategy" together with students while stopping and thinking at chosen marking spots. They consulted to questioning, answering, visualising, making connections, rereading, inferring appropriately. Then they did exercises.

In the second lesson:

After modelling in the first lesson, teacher handed out a reading text with visuals. Teacher read aloud and students followed her from their sheets. First, the students looked at the title and guessed whether it was possible to live without money. They personalized the situation and got confused with the title. 'How may people survive without money? Are there people living so?' questions were discussed. Teacher started reading and talked over together. While reading, students shared what they thought or felt about the text. They brought forward whatever questions or doubts came to their minds and tried to give possible answers on their own or altogether. Students elicited the unfamiliar vocabulary from the context. The students thought deeply about the story and as a post reading activity to lead students to be aware of and use again "think aloud strategy", there happened a debate about money. They watched the movie trailer of this real story and they were asked to discuss the importance of money. As they met a

women living without money in real life, should there be money anymore? Lastly, teacher interviewed with ten students.

WEEK 7

Date of Teaching: 12.12.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Englishhood A2+ -B1 Student's Book. (Humphries & Vinten, 2016)- Unit

7c, Clothing around the World, Etiquette Tips for Travellers

Strategy: Annotating

Aims:

-to interact with texts for better comprehension

- to keep tracks of key ideas while reading

-to help readers organize thoughts and questions for deeper understanding

- to foster analyzing and interpreting texts

- to encourage readers to make elicitations and draw conclusions about the text

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

Teacher brought colorful papers on which there were bookmarks standing for different aims. Teacher hanged up the papers on the wall where students could easily see. The aim was to provide learners with permanent learning, in a way peripheral learning. Students were to use the symbols while reading. Before explaining the meanings of the symbols, teacher paved the way for symbols through questions.

While reading, do you interact with texts?

Think about a person you have just met. How do you interact?

Teacher asserted that people read a new person's body language, accent, clothes to figure out.

The symbols were as the following:

'*' for important information, '-' for keywords, ' $\sqrt{}$ ' to say I get it (understand), 'O' for unfamiliar Word (circle), '?' refer to I don't understand, '!' for surprising information, ' ∞ ' for connection to life. After the symbols were explained, teacher wanted students to follow her from their coursebooks. Meanwhile, she displayed the text in their coursebooks on the smart board. She took out colorful sticky post-its for note-taking to necessary parts during reading. Post-its responses give an idea for both readers and instructors that whether they comprehend a text or not, because they note down questions, clarifications or predicitons about the content (O' Shaughnessy, 2001). The teacher looked at the visuals, read aloud the title and guessed what the text would be about. She asked to the class why those people were wearing differently, whether they had common things or not. From time to time, previously learned and practiced strategies were reminded. Here, "skimming strategy" and "think aloud strategy" was practiced and explained. Next, the teacher started reading and students followed her from their coursebooks. She underlined, circled, put the symbols and made notes to the sticky post-its near the margins while thinking aloud and explaining the reasons for choosing those symbols accordingly. Teacher clarified why she chose certain items to mark. In addition, she asked the students to pick items for appropriate symbols and have them explain why they selected them. The teacher explained that she made a conversation with text through marking the texts and writing notes. While reading, she slowed down reading and checked understanding in order to be alert and focus on. She formed some questions as 'Is there any difference in Turkey among the regions? Can you give examples for different kinds of clothes? What effects the choice of clothes?' They brainstormed, gave opininons and made connections to their environments as a whole class. After reading, they answered the following detailed questions in a fast way as they appealed to scanning and annotating.

In the second lesson:

The teacher started lesson by reminding students that they wouldn't use the symbols and take notes randomly. They needed to annotate important parts or inexplicable, weird places by circling, underlying, questioning or highlighting. They could annotate on sticky post-its to take notes longer for the later usages. They should pay attention to the author's main points, switches among the possible messages or perspectives of the text, key areas of focus and their own thoughts as they read. She leaded them to open the text on their course books. Students studied individually while teacher walked around to control the use of strategy. She also took notes in her diary and helped them to implement annotations. After they finished reading and annotating, they shared their thoughts, findings and discussed their purposes for choosing as a class. The symbols chart was located permanently to encourage them internalize and use for further reading. The teacher interviewed with ten students.

WEEK 8

Date of Teaching: 19.12.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Englishhood A2+ -B1 Student's Book. (Humphries & Vinten, 2016)- Unit 3c, Non-professional Thieves, Unit 9c, Real-life Heroes with a Difference, Role cards. **Strategy:** Reciprocal

Aims:

-to lead students think about the reading process actively

- to encourage students to ask questions
- to guide students to become reflective in their thinking
- to enhance cooperative learning

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

Reciprocal strategy is a scaffolded technique centered on teacher modeling and student participation. It integrates four main strategies; predicting, questioning, clarifying, summarizing that good readers use together to comprehend text (Oczkus, 2003). Teachers model, then assist students learn to lead group discussions where they use the four strategies. According to Palincsar and Brown (1984), in reciprocal teaching, the teacher and students change the roles through dialogue over relevant features of a text. The students were reminded that the main aim of the chart is to help them improve and contol their own understanding (Salataci & Akyel, 2002). So, the teacher started introducing the four strategy roles using role card papers. She divided the board into four and wrote the roles as clarifier, questioner, predictor and summarizer. She elicited ideas from the students about what exactly these roles would do. They listed the roles in brief as; clarifier helps the group clarify unknown words, confusing concepts, questioner asks why, what, when, how accordingly, predictor use clues from the text or title or visuals to predict about and summarizer retell what they read in other words, focuses on main ideas or important main information. Teacher opened the text from their coursebooks on the smart board and wanted them to follow during reading. The teacher chose four volunteer students to help to implement the strategy. The teacher gave them the role cards and she started reading while the rest of the class followed. The teacher looked at the visuals and asked why there were some weirdness in those visuals. The teacher explained that she took the role of questioner. She continued reading the introduction sentence, she wanted the predictor student what the text would be about. The predictor guessed it would be about newspaper reports and witnesses. She predicted what the text would be about. When the teacher read the last sentence of the first paragraph, there was an extraordinary situation, so she wanted the clarifier student to make clear the unusual situation. The clarifier reread the sentence and expressed with his own words. Then, the summarizer student was asked to sum up the paragraph. She retold the event in a shorter way. The other three paragraphs went on in this way and they started exercises. While they were finding answers, they cared about their roles and expressed their ideas accordingly.

In the second lesson:

Teacher told the class that they would study as groups of four and all members of the group would take one of the four strategy roles. Teacher divided the class into 6 groups of four students randomly and students took their roles by drawing lots. Teacher wanted students to read silently and each member thought especially in terms of their strategies and would take notes. After every paragraph, they shared their ideas. Meanwhile, the teacher went near each group and checked the members' roles and group dynamics. She helped for the students who had difficulty in finding related ideas to their strategy roles. When all groups finished reading, they started discussing as a whole class. Afterwards, the teacher let students do the activities together. At the end of the lesson, the teacher interviewed with ten students.

WEEK 9

Date of Teaching: 26.12.2017

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Magician of the Sea, video, Denis the Cat Burglar, news

Strategy: Self Assessment

Aims:

- to self- regulate reading
- to be aware of weaknesses and strengths in reading comprehension
- to engage in reading actively
- to take control of reading consciously

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

Learners value their own learning and achievements regarding evidence from themselves and from others. They judge about what they have done, why or what they should do with specific goals in their mind (Boud, 1995). The aim of self-assesment for students is to realize how to catch good performance similar to that of their teachers. Students should be able to monitor their own performance, set appropriate goals, develop needed skills and strategies, and improve learning accordingly. It motivates students to attempt for learning and to develop a sense of self-efficacy. Consequently, they aim at learning and regulating themselves necessarily rather than performing well for a specific situation or obtaining extrinsic rewards (Samuels & Farstrup, 2011). Regarding this, the teacher asked students' aims for lessons generally and how they react to their learning process. Nearly all students were inclined to performance-oriented learning process. The teacher explained that they need to monitor their own learning and follow how effectively they read, learn the materials they deal with. So, they control their own learning, reading as they know their strengths and weaknesses. The teacher told students that they would study together to see how they could assess themselves in reading.

This self-assessment strategy would encompass previously-learned and practiced strategies, so the teacher wanted students to think about them. Teacher divided the board into three and wrote pre, while and after reading titles. The teacher elicited possible strategies suitable for each stages from students and listed the strategies to care about at those process together with class. For pre-reading, they would think title, topic, why to read, predict the content, skim pictures, charts, read headings and bold-faced words. For while reading, they would stop and check their understanding, discovering unfamiliar words through context clues, rereading the confusing parts, using pictures, graphs, predicting, personalizing, making connections between texts and real lives. For post reading, they would share what they read or visuals, think about why they like or disliked the texts, make mental pictures, visualize the story or characters, decide whether the text meet their reading purpose ,making connections to their environment or real lives. Teacher also wanted them to find symbols to state ideas differently as they did before in annotating strategy. The class decided "③" symbol for

understand, predict, get the meaning; '3' symbol for not understanding, wrong predicting; '!' for surprising information; ' ∞ ' symbol for connecting the information to real lives of environment; '\$\$' symbol for nice, new information. Teacher started modelling and students followed her on the board so that they could see how the teacher would assess her performance according to the rubric they created. Before reading, teacher showed the text on smart board and predicted what the text would be about. She asked students own ideas about 'Is magician of the sea an animal or a person?' Who or what can be the magician? Why?' They also predicted about the topic and thought about what they knew before related to sea. They guessed that it would be about pirates an unusual kind of fish. It would be about an imaginary character. Then, the teacher started reading and stopped when she read an interesting confusing information. She reread and discovered the amazing truths about the animal 'octopuses'. She thought aloud, underlined new astonishing information. She discovered the new vocabulary using contextual clues in the text. When she finished, she filled in the graphic organizer, she reread the important details in the text. She thought what she liked most about the topic. Then, the teacher assessed and wrote her performance in three dimensions. For pre-reading, she mentioned 'I predicted it woud be about a different kind of fish' and put '\$ ' symbol as she learned new and surprising information. For while reading, I learned interesting details, they have three hearts' and put '!' symbol. She added a few details and put 'O' symbols. 'I reread the sentences about octopuses' teeth, hiding ways, I learned they hide using ink... ' and put '^(©)' symbol as she understood their tactics. 'I discover the meaning of predator word from context' and put the symbol '⁽ⁱ⁾'. 'I coudn't find the meaning –vanish-' and put '^(©)' symbol. For post reading, 'I remembered the details, I summed up them with a graphic organizer and put '⁽ⁱ⁾' symbol. 'I connected to real life small but dangeorus or poisonous things' and put ' ∞ ' symbol. As the teacher assessed her performance loudly, students followed.

In the second lesson:

As a warm up activity, the teacher asked some questions:

Which animals do you like?

Do you know any famous animal?

Do you want to feed a cat or dog as your pet animals? Why? Why not?

Why do you think a cat be famous?

Then the students answered the questions. The teacher showed Dennis news online, handed out the texts and self assessment templates. The students studied individually and filled in the assessment papers. Teacher walked around the classroom and helped students if necessary. They criticized their performances, analyzed where they were effective and where they had difficulty in comprehending. The teacher made interviews with ten students.

WEEK 10

Date of Teaching: 02.01. 2018

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Englishhood A2+ -B1 Student's Book (Humphries &Vinten, 2016)- Unit
3a, Murder on the Orient Express, "MARSI" (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002)
Strategy: Overall Strategies Revision

Aims:

- to see which strategies are preferred or not preferred to use in a reading text

- to assess students' awareness of contolling thinking processes while comprehending reading texts

- to elicit the reading strategy training reflections to students' preferences

Step-By-Step Presentation:

In the first lesson:

The teacher elicited all strategies previously practiced together with all students. The students reminded what the strategies were and how they were used in texts each other. Then, the teacher leaded students to open the reading text from their course books suitable for using several metacognitive reading strategies. The teacher wanted students to read individually and implement whichever metacognitive strategies they would like to utilize accordingly. They would be able to decide and use their own choices of strategies. Teacher handed out blank papers for each student to write their choices of strategies and where they used with their reasons. While they were reading the text and implementing the strategies, the teacher checked their preferences. After they finished reading, the teacher asked them to write which strategies they liked most and would prefer using in the future with reasons or vice versa. They also wrote which strategies they had difficulty in using or they found easy to employ. Then, the teacher gathered their feedbacks to assess later and see their comments about strategy training.

In the second lesson:

Firstly, the teacher gave MARSI for the second time as a post evaluation after training. Next, students were reminded of the reasons behind giving the survey for the second time as she wanted to see their opinions and awareness of metacognitive reading strategies. She warned them to choose honestly to understand which strategies were adopted mostly and which ones were choosen the least. Accordingly, necessary metacognitive reading strategies would be practiced later. Then, students read all 30 items in the survey chose the best option for them about prereferences and at last the teacher gathered the surveys to evaluate.

REVISION WEEK

Date of Teaching: 15.05. 2018

Estimated Duration of the Lessons: 80'

Material: Englishhood A2+ -B1 Workbook (Humphries &Vinten, 2016)- Unit 3c,The Case of Disappearing PaintingsStrategy: Overall Strategies Revision

Aims:

-to see students' internalization of metacognitive reading strategies

-to revise the metacognitive reading strategies

In the first lesson:

Students were asked to look at the reading text in their workbooks and use indivudally the suitable metacognitive reading strategies. They were told to remember the strategies and reading process to utilize accordingly. Then, they were given blank papers to write their preferences with their reasons.

In the second lesson:

The teacher wanted to read the text together with the students and took their opinions about their strategy preferences. They brainstormed about their own strategies and each others' preferences of the strategies. They discussed the strategies and at last, teacher summarized the strategies.

In the observation process of the whole study, the researcher identified to what extent the metacognitive strategies are empoyed with the students. MARSI scale was used the second time at the end of the study. The researcher conducted semi-structured

interviews with ten different students after each lesson during ten weeks. The interviews were included in content analysis.

In the reflection process, the researcher used the reflections recorded in her own diary and also the feedback of the students via interviews. The aim was to assess and evaluate activities' effectiveness in accordance with their level of practice, the students' opinions towards metacognitive reading strategy instruction. Estaire and Zanon (1994) define the functions of evaluation that it provides teachers and students with feedback that will govern adjustments and planning of the ongoing work to facilitate learning. Evaluation is an indispensible component of a learning process.

The researcher seeked out whether a ten-week reading strategy deveopment training increased students' awareness of metacognitive reading strategies for a better reading comprehension.

CHAPTER FOUR

IV. FINDINGS

The present research attempted to investigate students' preferences of metacognitive strategies while reading. The main purpose of this study is to find out the effects of a reading strategy program integrated in usual English lessons in a high school classroom on the metacognitive awareness of students.

4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed through descriptive statistics using SPSS (Version 5) and the results were presented within the outline of six research questions.

- 1. Is there any significant difference in global reading strategies between pre and posttest?
- 2. Is there any significant difference in problem-solving reading strategies between pretest and posttest?
- 3. Is there any significant difference in support reading strategies between pre and posttest?
- 4. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the most and the least used reading strategies of all three areas between pre and posttest?
- 5. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies in terms of gender variable between pre and posttest?
- 6. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies as a whole between pre and posttest?

As the number of the data is small, non-parametric analysis is used for the study.

Research Question 1: Is there any significant difference in global reading strategies between pre and posttest?

			Ran	ks
	Group	Ν	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Global	Pretest	25	14,42	360,50
	Posttest	25	36,58	914,50

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Overall Global Reading Strategies

According to the results of descriptive distribution of the scores of the participants in Table 2, all students' answers were ranged from the lower ones to the higher ones, then the results were summed as pretest and posttest and the average means were calculated. The mean rank of Global Reading Strategies is 14, 42 in pretest and after the implementation of strategy training, it increases as 36, 58. Total ranks increase from 360, 50 to 914, 50 after the training program. This means that the group answered with higher frequency so the mean ranks and sum of ranks increased.

Table 3: Statistics of Mann- Whitney U and Wilcoxon Tests

Test Statistics ^a		
	Global	
Mann-Whitney U	35,500	
Wilcoxon W	360,500	
Z	-5,380	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
a. Grouping Variable: group		

Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon W Signed Ranks are used as this is a nonparametric study. The value Asym. Sig is below 0, 05 (p < 0, 05), so there is a significant difference between the responses to the Inventory before and after the strategy training. As it is seen from the Table 3, there is a positive increase in the mean ranks after the strategy training. Table 4 below explains ranks reported strategy use by individual item mean scores on MARSI for the global reading strategy before and after the strategy training.

		Grou	р	
	Prete	st	Postt	est
Statements	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. I have a purpose in mind when I read.	1,72	1,13	3,72	0,79
3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	2,28	1,20	3,20	0,86
4. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	3,16	1,40	3,88	0,83
7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1,16	0,47	2,48	0,96
10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	2,76	1,20	4,20	0,95
14. I decide what to read closely and what to	3,00	1,19	3,80	1,04
ignore. 17. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1,40	1,04	3,80	1,11
19. I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading.	2,36	1,18	3,52	1,04
22. I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1,44	0,65	2,24	1,23
23. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1,44	0,58	2,40	0,91
25. I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	1,64	0,90	3,20	1,08
26. I try to guess what the material is about when	2,40	0,81	4,16	1,02
I read. 29. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	2,56	1,26	3,92	1,18

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Global Reading Strategies

A closer look at Table 4 indicates that 8 (%62) of the 13 strategies reported by the students fell in the high usage category (3.5 or higher mean), 2 strategies (15%) place in the medium usage category of mean (mean between 2.5 and 3.49), while 3(%23) of the strategies fell in the low usage category (2.4 or lower mean).

Research Question 2. Is there any significant difference in problem-solving reading strategies between pre and posttest?

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Overall Problem Solving Strategies

			Ran	ks
	Group	Ν	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Problem	Pretest	25	15,44	386,00
	Posttest	25	35,56	889,00

According to the results of descriptive distribution of the scores of the participants in Table 5, the mean rank of Problem-Solving Reading Strategies is 15, 44 in pretest and after the implementation of strategy training, it increases as 35, 56.

Test Statistics ^a		
	Problem	
Mann-Whitney U	61,000	
Wilcoxon W	386,000	
Ζ	-4,888	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
a. Grouping Variable: group		

Table 6: Statistics of Mann- Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests

Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon W Signed Ranks are used as this is a nonparametric study with a Likert type Inventory. The value Asym. Sig is p < 0, 5, so there is a significant difference between the responses to the Inventory before and after the strategy training. As it is seen from the table, there is a positive increase in the mean ranks after the strategy training. In the Table 7 below, problem solving metacognitive reading strategy statements are given one by one with the responses of the students to the MARSI scale before and after the strategy training.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Problem Solving Strategies

		Grou	ıp	
	Pretes	st	Postt	est
Statements	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
8. I read slowly, but carefully to be sure I understand	3,44	1,32	4,16	1,10
what I'm reading.				
11. I try to get back on track when I lose	1,56	0,96	2,60	1,47
concentration.				
13. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm	2,68	1,14	3,36	1,25
reading.				
16. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer	1,76	1,20	3,04	1,42
attention to what I'm reading.				
18. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm	2,80	1,29	3,68	0,98
reading.				
21. I try to picture or visualize information to help	2,16	1,14	4,48	0,71
remember what I read.				
27. When text becomes difficult, I re-read to	2,00	1,11	2,84	1,14
increase my understanding.				
30. I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or	2,36	1,38	3,96	0,29
phrases.				

When the results are assessed as a whole in Table 7; 4 (%50) of the 8 problem solving strategies reported by the students fell in the high usage category (3.5 or higher mean), 4 (%50) belonged to the medium usage category of mean (mean between 2.5 and 3.49), while none of the strategies appeared in the low usage category (mean below 2.4) after the training. On the other hand, when the results were assessed before the training, none of the strategies fell in the high usage category, 5(%63) were in the low usage category.

Research Question 3. Is there any significant difference in support reading strategies between pre and posttest?

			Ran	ks
	Group	Ν	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Support	Pretest	25	15,02	375,50
	Posttest	25	35,98	899,50

Table 8 Descriptive Statistics of Overall Support Reading Strategies

The descriptive distribution of the scores of the participants are shown in the Table 8, the mean rank of Support Reading Strategies is 15, 02 in pretest and after the implementation of strategy training, it increases as 35,98.

Test Statistics ^a	
	Support
Mann-Whitney U	50,500
Wilcoxon W	375,500
Z	-5,091
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000
a. Grouping Variable: group	

Table 9: Statistics of Mann- Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests

Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon Signed Ranks are used as this is a non-parametric study. The value Asym. Sig is p < 0, 5, so there is a significant difference between the responses to the Inventory before and after the strategy training. As it is seen from the table 9, there is a positive increase in the mean ranks after the strategy training. In the table below, support reading strategy statements are given one by one with the responses of the students to the MARSI scale before and after the strategy training.

		a		
		Gro	-	
	Pre	test	Post	Test
Statements	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
2. I take notes while reading to help me understand	1,68	0,74	3,36	0,81
what I read.				
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help	1,92	1,15	3,48	1,00
me understand what I read.				
6. I summarize what I read to reflect on important	1,12	0,43	2,96	1,30
information in the text.				
9. I discuss what I read with others to check my	3,40	1,15	3,52	0,96
understanding.				
12. I underline or circle information in the text to	3,32	1,21	3,60	1,19
help me remember it.				
15. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to	3,28	1,20	3,44	0,91
help me understand what I read.				
20. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to	1,40	1,04	3,36	1,28
better understand what I read.				
24. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships	1,96	1,05	3,24	0,96
among ideas in it.		,	,	ŗ
28. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in	1,76	1,16	2,88	0,92
the text.				

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of Support Reading Strategies

According to the findings in Table 10; 2 (%22) of the 9 problem solving strategies were in the high usage category, the rest of the strategies 7(%78) belonged to the medium usage category of mean while none of the strategies fell in the low usage category after the training. If the results in pretest were referred to, none of the strategies fell in the high usage category, 3(%33) were in the medium usage category and 6(%67) had means in the low usage range.

Research Question 4. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the most and the least used reading strategies of all three areas between pre and posttest?

Table 11: Statistics of the Most and the Least Preferred Strategies

		Mean	SD
	GLOB		
Pre	4. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	3,16	1,40
	7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1,16	0,47
Post	10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	4,20	0,95
	22. I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information. PROB	2,24	1,23
Pre	8. I read slowly, but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.	3,44	1,32
	11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1,56	0,96
Post	21. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	4,48	0,71
	11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. SUP	2,60	1,47
Pre	9. I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding.	3,40	1,15
	6. I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	1,12	0,43
Post	12. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	3,60	1,19
	28. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	2,88	0,92

Based on the obtained results in Table 11, the most and the least preferred strategies are indicated by comparing the mean values of pretest and posttest scores gained from the MARSI along with their mean differences and standard deviations.

The three strategy categories are related to each other and interact with while supporting each other when used to construct meaning during reading process.

Before giving the scores in each category, the most and the least preferred strategies will be assessed among the whole scale strategies. The item 21 (M=4,48) "I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read" was ranked as the most common metacognitive reading strategy of the participants in posttest while in pretest it was item 8 (M=3,44) "I read slowly, but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading". Item 22 (M= 2, 24) "I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information" was the least scored in posttest while item 6 (M= 1, 16) "I

summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text" was the least preferred one in pretest.

In global reading strategies, the most and the least preferred strategies were Item 10 "I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization" (M=4, 20, SD=0, 95) and item 22 "I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information" (M=2, 24, SD=1, 23), in posttest. In pretest, the most and the least preferred strategies were Item 4 "I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it" (M=3, 16, SD=1, 40), and item 7 "I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose" (M=1, 16, SD=0, 47).

For problem solving strategies, the most and the least frequently reported strategies were item 21 "I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read" with (M=4, 48, SD=0, 71) and item 11 "I try to get back on track when I lose concentration" (M=2, 60, SD=1, 47) in posttest. In pretest, item 8 "I read slowly, but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading" (M=1, 16, SD=0, 47) was the most preferred strategy. The least preferred strategy was the same item 11 as in post, but the mean value increased (M=1, 56, SD=0, 96).

Among support reading strategies in pretest, the most and the least preferred strategies were item 9 "I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding" (M=3, 40, SD=1, 15) and item 6 "I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text" (M=1, 12, SD=0, 43). In posttest, the most and the least preferred strategies were item 12 "I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it" (M=3, 60, SD=1, 19) and item 28 "I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text" (M=2, 88, SD=0, 92).

Research Question 5. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies in terms of gender variable between pre and posttest?

Mann-Whitney U	59,000
Wilcoxon W	125,000
Z	-,988
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,323
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,344 ^b
a. Grouping Variable: Statement1	
b. Not corrected for ties.	

Table 12: Statistics of Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests in Pretest

Test Statistics^a

Test Statistics^a

Table 12 indicates that there is not a significant gender difference between the total responses students in pretest, as Asymp. Sig is as p>0, 00.

Table 13: Statistics of Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon W Tests in Posttest

Mann-Whitney U	77,000
Wilcoxon W	182,000
Z	,000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	1,000
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	1,000 ^b
a. Grouping Variable: gender	
b. Not corrected for ties.	

Tables 13 indicates that there is not a significant gender difference between the total responses students in posttest, as p>0, 00.

Research Question 6. Is there any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies as a whole between pre and posttest?

Table 14: Statistics of Reported Overall Use of Strategies in Pretest and Posttest

Descriptive Statistics									
	Ν	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum				
Pretest	25	65,9200	15,60961	40,00	106,00				
Posttest	25	102,4800	13,24173	73,00	129,00				

In Table 14 above, the mean between pretest and posttest results of the strategy preferences in total are given.

In pretest, the mean is 65, 9200; in posttest the mean is 102,480. In pretest standard deviation is 15, 60961 while in posttest it is 13, 24173. As standard deviation decreases, the responses scatter more homogeneously. Minimum score is 40 and maximum score is 106, 00 in pretest while in posttest minimum score is 73, 00 and maximum score is 129, 00. Both the minimum and maximum scores increase. The difference between the pre and the post applied surveys shows the increase in the strategy use perception in total.

Ranks					
		Ν	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
Pre test –Post test	Negative Ranks	1^{a}	2,00	2,00	
	Positive Ranks	24 ^b	13,46	323,00	
	Ties	0^{c}			
	Total	25			
a. post test < pre test					
b. post test > pre test					
c. pre test = post test					

In Table 15 above, the increase in the responses of students for the strategies in EFL reading after the strategy training, 24 participants enhanced, only one participant resulted in negatively. The negative result may be ignored as it is a small difference comparing to the whole results of the Inventory.

Table 16: Statistics of Overall Reported Strategies in Three Categories

	Pr	Pretest		osttest
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
GLOB	2,10	0,66	3,42	0,66
PROB	2,34	0,67	3,51	0,66
SUP	2,20	0,83	3,31	0,24
OVERALL	2,19	1,15	3,40	1,04

According to the findings in Table 16, the students' preferences of each category were accelerated after the implementation reading program and the total average use of reading strategies was moderate as they employed overall strategies with a mean as 3,40 in medium usage after the training whilst as 2,19 in low usage before the training. All in all, the mean of the three subscale categories were 3, 42, 3, 51, and 3,31 for global reading strategies, problem-solving strategies and support reading strategies, respectively after the training.

4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data was collected from the class observations through the instructor's diary and semi-structured interviews with the students related to the strategy implementation according to the research questions. The results of the qualitative data were used to reinforce the quantitative data. The action research study affected students' perceptions of reading and the use of metacognitive reading strategies positively for better comprehension. In this section, findings from the researcher's diary and interviews will be given in a harmonized way.

The researcher took notes in the light of some questions as followed in her diary for each lesson. The researcher organized her lessons thinking action research phases: plan, act, observe and reflect.

In planning lessons, the researcher tried to take into account:

Which reading strategies should be involved in order to increase metacognitive awareness?

What are the most important elements of the lesson?

Which strategies go well with the texts to be presented?

How do students elicit the strategy use in modelling phase and employ next?

Where might students encounter difficulties?

How do students be motivated to use the specific strategy?

How do I relate new content to their prior knowledge?

Which metacognitive strategies should be reminded students to activate to make the most of this learning?

While engaged in the lesson, the teacher followed the previously prepared lesson plan. Firstly, the researcher modelled the strategy on a suitable text and the students followed the teacher.

While modelling, the teacher used "think aloud strategy" all the time and sometimes wanted help from volunteer students so that the students could elicit the strategy use. The teacher asked and answered questions during the process. Then, the teacher taught the strategies explicitly before the students used next lesson. For explicit teaching of reading strategies, teachers become models, lead students to use the strategies, give correcting feedback and reinforce the correct responses (Antoniou & Souvignier, 2007). Baydık (2011) states that strategies, their functions, importance, when and how to use the strategies are taught directly; teachers become model till the students use them independently and accordingly. Teachers may use think aloud method while modelling the strategies (Pressley & Gaskins, 2006). Singhal (2001) introduces a guideline for reading strategy instruction. She gives recommendations to teachers that they should instruct strategies explicitly by modelling so that the use of strategies extend and vary. In this study, students implemented the focused strategy to the chosen text in the second lesson.

In observing stage, the teacher wrote down her observations about the lesson going on. While noting, she tried to answer some questions. Is the lesson going on as planned? If not, what is hindering the course of process? How may I balance the lessons among the different paced of learning of students? Is there any point that seems confusing or unclear? What unexpected connections or attitudes are students reflecting?

In reflecting outcomes, the teacher reviewed and got feedback about the training process. Both the teacher and the students' reflections were assessed in this phase. The teacher made interviews with ten different students after each lesson. In the interview the teacher asked students these questions:

Interview Questions

What is today's strategy? What do you understand from the strategy? Why do you think the strategy is really necessary? How does it help in a reading text? What easiness or difficulties may be in using this strategy?

Could you utilize the strategy to the text easily? Have you ever used this strategy before?

Did you like the strategy? Why? Why not? Do you think you will use this strategy in texts from now on?

Teacher got feedback and reflections of students thanks to the answers they gave. Grounded on this, the teacher could get ideas about the usage of material, strategy. Also, the strengths and weaknesses of students and herself could be reflected during the process. Do students need additional support or reviews? What might I change the next time I teach? What was unexpected, in both positive and challenging ways? Every week, the teacher-researcher held short discussions with students on the strategies, how to use, is it necessary, which other strategies are to be used. The aim was to assist the learners reflect on their progress and to administer guidance.

It should be noted that in order to comprehend any text, competent readers utilize at least one of the metacognitive strategies (Çubukçu, 2008). 'Introspection' is to analyze and control of reading process through think-aloud protocols or interviews, so that the reading strategies employed by readers may be identified (Alderson, 2000).

The researcher's aim was to draw students' attention to reading texts in class time. So, she introduced some changes in presenting reading strategies. She aimed at bringing different motivational strategies and involve students and get feedback about their impressions of the strategies' usefulness.

The data gathered through semi-structured interviews were categorized under each interview questions taking into considerations the common or different aspects. The utterances were assessed through selective coding by concentrating on main ideas (See Appendix 4). Each week, ten students were interviewed.

In the first week, the teacher started by asking about the general reading habits in order to get idea about their attitudes towards reading. While most students enjoy reading in their native language, they may display negative attitudes towards reading in English. Although they are successful in grammar, they do not like reading or even they have difficulty in understanding texts. The most salient finding of the discussions about the topic is that none of the students want to deal with reading texts in their course books. The following comments clarify this:

Student 1: When we come to reading passages, I do not want to read, because I do not concentrate on the long paragraphs. Even after I read the whole text, mostly I do not say what the message is.

Student 2: If I do not look at the words one by one and read slowly, I do not understand the sentences, so the paragraphs and the text as a whole. I do not know how to approach a text to comprehend.

On the other hand, there are some metacognitively aware students about reading strategies.

Student 3: In order to comprehend, I try to underline all sentences and translate one by one the sentences. Also, I reread and take notes near the necessary places.

Student 4: I always bring my dictionary and look for the unknown words.

When the answers were assessed, the students generally did not want to read texts in English for academic purposes and they were not aware of some metacognitive reading strategies.

In the second lesson, the researcher handed out MARSI scale to the students and explained the statements one by one. Then students filled in the scale. After the scales were investigated, the possible necessary reading strategies were chosen and new lesson plans were adjusted suitable to introduce the strategies to increase awareness of the students.

In the second week, the teacher started the lesson with handouts "Drive Your Brains" in order to take their attention to 'metacognition'. As planned, students' attention were high for the visual and brain car expression. Teacher started to discuss with students about brain cars. Some students stated that they may not control brain cars while others say yes and give examples. Here are some of the comments:

Student 5: Sometimes I may not control my mind, especially while watching TV serials or movies.

Student 6: I think about what I will do in some circumstances. I might control if I focus on. I might accelerate in exams.

Student 7: *If we fuel up the car, the control is possible. Our brains' fuel is knowledge. We need to study hard in a disciplined way and read many books.*

Student 8: If I knew, I would be very successful, but I am not. If I am interested in a topic, I may accelerate.

When the students were asked to think about meta or metacognition:

Students thought metacognition as to know much, to improve oneself. Some students thought that the brain itself causes, they may not interfere.

The researcher teacher gave examples from their school life. She wanted them to think about project works. After they learn the subjects, they start to plan what to do, what to use, how to go on. Then they start studying, regulate and control each project steps. This refers to their metacognition. Or they think about memory strategies suitable for them best and works to memorize vocabulary. Also, she gave examples from their own exams in all subjects. They study and memorize the formulas or structures but they don't use appropriately to the situation needed. Even if they have the knowledge, they may not know how to use or how to control their thinking. Then, there is vital necessity to learn how to use functionally the knowledge. So, the teacher explained metacognition as regulating their thinking as mentioned before.

Then, the teacher asked whether they focus on reading or thinking other things. Students generally told that sometimes they thought other things rather than the text. They mentioned that the attractiveness of texts were important to go on and focus on reading. Students' comments are as the following:

Student 9: If I really want to read, then I may concentrate on; otherwise I deal with other things.

Student 10: If I miss the flow, I don't go back to the text. I think about television serials, songs or friends.

The most interesting comment is:

Student 11: I have some times in which I think about different things, but controlling myself doesn't come to my mind.

Then the teacher asked whether they had difficulty understanding a text. Most students shared the common idea that if the texts' topics take their interest and if they are in the mood of reading, then it is easier. And if there are many unknown words and if there is a long passage, they feel discouraged for reading. Following student comments support this view:

Student 4: I don't want to read about history or technical topics. I want to read real life stories, crimes or games. When I see a text topic about a historical description of a building, or civilization history, I just feel bored before reading.

Student 6: When there are unknown vocabulary, if also it is a long text, I stick to those sentences or expressions and don't go on.

Teacher wanted students to motivate to learn how to control their thinking especially for reading. So, teacher mentioned that there are some reading strategies to help them regulate their thinking and they will practice together.

Next lesson, the teacher modelled "skimming strategy" on a text about the history of television in their books. Teacher looked at the pictures and the paragraphs rapidly, then thought aloud that the text must be about television in history, because there were different sized televisions and some dates through the text. She didn't read all the sentences, just took a look over the paragraphs. She chose the possible title as 'television through the years' and continued to see whether the guess is true or not. She asked what steps she followed and they together elicited the idea of skimming. They agreed that they don't need to read the sentences one by one in order to get a general idea of the topic. Then, teacher wanted students to practice the skimming strategy on the text about news. The texts were chosen especially for they have visuals and contextual clues help to guess the topic. Students utilized the strategy.

Teacher took notes on her diary while students were dealing with the text. Most of the students used the strategy truly as they use in their native language, too.

Student 3: In fact, I know how to find main idea in Turkish texts, but I don't use in English texts. From now on, I will use.

The interview comments about what the skimming strategy is as to guess from the titles or visuals the text or the general idea, to read fast, not to read all the sentences to

get the message. They comment that it is used to find the message or general idea in a faster way. The participants realized that through the use of skimming technique they did not need to know the meaning of all the words in a text in order to get the main idea. As they thought that it did not take too much time, they employed skimming easily. They mentioned that they would use in reading in English lessons anymore. Some examples are as follows:

Student 14: We have the idea what it is about before reading and helps us to improve both our guessing power and visual memory. It is an easy strategy to employ.

Student 12: It will be useful especially in the exams against time and if we use often, we may acquire it as a habit.

Student 17: It helps us to wear our brains out more, we might drive faster in learning.

This comment approves the idea that students start to be aware of their metacognition like their brain cars.

In the third week, the teacher wanted to take their attention to the "scanning strategy" with questions from their lives. She asked how they could decide to choose a movie to watch. Students answered that they look to the cast or topic, or the director. Then, the teacher asked how they could get a general idea of film. They agreed that they could watch trailers or read summary. Then teacher asked them 'What might be scanning? What may be the difference between scanning and skimming?'

The teacher observed that students eagerly answered the questions and gave examples:

Student 23: If skimming is to get general idea, then scanning is to look for details like in your example. The actors, directors, place are details in a movie. Scanning is also looking for something.

Student 24: *I am a football addict and follow all the matches of my favourite team. When I want to learn about it, I look especially for its league fixture and score table. Then, am I scanning?*

After they gave some other examples as lesson programs, menus and content pages altogether with the researcher, Teacher modelled the strategy on the text in course book about announcements on school notice board as mentioned previously in lesson plan. She completed the activity calling for specific details via scanning.

She took notes that students also tried to find the details themselves during her modeling process.

Next lesson, the teacher asked some questions and showed a video about the text as warm-up activity. Then, students practiced the strategy on the text in their course books. There is a program schedule and a passage about a school trip to London. The text is suitable for both skimming and scanning as there are many details, specific information to focus on. The activities lead students to scan the details such numbers or vocabulary which will be the answer to the questions. Students answered the activities very fast by just focusing on details. Then the teacher made interviews with several students and the general comments are as follows:

Student 20: This strategy help me to find what I look for in a fast way. We didn't read all the text, instead we scanned the numbers and some words. Normally, we used to read the whole text, so I generally couldn't catch the class. I will use, anymore.

Student 13: As I read the whole text, I got confused till the end in a long time. However, this time I found the answers to the activities easily.

There are some students who had difficulty in using this strategy.

Student 16: I liked the strategy, but I had difficulty in finding numbers at first. I hope I won't forget this strategy.

The teacher confirmed the student and stated that she should practice more not to forget. So, the teacher gave some extra activities and checked later.

In the fourth week, they were introduced to K-W-L strategy. Before modelling the strategy, teacher wanted students to be motivated to follow the reading. So, she planned to present the strategy with a familiar topic for the students. She asked warm-up questions to lead them to say Istanbul. They were really interested in the topic, the most mentioned city became Istanbul as planned. Teacher wanted students to brainstorm about Istanbul in that what they know or don't know, what they are curious about to learn.

The teacher divided the board into three parts and wrote K, W, L and what they stand for as What Do you Know, What Do You Want to learn and What did you Learn respectively. Students and the teacher together filled the K and W columns together. The students brainstormed what they knew and wanted to learn about Istanbul. Also, this strategy motivated learners to study cooperatively. Then they watched a video and blog about Istanbul together and completed the last column L.

Next lesson, teacher asked some questions again to prepare the students to the topic 'Heroes' and to activate their known schema. Also, they would be able to remember the previously practiced strategies skimming, scanning. They opened the text on their course books as the teacher leaded them. The students all followed the same steps in modelling to the text. She took notes and wrote her observations. The lesson went on as planned. Teacher went around and helped the students who could not fill in the chart, because they even did not know the people names in the text. They felt a bit nervous, but the teacher intervened to this problem and motivated them this would be better for them as they would learn cultural information.

The text for the modelling was an expository text which includes such detailed information as dates, numbers, cultures, foods, places, buildings' histories. Therefore, K-W-L strategy could be employed accordingly. Similarly, the practice text in the second lesson was a good choice as it also presented people, cities and different contributions of people. However, the limited 40 minutes time for writing before, during and after reading while analyzing the text was not enough. The text was a bit long to deal in details.

The students were more attentive about having a purpose for reading and its significance for reading. They filled in the chart in their hand-outs (See Appendix 5).

The students gave positive feedback in interviews.

Student 15: I felt happy when I looked at my chart, because I have learned much information. My cultural knowledge has increased.

Student 11: K-W-L helped me to think about and write what I know and want to learn before reading, what I learned after reading. As I knew what to focus on, I could catch

the necessary knowledge easily. Also, after I filled in the first two columns, I got excited whether I knew truly and would learn.

Student 25: It is an interesting technique to compose information. I want to use, but I need to have longer time.

The researcher explained to all students that they would become faster as they practiced.

In the fifth week, "visualization strategy" was implemented to the lessons. The teacher asked some questions to make students aware of the visuals around and their brain televisions. Students answered that there are many eye-catching visuals like advertisements on televisions, on the internet or around everywhere. They mostly like watching televisions or play games online .They said that 'We do not generally understand how fast time passes, as if it was flying. We sit for hours'. When the teacher asked: 'Why do you think experts say that you should not watch anything while eating?'

Student 19: We may not realize how much we eat while watching. It is not heathy.

Then teacher explained as follows.

Teacher: Your brain is off because televisions or computers give you the all visuals. Think about reading texts without visuals. You need to turn on your brain TVs

Student 22: We don't need to turn on our brains. I don't want to be tired. We only want to watch TV.

Teacher: Of course, you just leave behind everything and watch without any purpose. However, think about your books. You need to understand the text and do some activities. Otherwise, when you don't understand you feel more tired. Don't you? Your brain TV helps you picturize, dream, describe and take photos in your mind.

Then teacher read the descriptive paragraph and drew a boy thinking the boy in the text. Furthermore, the teacher drew the celebration day as described. Some students laughed as the boy was not well-drawn, even some students helped. Teacher emphasized that they may draw as they want because how they draw is not important. They identified the boy with a famous movie character 'Ishaan' in terms of some

specialities. Teacher and students together mentioned that she read, thought aloud and draw what image come to her mind.

Teacher: I see this image in my brain TV. As you see, my drawing is bad, but I've tried to give the outline, feeling or message. We should turn on our brain TVs while reading. For example, when you draw a smiling or sad smiley, you get their messages. Also, the drawings may be different from each other. Everyone see different shapes, visuals.

Next lesson, they were asked some pre reading questions mentioned in lesson plan to be prepared for the topic. They were informed that they would learn about a true story of a dog. Teacher handed out the stories and gave the meanings of possible unknown vocabulary on the board. Firstly, the teacher read the story with a relaxing music and then they individually read. Teacher helped some students who had difficulty in understanding the sentences. Then, the students started to draw after reading.

The teacher walked around the class and saw that students generally draw the whole story. She reminded them they could draw anything related to the story. This strategy was the most enjoyed one among the other strategies during the training. Students shared their drawings with each other (See Appendix 6). The following utterances support this:

Student 21: I generally don't want to read a text without visuals. This time, I enjoyed so much although there wasn't any picture. Also, I don't have to try to draw beautiful drawings, so it is easy for me. Telling about is more important than drawings.

Student 5: Before, I used in Turkish texts, not in English texts. From now on, I want to use, because I understand the story better.

Student 14: I may reflect my feelings and thoughts, this is really good for me. I have also a dog named 'Poyraz'. I hope he will wait for me.

Student 15: It means picturizing in mind and then transferring to papers. As I imagined and drew, the story became more permanent for me.

In the sixth week, "think aloud strategy" was integrated to the lesson. The teacher started lesson with questions to have an idea about the strategy as monitoring their reading themselves. The students thought about whether they are active during reading

process by rereading, summarizing, asking questions, making connections. The common comment that most of the students was that they don't necessarily try to be active. They just went on reading. Then, the teacher asked them to show an example think aloud process to the students, so she wanted learners to open the text in their books (See Appendix 7). In Miss Marple story, they tried to comment on visuals as follows:

Student 7: As there is a magnifier, this text is related to a detective story. The old woman in the text may be a doctor or a rich woman because of her appearance. She may have some problems and tell her story.

Student 8: Maybe she is a witness of a crime. Also, she looks like my grandmother. She must like gossiping.

Student 23: I love Agatha Christie books. I wanted to learn which story it was.

Here, the students utilized skimming strategy while trying to get a general idea of the text.

Then teacher modelled the think aloud while reading. She used I statements and stopped time to time to make connections, to infer or question. Students also tried to verbalize their thoughts.

Next lesson, the teacher gave the text 'My Life without Money' and they tried to guess the topic looking at visuals (skimming strategy). They practiced the strategy while verbalizing and sharing their thoughts. Generally, the students stated that they had the chance to see whether they understood or not. They were able to monitor their strengths and weaknesses during reading. They found this strategy more like a dialogue with the text and themselves. The following utterances demonstrate that they adopted and used the think aloud strategy:

Student 9: Some questions come to our minds necessarily, but we are not aware of them. I will be more careful anymore and consider about them. By asking questions, I feel that I comprehend better.

Student 10: It is like you are talking to someone. It makes you understand better. I haven't used before, but I want to try.

Student 13: Thinking aloud is to ask what comes to our minds while reading. If we ask and find answers, we may learn more things in a text.

In the seventh week, "annotating strategy" was planned to be presented. The teacher hanged up colorful papers on which there were some symbols. She explained that the symbols would be used in appropriate points in a text according to their meanings. She brought out some colorful post-its to take notes, too. She opened the text on the smart board from their books and students followed. The teacher looked at the title and visuals, then guessed the topic. "Think aloud" and "skimming" strategies were employed. While she was using the symbols on the text, students followed and sometimes helped her choose possible symbols to put.

There came some questions about the text, they wrote down and they tried to find answers together. Both the teacher and students personalized the information and gave examples from their near environment. For example, it is hot in Antalya in Mediterranean Region, even in winter it is warm. So, they don't need to buy thick clothes unlike in Havza, Samsun. Also, they internalized and gave names as examples coming from different cities. Therefore, think aloud strategy was repeated and strengthened. While doing the activities, the symbols and notes were used. After the text finished, the symbols remained on the board to be used next lesson. Later, the symbols were hanged up on the bulletin board permanently so that students could see and personalize their uses. In the second lesson, students practiced the strategy on a text about etiquette rules around the world for travellers in their course books. They used symbols and took notes on colorful post-its. They paid attention not to use symbols randomly, rather they need to justify accordingly. In this process, the teacher checked the students' implementation and make some readers question themselves in choosing some symbols. After they finished, they shared their ideas altogether with their reasons. The teacher copied their texts and notes to check the students' use of annotating strategy. Some of them are given as examples (See Appendix 8). Students questioned, clarified, summarized or made connections in their notes on post-it as follows:

Student 4: Why do Japanese people lean forward while greeting? In Middle or Far East, why shouldn't people show their feet?

Student 11: Every country has its own traditions and views. They all preserve their own culture and respect to each other's culture.

Students narrated positive feedbacks in the interviews:

Student 13: This strategy is to understand a text by using symbols and taking notes. In a way, we talked with the text through symbols.

Student 2: Sometimes I get tired of reading and get bored. If I try to use these symbols, I may be more focused and alert.

Student 24: When I come back to the text, I may easily remember from the symbols and notes. It is easy and enjoyable to use in the texts.

Student 20: I used this strategy easily, because while I am solving questions, I study. Before training, I just mark the whole sentence; but now I know that I circle only the unknown word. If I get confused and don't understand I put '?'.

The slightly negative comment is about time:

Student 19: It is not difficult, but it takes time. I need to think which symbols to use and what to write down. On the other hand, the reading activities might be filled shorter thanks to the notes, symbols.

Student 17: If there isn't time limit, then I may use.

In the eight week, students learned "reciprocal reading strategy" use in groups. As there were four roles in this strategy, the teacher started introducing the four strategy roles using role card papers. She wrote the names of the roles as clarifier, questioner, predictor and summarizer on the board and elicited what they mght in a group reading. The teacher asked four volunteers for each role one by one. Then she started modelling with the help of four volunteer students for their roles. The teacher opened the text on board and started to carry out the actions belonging to four roles. They even helped the other. It continued till the end as exemplified in lesson plan. The most active ones were questioner and the most passive students were summarizer.

Next lesson, the teacher divided the students into groups of four students randomly and students drew lots for their role cards in each group (See Appendix 9). Each group came together with their own group and the teacher told them that they would read individually. While reading, they dealt with the text according to their roles and took help from the role cards. In the end, they discussed their answers for the texts.

This strategy enable learners to cooperate with each other and succeed together as a group. They are responsible for the group comprehension. Some of the comments of the students in the interviews are:

Student 22: As it is a group work, I was excited to start and feel more self-confident. I don't always understand the text myself, because I am not good at reading. In group, my friends encouraged me to think and tell some comments.

Student 16: If the group numbers are willing to read and utilize the strategy, then I will be a member of a group.

Student 5: It takes time to learn the roles and employ as groups, but I sometimes want to use to change the usual flow of reading.

Student 19: It comes interesting to me. I haven't implemented this strategy before, but now I want to use. I think this strategy is done not only in groups, but as a whole class as one group.

In the ninth week, the teacher integrated "self-assessment strategy" with aim of teaching learners monitor and regulate their own learning or reading. When the teacher asked students how they knew that they understood, the answers were product oriented rather than process oriented. The teacher stated the importance of monitoring their reading process in order to be aware of their weaknesses and strengths. Self-assessment strategy encompasses several strategies at the same time as they studied previously, so the teacher elicited possible strategies used in pre, while and after reading process. Students came to the board and wrote what they remembered about the use of strategies as detailed in lesson plan. Then they created their own symbols to use altogether as they did in annotating strategy. She started modelling, displayed the text about octopus on the board and the students followed closely. She predicted the topic form the title, used symbols for confusing, surprising, new information, thought aloud and guessed the new vocabulary through the context. She divided the board into three parts and summarized what she did on the chart (Details in modeling were given

in lesson plan). While filling the chart, students also reminded her the process. They felt more confident as they helped and leaded the teacher to fill the chart.

Next lesson, the teacher prepared the students for the text with some warm-up questions and aroused curiosity. Then the teacher handed out the text and the self-assessment template behind the paper. The students practiced and followed the actions in modelling session on the text about a burglar cat 'Dennis'. The teacher interviewed with 10 students and their responses reveal that they employed the self- assessment strategy easily. The reason for this may come from the fact that they already have practiced the other strategies before, they just revise them and they use some pretty symbols they designated. This may mean that they are responsible for their own reading, so they feel more competent. Their self-assessment templates will be given as examples (See Appendix 10).

Student 21: This strategy is like a summary of the previous strategies. If we didn't know the other strategies, we couldn't do this strategy.

The teacher noted down that the order of the strategies should be like this from simpler ones to more complex ones.

Student 6: I liked this strategy because I myself feel like a teacher and check my own reading. Also, I loved Dennis, because, it reminded me of my dead cat. They both looked alike and were witty.

One possible reason for this comment might have been due to the fact that if students internalize the topic, they may be highly motivated to read. So, teachers should pay attribution to students' interests, choose and use materials according to their needs. If they are to use some specific texts according to syllabus, then EFL teachers should make some necessary changes, use adaptation techniques in the text in order to attain their predetermined objectives. Additionally, they may add warm up activites, personal questions to make the text more interesting and challenging for the students. According to some students' responses, this strategy was a bit difficult to employ in texts regularly. This personal views may be backed up as follows:

Student 9: I got bored while trying to find what are my strengths or weaknesses. It came confusing to me. I couldn't think all the strategies altogether.

Student 4: I may not use this strategy if it is not necessary. I struggled in order to find and write my reading process feedbacks. It is like the father of all the strategies, but if I deal with the texts like this, there will be hell to pay.

The reason for this relatively negative response may come from the fact that the students are getting accustomed to strategies recently and they need time to gain the strategies as habits. Also, this strategy encompasses the others, so the students need to be alert and in their mood to read willingly.

In the tenth week, as the training of all planned strategies finished, the teacher wanted to revise all metacognitive strategies together and provide students with opportunities to select and use whichever strategies they wanted to employ. The students were asked to open the reading text on their books 'Murder on the Orient Express'. While they were employing the strategies, the teacher walked around the class. The teacher asked them to think the strategies, which ones they appreciated and which ones they didn't want to use with their reasons. When they finished, they read aloud the text together and expressed their preferred strategies and explained why they chose with their reasons (See Appendix 11). Teacher observed that all students used at least three basic strategies to the text. The text was chosen on purpose so that at least three or four strategies could be employed. Next lesson, students were given the survey for the second time to see the impacts of the training on their reported perceptions and awareness of metacognitive reading strategies. Again, the students were reminded of choosing honestly for their own sake. Then, the teacher interviewed all the students this time in order to see the effects of strategy training program on all the students. The comments were noted down and were given altogether with sample views. Regarding the comments, nearly all the students used are skimming, scanning, annotating and visualizing. Some students also preferred "think aloud strategy". The least preferred strategies are K-W-L, self-assessment, reciprocal ones. The common points that the students touched through the interviews are given as follows:

Student 17: I liked mostly the symbols. I will use them in texts, because it makes me attentive to focus on details and general message. I may use skimming and scanning without any effort. They enable me to have the text purpose on my mind and find details faster. According to me, K-W-L and self-assessment are a bit tiring, so I need to have a longer time to try them.

Student 8: I tried visualization, annotating, skimming and scanning in the text. I liked mostly visualization technique, because I love drawing and it makes me imagine more about the text. So, I need to read the details to draw. I already do skimming and scanning in other times. I think, I may not find enough time to use K-W-L strategy. It may be boring. Also, this text is not so suitable to utilize.

Student 24: I directly started using symbols as it is the easiest of the other strategies. Skimming and scanning strategies are also easier ones. I generally think aloud while reading, but I don't do it consciously. I don't think I will utilize K-W-L and selfassessment strategies. I know, they are in fact very useful, but they take time to use and assess.

The interviews also supported the findings of the post test that the reading program had positive effects on students' metacognitive awareness. After the training finished, the teacher sometimes checked their strategy use during the lesson time. In order to see the effect objectively as time passed, the teacher planned a revision and control week to employ the strategies after 3 months in spring term.

In the revision week, the teacher chose a text in their workbooks 'The Case of Disappearing Paintings' as it is suitable to try all the strategies. They worked individually and used some strategies in the first lesson and wrote them on a page in order to share with the teacher and peers. Next lesson, the teacher and the students read the text together and interfered via reading strategies. Volunteer students stated their ideas and preferences of the strategies. The teacher noticed that although all strategies were mentioned, some of them were used more frequently. Then, the teacher interviewed with ten students. Some of their notes are given (See Appendix 12).

Student 3: I find the text enjoyable and I pictured the event. I used the symbols and took notes inevitably. I also started with skimming strategy to predict the topic.

Student 25: I realized that I remember the skimming and scanning strategies directly. *Also, I underline, circle, put '?' or '!' during reading.*

Student 20: I started with guessing the content and then I looked for some specific details in order to understand where and when the crime happened.

CHAPTER FIVE

V. CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

Although a considerable amount of research has been carried out to investigate metacognition in EFL/ESL contexts, few have dealt with the students' metacognitive awareness over reading strategies in regular classrooms. Scant attention has been paid to research on the investigation of integrated metacognitive reading strategies in EFL high schools. Therefore, the aim of this study is to uncover the effects of a reading program on metacognitive awareness of Turkish 10th grade EFL students. The findings of each research question are briefly presented in the following order:

The first research question investigated whether there was any significant difference in global reading strategies between pre and posttest. The quantitative data analysis of Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon W Signed test revealed that a significant difference was found in the preferences of overall global reading strategies as p value is below 0, 05. The mean rank increased from 14, 42 to 36, 58. For all 13 items of global reading strategies, the mean values increase after the strategy program. It is revealed that 9 of 13 items were reported low level of usage before training whereas just 2 items stayed in low level (2, 4 or lower) and 8 of 13 were in high level (3,5 or higher). The result eliminated from the this research question overtly points out that strategy training treatment has improved students' reported use of global metacognitive reading strategies. The certain statements preferred highly are items 10 and 26 which are related to skimming and guessing. Their mean changed as 4, 20 and 4, 16 from 2, 76 and 2, 40. This indicates that their perceptions of getting a general idea and trying to guess about the text have changed positively. In her research, Solmaz (2014) confirmed that guessing is highly employed by readers. The most outstanding increase happened in item 1 with mean 3, 72 from 1, 72. The item 1 calls for having a purpose while reading and the dramatic increase suggests that students are more aware of bearing reading aims in their minds. As standart deviation decreases, the students' answers meet more on the perceptions of the statement. Zang (2009) also discovered having purpose on mind was approached highly positive after explicit strategy training.

Regarding interview responses; having purpose on mind, skimming and guessing strategies were almost utilized for each texts without much effort. Also, the findings of intervivew comments support these strategies were mostly consulted ones.

The second research question explored the effect of the strategy training on problemsolving reading strategies. Depending on the research results, as the value Asym. Sig is p < 0, 5, there is a significant difference between pre and post scales. The mean rank is 35, 56 increasing from 15, 44. As results indicate, 4 (%50) of the 8 problem solving strategies reported by the students fell in the high usage and 4 (%50) belonged to the medium usage category of mean. After the scale was administered again following strategy training, none of the statements fell in the low usage whereas none of the statements fell in high usage before the training. These results reinforced the idea that students insights towards conscious and reformative efforts to fix comprehension problems boosted. The results gave credence to other studies that found problem solving strategies as exerted mostly by language readers (Genç, 2011; Goldsmith & Tran, 2012). Furthermore, each item showed a great increase after the training. The most outstanding increase happens in item 21 "I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read" with a change from (M: 2, 16, SD: 1, 14) lower usage to (M: 4, 48, SD: 0, 71) higher usage. As standard deviation decreases from 1, 14 to 0, 71, students' perceptions meet more homogeneously in an increasing manner. Similarly, Tuncel (2014) and Anderson (1991) marked the salient increase in visualization strategy between pretest and posttest. The items 11, 26 and 18 related to concentrate on the texts for better understanding were highly preferred after the training.

Interviewees echoed with the quantitative findings in their responses to the questions for each item. Especially, they all stated that visualization strategy attracted their attention as it made reading more enjoyable and memorable. Moreover, as they remembered the content better, they didn't have difficulties in comprehension exercises. Nearly all students agreed that it was better to access their understanding and talking aloud their ideas during reading. This implies that they welcomed especially think aloud and self-assessment strategies.

In the third research question, it was tried to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference in the support reading strategies between pre and posttest. The mean rank changed from 15, 02 to 35, 98 after training and also as the value Asym.

Sig p < 0, 5 indicates the significant difference, it may be commented that students embraced support reading strategies to respond to reading, too. As to findings, while none of the strategies were reported as high level usage and 6 (%67) of 9 support reading strategies were in the low usage range in the pretest, 7 (%78) items were in the medium usage with none in the low usage category in the posttest. Depending on the research results, students welcomed taking notes, circling or underlining more after the training as supported by Solmaz (2014) and Zhang (2009). Annotating strategy training may have positive effect in this finding. Item 6 and item 20 related to summarizing and paraphrasing strategies increased from 1, 12 and 1, 40 to 2, 96 and 3, 36. This may stem from the reciprocal and think aloud strategy practice.

The fourth research question tried to reveal whether there existed any significant difference in the preferences of the most and the least used reading strategies of all three areas between pre and posttest. Before the training, the most reported strategies were items 4 (M=3, 16; SD=1,40) 8 (M=3, 44; SD=1, 32) and 9 (M=3,40; SD=1, 15) stating taking an overall view, reading slowly and discussing strategies in global, problem solving and support reading strategies respectively. These preferences may result from the fact that these strategies don't need explicit training and generally learners are accustomed to them from their native languages. On the other hand, after the training, the highest preferred strategies were items 10 (M=4, 20; SD=0, 95), 21 (M=4, 48; SD=0, 71) and 12 (M=3, 60; SD=1, 19) signifying skimming, visualizing and underlying or circling in global, problem solving and support reading strategies. Nearly all students stated in their interviews that they started to find skimming and annotating easy and practical to use. Furthermore, they added that they wouldn't approach the texts without visuals in a prejudiced manner. They could themselves imagine and visualize freely as they wanted. As far as the least preferred strategies were concerned, before training they were the items 7 (M=1, 16; SD=0, 47), 11 (M=1, 56; SD=0, 96) and 6 (M=1, 12; SD=0, 43) pointing thinking over reading purpose, trying to get back concentration and summarizing in global, problem solving and support reading strategies. As the participants responded, they read generally for only they had to in English lessons. They did not care why they read or what they would learn if they read. The only purpose in reading was to do exercises as they were expected to do by their teachers in lessons. Therefore, they didn't need to summarize. However after the traninig, the least preferred items became 22 (M=2, 24; SD=1, 23), 11 (M=2, 60; SD=1, 47) and 28 (M=2, 88; SD=0, 92) referring using typographical aids like bold face, italics for key information, trying to get back concentration and asking questions to be answered in the text on their own. Even if they were the least preferred ones, the means of these 3 items showed an increase. Trying to get back concentration and asking questions to be answered statements are related to reading purpose, so if students focus on reading purpose and have the opportunities to employ in EFL classroom praxis, they may resort to these strategies more consciously.

In the fifth research question, it is aimed to figure out gender effect in the preferences of the reading strategies. Depending on the research results, as Asymp. Sig is p>0, 00, it is clearly evident that there was no gender effect on the perceptions of metacognitive reading strategies. This finding is compatible with many similar studies examining the effects of gender on metacognitive reading strategies (Akman & Alagöz, 2018; Alyas, 2011; Bidjerano, 2005; Carr & Jessup, 1997; Friedman, 1989; Kasımi, 2012; Memnun & Akkaya, 2009; Niemivirta 1997; Özsoy & Günindi, 2011; Poole, 2005; Siswati & Corebima, 2017; Vianty, 2007).

The sixth research question aimed to reveal whether there was any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies as a whole between pre and posttest. Overall perceptions of using metacognitive reading strategies increased with reference to the statistics. The mean 65, 9200 with 15, 60961 standard deviation increased to mean 102,480 with 13, 24173 standard deviation. The mean increased while standart deviation decreased after the training which provides sufficient information about the overall positive tendency of the learners' reported strategy use. Findings signify that the total average use of reading strategies was moderate with 3, 40 mean whereas low usage with 2, 19 before the training. And as the standard deviation decreased from 1, 15 to 1, 05, the reading program had an effect on students' perceptions of metacognitive strategies. As far as the three categories of strategies were concerned, the learners showed medium level of usage of global strategies (M=3, 42, SD=0, 66), high level of problem solving strategies (M=3, 51, SD=0. 66) and medium level of usage support strategies (M= 3, 31, SD=0, 24) in the posttest and low level of usage of global strategies (M=2, 10, SD=0, 66), low level of problem solving strategies (M=2, 34, SD=0. 67) and medium level of usage support strategies (M= 2, 20, SD=0, 83) in the pretest. Problem solving strategies were preferred most, followed by global reading strategies and the least one support reading strategies. These findings corroborate with the many other studies (Hong- Nam, 2014; Cantrell & Carter, 2009; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Solak & Altay, 2014; Amer, Al Barwani & Ibrahim, 2010)

With reference to the findings from both quantitative and qualitative data, there occurs an increase in awareness of students, then it may be concluded that strategies are needed to be taught explicitly to EFL learners. The strategy training should be integrated into regular classroom teaching. Moreover, this study attempted to find out whether and how strategy training should be covered in regular English lessons in state schools. Data from pre/post scale, semi-structured interviews and researcher diary were used to investigate the impact the intervention on EFL high school learners. Results from three tools indicated that reading strategy instruction led to a significant increase in EFL students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies after 10 weeks of reading strategy instruction.

This research also turned readers' negative attitudes and insights towards reading to positive ones as they stated in their interviews and by the increased findings of the scale after the training. Diaz and Laguado (2013) also confirmed this remark in their study that the participants had negative attitudes when they read texts, however after they practiced with two techniques, the participants started reading actively and comprehending the texts.

All in all, the current study provided a strong ground for a substantial insight how EFL teachers integrate reading strategies in high school English lessons with the notion of metacognitive awareness. Overall, almost all the metacognitive strategies received support from the participants. The conclusions that may be drawn from the findings of this research is that EFL students are willing to evaluate and regulate their reading process while they need to be instructed and to practice more in a longer period.

5.2 Discussion

The first research question aimed at investigating whether there was any significant difference in global reading strategies between pre and posttest. As the mean ranks of pretest increased from 14, 42 to 36, 58 in posttest after the strategy training, it should be expressed that strategy training treatment has improved students perceiving of using global metacognitive reading strategies.

When the results of each item are assessed, it is seen that before the training 9(%69) of the 13 global strategies were in the low category usage whilst only 3(%23) of the strategies stay in the low usage category although their means increase after the training. In all statements, the mean values for all the statements increase after the strategy program.

Global Reading Strategies (GLOB) involve 13 items which are intentional, carefully planned techniques learners consult to follow or manage their reading. The global factor implies the global analysis of a text. They may be thought of as generalized or global reading strategies to set the stage for the reading act (e.g., setting a purpose for reading, predicting what the text is about, etc.) (Karbalaei, 2010).

The most graded item with a mean of 4, 20 was item 10 "I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization". The result shows that the participants get accustomed to run their eye to get information quickly and figure out the main idea. Before training, students generally used to start reading directly without controlling the organization or length. The next highest mean 4, 16 belonged to the item 26 "I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read". The use of this strategy indicates that the readers have a purpose for reading which will facilitate comprehension. Similarly, Solmaz (2014) revealed that students frequently stated they try to remember earlier topics to help to understand what they read. Admittedly, they have a tendency to make use of their own schemata and previous knowledge to absorb the text better by making associations and guesses. Moreover, the participants tend to have a general understanding of what they read.

The item 1 "I have a purpose in mind when I read" showed a salient increase as changing the mean rank from 1, 72 to 3, 72. This finding indicates that students' average mean changed from lower to higher one. It implies that students' capacity for planning changed increasingly and learners cared about more to prepare themselves for the texts before reading after the training. They identify and bear their reading purpose of the texts in their minds. This strategy leads students to be autonomous readers by helping them to use their time efficiently. The items 4 (M=3, 88) "I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it", 29 (M=3, 92) 'I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong' were preferred highly after the training. Zhang (2009) also reached the same highly preferred statements with Chinese

high school students. These strategies are related to each other and to the reading purpose, so it may imply that students tend to brainstorm and control the purpose of reading and predictions about the content. The possible explanation is that they are aware of the importance of purpose for reading so that they enhance reading as they know what they need to know and learn in a reading text. Furthermore, this strategy is related to "self-assessment" and "think aloud" metacognitive strategies as self-regulated students are able to produce better feedback internally or use the feedback they elicit to reach and check their desired goals (Butler & Winne, 1995).

The item 3 (M= 3,20; SD= 0,86) "I think about what I know to help me understand what I read" shows an increase and this means that students get general information about texts and understand what they are reading by trying to draw on their knowledge of the topic. Before the training the mean was 2, 28 and standard deviation is 1, 20. This finding shows that the students both are more aware of and close to each other's preferences as standard deviation is low. Also, "K-W-L" and "think aloud" strategies may be effective as students brainstorm about background knowledge and internalize the topics, so they know what helps them. They interrelate the texts and their personal lives. There is a great positive change in the responses to the item 17 'I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding' as the mean change from 1, 40 in low usage to 3, 80 in high usage category. The finding indicates that students begin to summarize, internalize what they read via tables, charts, graphics or pictures to remember or check their understanding of fictional or real informative content of the texts. "Scanning strategy" poses a great effect here as it calls for throwing a glance at all possible helpful aids. Similarly, the increase in item 19 (M=3,52) 'I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading' indicates that the readers tend to make use of context clues such as antonyms, synonyms, examples, picture clues to get better understanding over vocabulary, comprehend specifically or generally the texts. The frequency in preferring contextual clues to maximize comprehension is remarked by Zhang (2009), too. This assumed students' awareness of ongoing decision making to facilitate understanding the texts. The increase in the recognition of the item 25 "I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information" shows that students evaluated their ongoing understanding while noticing the conflicts or gaps among information in a text, this may indicate that they started using self-assessment strategy more. The increase in the responses to the item 14 "I decide what to read closely and what to ignore" is consistent with the study of Zhang (2009) and shows that students know what they want to need to learn and not to focus. "K-W-L strategy" effect may be seen as it enhances learners what they want to learn and have learned through texts.

On the other hand, the responses to 22 (M=2, 24) "I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information" increase slightly as compared to others. This may result from the issue that they ignore them or concentrate on other things. They do not try to find key information via typographical aids. Item 23 "I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text" was also prone to increase less. They are less prone to critically analyze and evaluate the information in the text. Also this strategy may require students to have a higher level and longer time to employ.

The second research question tried to identify if there was any significant difference in problem-solving reading strategies between pre and posttest. According to the findings; as the mean rank of problem-solving strategies increases to 35,56 in posttest from the mean rank of 15,44 in pretest, it should be expressed that strategy training treatment has improved students perceiving of using problem solving metacognitive reading strategies.

Problem-solving strategies comes to the stage in the need of repairing comprehension failure (Al-Dawaideh & Al-Saadi, 2013). The strategies used to overcome comprehension failure include slow and careful reading, reading rate control, reread and pause to reflect on the reading, and read aloud (Onovughe & Hannah, 2011). Namely, problem-solving strategies (8 items) comprise strategies which help readers to overcome difficulties that arise when a text is complicated. The most dramatic increase in the perceiving of the use happens in item 21 "I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read". The mean changes from 2, 16 in lower usage to 4, 48 in higher usage. As standard deviation decreases from 1, 14 to 0, 71, students' response homogeneously and employ more. Also, the similar increase was showcased in the study of Tuncel (2014) in visualization strategy between pretest and posttest. Anderson (1991) elicited similar result about the highly preferred visualization strategy. The responses indicate that students are willing to create mental

pictures, their own visual contexts through imagination after the training. This finding differs from the study of Madhumathi and Ghosh (2012) in that one of their students most frequently used strategy is visualization strategy with a mean 4, 02 without any training. One explanation for the difference probably comes from the levels between the two study's participants.

The participants' responses changed positively to the item 11 "I try to get back on track when I lose concentration" and item 27 "When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding". These two strategies appear when students might not comprehend or have difficulty in comprehending the texts effectively. The increase in the preferences of the students clearly indicates that the students' start to employ desired attention to the texts. The students focus more on the text, in order to understand the sequence of meaning through the text and to manage when their comprehension deteriorate. In addition, it may be expressed that "self-assessment strategy" appears as they may evaluate their learning process and recognize the weak points in their comprehension. However, in Course (2017) study, these two strategies and item 16 were the most preferred strategies with high usage average rather than in medium usage. The possible explanation for this finding is that students' levels and ages are different from each other. In Course (2017) study, the participants are university students and much more advanced readers. It may be stated that the higher the levels of students, the more they are competent in solving problems. The items 16 (M=3,04) 'When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading' and 18 (M= 3,68) "I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading" also were preferred more which shows that students tend to resolve problems more consciously and they monitor their own understanding of the texts. The responses increased to the items 8 "I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading" and 13 "I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading". The average usage of item 8 changed from medium usage to higher usage with 3, 44 to 4.16 and while item 13 from 2, 68 mean to 3, 36 remaining increasingly in medium usage. The findings point out that students themselves choose what to do at some circumstances, decide and adjust their reading speed accordingly. Item 30 "I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases" was exposed to a great increase as mean changed from 2, 36 in lower usage to 4, 96 to higher usage. Also standard

deviation decreased from 1, 38 to 0, 96. This decrease implies that students come to the point that as a whole class they become more aware of not to be dwelled on a word or an expression. Instead students try to use some contextual clues to guess unknown vocabulary rather than ignoring or getting the meaning through dictionaries or asking others.

The third research question tried to find out whether there happened any significant difference in support reading strategies between pre and posttest. With reference to findings; as the value Asym sig P< 0,5 and the increase in the mean ranks from 15,02 to 35,98, it may be indicated that the implementation of strategy training has enhanced students' perceiving of using support reading metacognitive reading strategies.

Support Reading strategies (9 items) involve basic practical strategies for better comprehension, such as underlining information, using a dictionary, and taking notes. Support Reading Strategies involve utilizing the support instruments or procedure aimed at conveying responsiveness to reading (e.g., use of reference materials like dictionaries and other support systems). The item 2 "I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read" was highly favored strategy after the training. It was ranked as 3, 36 in posttest whilst 1, 68 in pretest. In a similar vein, it is found out that students use pragmatic strategies like taking notes with a higher rate (Solmaz, 2014). This indicates that students support their deeper understanding through keeping notes and enhance their own summarizing or recalling the information in the texts easily. Also it is said when they evaluate the whole scale, students use these strategies while they are reading to their reading comprehension. Similarly, the item 12 "I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it" emerged with the small amount of change as it increased from 3, 32 mean to 3, 60. This finding reinforces that students internalize the annotating strategies like underlining, taking notes or using specific figures symbolically. The reason behind the slight difference may come from that students generally use the basic strategies like underlying and circling in their native language without much effort and high awareness of strategy use according to taking notes. Taking notes, however, requires readers to be more self-conscious and selfcompetent as they need to absorb and analyze the information to write down. This finding related to item 12 is in harmony with relevant previous studies of Solmaz (2014) and Zhang (2009), students responded with a high level that they underline with colored pencil or draw over them to remember or memorize easily without any training. Noticeably, based on the results of the responses, the items 5 (M= 1,92) "When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read", 6 (M= 1,12) "I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text", 20 (M= 1,40) "I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read" prospered after the training as 3,48, 2,96 and 3,36 mean respectively. This may be the result of especially thinking aloud strategy practice as it needs students to verbalize what they are thinking and their internal reflections before, during or after reading. Students become competent independent readers if they reflect their inner speech during reading process. Also, it may be added that "reciprocal strategy" practice has a positive effect here as it leads readers to summarize and clarify what they read. The two strategies 9 "I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding" and 15 "I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read" are among indicating the slight increase changing from 3,40 and 3,28 mean to 3,52 and 3,44 mean. The possible explanation for this is that they don't necessarily require conscious practice for texts. The responses to the items 24 "I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it" and 28 "I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text" change from negative recognition to positive in medium usage with 3, 24 and 2, 88 mean. The reason behind this may come from that they are not accustomed to do so before and this may take time to acquire as habits, because they need to do more practice and be more aware of their effectiveness. Also it may imply that students are flexible in choosing strategies.

The fourth research question aimed at investigating whether there was any significant difference in the preferences of the most and the least used reading strategies of all three areas between pre and posttest.

The mean scores of the most frequently perceived strategies in each category occurred with high usage (M \geq 3.50) after the training whilst with medium usage (2.5<M<3.40) before training. This finding means that students perceive the use of strategies stronger and the strategies attracted stronger approval from students altogether thanks to low standard deviations. The least frequently perceived strategies in each category received higher mean compared to pretest.

105

The most preferred strategy was Item 10 "I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization" in post score with 4,20 mean in global reading strategies whilst it was Item 4 "I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it" with 3,16 mean in pre score. It may come from the possibility that students are more aware of the strategy about how not to concentrate on details to get a general understanding of a text in a quicker way. The mean scores of the least frequently reported strategy was item 7 "I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose" before training whereas item 22 "I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information" was after the training. The least ones' mean changed from 1, 16 to 2, 20 which may imply that even if students preferred the least item 22, their mean increased and as standard deviation increased, the responses among the students ran from higher to lower ones more. Item 7 calls for caring about the reading purpose and students may not be aware of the reading purposes before the training. As they mentioned in their interviews, they only started reading because they had to read in class time. They didn't generally prefer approaching the texts with the aim of criticizing and commenting, rather they were accustomed to read straightly without concentrating other views. So, their only aim was to read and do the activities. After training, they may start to find the reading purposes in order to analyze and criticize the information in the texts. The responses to item 22 show that they are not so interested in typographical aids like bold face and italics, they may be busy with other specific strategies.

Among problem solving strategies, the most frequently reported strategy was item 21 "I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read" whilst it was item 8 "I read slowly, but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading". The result of the item 21 should be highlighted as the mean score increased from 2, 16 mean as low usage to 4, 48 mean as high usage. The result necessitates learners to be aware of strategies and utilize them. Before training, in order to understand and internalize, students mostly appeal to read slowly and carefully and try to focus on what they are reading as they do in their native language. The reason behind this may come from that students choose this unconsciously without metacognitive competence. After the training, it reveals that they adopt visualizing or picturing to remember easily what they read. They may use the visualization strategy both while

reading and after reading process. This may affirm that students enjoyed visualization strategy and try to use as much as possible. The least frequently reported item didn't change in this category and it was item 11 "I try to get back on track when I lose concentration". The mean increased from 1, 56 as low usage to 2, 60 as medium usage. This may mean that students aren't target-oriented, they may ignore the flow of reading or even they may not be aware of the flow of comprehension.

For support reading strategies, item 12 "I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it" with a mean 3, 60 in high usage became the most frequently reported strategy after the training. These students were similar to that of Solak and Altay (2014) as they also appeared to have the highest mean 4, 28 for item 12 among support reading strategies. This strategy is among the strategies the students are accustomed to use in their native language reading and easy to use without much effort. Before the training, the most frequently was found item 9 "I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding" with a mean 3, 40 in medium usage. This may result from the fact that they want to get help from each other or share their opinions. The important thing is that they really exchange their ideas and benefit from each other. In order a discussion to be an effective strategy, there should be competent readers to help. The least perceived strategy changed from item 6 "I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text" to item 28 " I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text". After the training the mean 1, 12 in low usage increased as 2, 88 in medium usage. This finding indicates that the students are more eager to summarize their reflections after the training. Think aloud strategy may affect their perceptions positively. Although Item 28 is the least reported strategy, its' mean is not low. Students may improve their questioning in time. This strategy is again related to the reading goal as it ask learners which answers to learn and how to analyze critically. With this result, it is seen more clearly that students generally avoid or ignore brainstorming about the aims of reading and evaluating reading.

The fifth research question investigated whether there happened any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies in terms of gender variable between pretest and posttest. Based on the research findings, it is detected that there is no difference between female and male students. This finding of current study is consistent with previous researchers Poole (2005) and Kasımi (2012). They put

forward that gender is not determinant in defining the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. The findings of Hsu (2007) were also in consistent with the results of the present study. He found no significant difference between male and female students in terms of overall strategy use. However, the non-influential role of gender in the present study contradict with some other studies. For example, it was found out that females used metacognitive strategies more often than males (Lee, 2012; Arrastia, Zayed & Elnagar, 2016; Li (2010).

When the findings in literature were examined, there is abundance in the research related to the effect of gender on metacognitive skills. Most studies agreed the similar conclusion with current study that there was not a significant difference in preference of metacognitive skills between male and female students (Niemivirta, 1997; Carr & Jessup, 1997; Bidjerano, 2005; Memnun & Akkaya, 2009; Akman & Alagöz, 2018; Friedman, 1989; Özsoy & Günindi, 2011; Vianty, 2007; Siswati & Corebima, 2017; Alyas, 2011)

The sixth research question aimed at finding out if there was any significant difference in the preferences of the strategies as a whole between pre and posttest. As pointed out in findings, the students indicated that their preference of each category was accelerated after the implementation reading program and was revealed that the total average use of reading strategies was moderate as they employed overall strategies with a mean as (3,40) in medium usage after the training whilst in (2,19) low usage before the training. Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) also figured out their elementary school students' awareness as medium usage. There is another study of Course (2017) in which ELT students' overall use of reading strategies was high.

There existed an increase in the awareness of the strategies as a whole after the program. All in all, the mean of the three subscale categories were 3, 42, 3, 51, and 3.31 for global reading strategies, problem-solving strategies and support reading strategies, respectively after the training. Students employed the problem solving strategies the most and they least preferred to use support reading strategies. These students were similar to that of Hong- Nam (2014) in that responses to MARSI. High school students reported moderate use of reading strategies overall. Problem-solving strategies and Support Reading strategies. These results were consistent with some studies that

assessed metacognitive reading strategy perceptions. In a similar path, Ghosh (2012) and Li (2010) found out in his study the most preferred category as problem solving strategies whereas the least one was global strategies. These findings are in line with previous study of Cantrell and Carter (2009) as students reported using problem solving strategies most often of the three types of reading strategies. The students reported using global reading strategies less often and support reading strategies the least of the three strategy types. Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) assessed that problem-solving strategies were most commonly used, followed by global reading strategies, and finally support reading strategies. Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012), Solak and Altay (2014), Amer, Al Barwani and Ibrahim (2010) followed the similar path that the total average use of reading strategies fell under a high usage level, and the primary preference was problem-solving, followed by global and support strategies. However, as put forward by Tuncel (2014), the preference for the categories may change that the participants mostly employed support reading, global reading and problem solving strategies respectively.

The overall reported use of strategies' increase from 2, 19 average mean to 3, 40 confirm that that the training enables students outperform in posttest. Also as the standard deviation for the overall mean decreases from the 1, 15 to 1, 04, students accept the strategies more commonly. Razı (2010) also reached the similar conclusion that a reading strategy program had positive effects on metacognitive awareness of students and so their preferences of the strategies increased. Course (2017) also found out ELT students' overall use of reading strategies was high.

Reading strategies training participate in cultivating metacognitive awareness. The developments observed in the students' reported preference of the strategies might be related to the students' experiential understanding and in-class practice of metacognitive reading strategies.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Implications

According to the instructional models of strategy training, teachers should explain the strategy and then model it for the learners. Then learners are provided with ample practises. The description of the strategy should involve when, where, and how to use the strategy according to the texts. Also the teacher may remodel the strategy if it is

needed (Çubukçu, 2009; Duffy, 1993; Kuhn, 2000; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Paris & Jacobs, 1984). Hence, reading teachers should combine declarative knowledge involving the description of the strategies and procedural knowledge involving the ways to use the strategies, and conditional knowledge involving the most practical time of the strategy (Duffy, 1993). Learners need to be exposed to a training programme, otherwise they generally do not intend to use different kinds of learning strategies automatically (Bialystok, 1981). Students should certainly be taught strategic reading skills. They should be instructed about how to approach a text and behave before, during and after reading. Students should be informed about preparing a plan before any reading activity, how to prepare a monitoring plan during the reading activity and how to prepare an evaluation plan after the reading activity. Literature on reading strategy training indicates that strategy use may be compiled (Kern, 1989), the mastery of the strategies take time. Readers should spend time in reading various texts and revise their strategies again and again while monitoring their comprehension. As attaining competence calls for time in real life, such a long time period is necessary in teaching metacognitive reading strategies (Razı, 2010).

EFL teachers should organize lessons around pre, while and after reading parts and must help students think critically and creatively. Teachers should help their students plan for reading, engage in active reading, and discuss with others to probe comprehension more. According to Rubin (1975), the good language learner knows how to understand the messages or to monitor their reading. They know how to interact with texts rather than focusing on the surface of language. Our abilities in this area often determine what we will be able to do and become in life. Threads of reading must be solidly woven into classrooms and students. Metacognition makes classrooms proceed smoother (Tankersley, 2003)

What it is suggested is that English teachers should become an encouraging model while instructing strategies and should act as more of a facilitator to lead the students to be metacognitively aware of reading process by creating opportunities to embrace strategies. It is highly recommended that the notion of metacognitive awareness should be included in English Language Teaching Departments at universities so that prospective teachers be well-prepared for classes. As metacognition means thinking reflectively and regulating learning itself, both EFL teachers and students benefit from it and embrace in all language areas favourably. Furthermore, as metacognitive awareness has undeniable positive effect not only language learning but in all areas of learning, all Educational Sciences Departments at universities should include metacognition in their curriculum.

Classroom action research is a way of systematically scrutinizing teaching to regulate their current ways of teaching and gain new insights. Also, it may provide a refreshed sense of excitement about teaching (Mettetall, 2002). The reading program was integrated to the English lessons, as it is a practical and effective approach. Integrated strategy training involves both modelling and presenting specific language points (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). The result of this study may be a clue and an example for English teachers to refresh their teaching methods in English reading processes and to establish an optimum language learning environment. Karbalei (2011) points out that EFL syllabus must be designated well enough to incorporate practices centered on language learning strategies. Students should be encouraged for their strategy development in any language skill. EFL teachers should be involved actively in learning and teaching new strategies. Yaman and Çakıcı (2013) support that language learning strategies should be integrated into regular EFL classes. The possible difficulties like unwillingness of the students or limited time may be overcome by properly prepared lesson plans while organizing the variables like time, strategy types or student background. They may improve their teaching ways through observing the students. If students change, teachers also change positively. When the strategies are taught directly and the students understand their significance, the ways to use and to transfer to similar situations or tasks, then, training shoud be weaved into class activities or games accordingly (Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989). Rubin (1975) claim that good language learners gain insight to identify and overcome their learning difficulties. Students should also take responsibility for their own learning. Teacher, as a strategy trainer, functions as a vehicle in helping students to be aware of how they learn and boost their learning experiences. Also, teachers may begin to evaluate their own strong and weak strategy uses, preferences, teaching methods. Language teachers are to involve a wide array of strategies in their teaching, especially in reading rather than concentrating on their own preferred strategies. Throught the strategy training and from the findings of researcher diary and interviews, it may be concluded that after the students learn and feel competent to use reading strategies, they may employ them

more willingly. The reading materials as well as the strategies should be selected according to students' interests. Readings should be learner centered. At least, they must be prepared to the texts which have to be read in class time. Being prepared for reading texts calls for the capability of planning, monitoring and regulating reading process. As metacognitive awareness provide learners with insights over what is needed, what is to be done or what is achieved, it is crucial in reading in order to manage comprehension.

As put forward by Rios Olaya and Valcárcel Goyeneche (2005), with better planning and design of reading materials, there will be greater results in the English language learning process. Other language skills may be developed from efficient reading as it reinforces vocabulary, grammar, spoken language or cultural knowledge while fostering such values as responsibility, autonomy, self-regulation or self-competence. The reading process is fulfilled better when the readers have specific reading intentions or purposes; thus, reading becomes a meaningful action.

5.3.2 Recommendations for Further Studies

Grounded on the results of the present study, the following suggestions for further research are made:

- 1. Further research should be carried out with more students' groups from different proficiency levels. The implementation results may be compared among each other.
- 2. Strategy training may be integrated into the regular English lessons and scatterred through the year.
- 3. Further studies might be conducted to find out the relationship between the success through comprehension tests or activities and metacognitive awareness.
- 4. The relationship between different types of intelligences and metacognitive reading strategies may be handled.

REFERENCES

- Aarnoutse, C., & Schellings, G. (2003). Learning reading strategies by triggering reading motivation. *Educational Studies*, 29(4), 387-409.
- Adams, M.J. (1990). Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Afflerbach, P., Pearson, P. D., & Paris, S. G. (2008). Clarifying differences between reading skills and reading strategies. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*, 364–373.
- Akman, Ö., & Alagöz, B. (2018). Relation between metacognitive awareness and participation to class discussion of university students. Universal Journal of Educational Research, 6(1), 11-24.
- Al-Dawaideh, A. M., & Al-Saadi, I. A. (2013). Assessing metacognitive awareness of reading strategy use for students from the faculty of education at the University of King Abdulaziz. *Meviana International Journal of Education*, *3*, 223-235.
- Alderson, J. C. (2000). Assessing reading. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press
- Alexander, P. A., & Jetton, T. L. (2000). Learning from text: A multidimensional and developmental perspective. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds), Handbook of Reading Research, 3, 285–310. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum
- Alhaqbani, A., & Riazi, M. (2012). Metacognitive awareness of reading strategy use in Arabic as a second language. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 24(2), 231-255.
- Alyas, A. (2011). Metacognitive strategies to foster learner autonomy in EFL reading. Published Master's Thesis, Hacettepe University/Institute of Educational sciences, Ankara.
- Amer, A., Al Barwani, T., & Ibrahim, M. (2010). Student teachers' perceived use of Online reading strategies. *International Journal of Education and Development* using ICT, 6 (4), 102-113.
- Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. Journal of Educational Psychology, 84(3), 261.
- Anastasiou, D., & Griva, E. (2009). Awareness of reading strategy use and reading Comprehension among poor readers. *Elementary Education Online*, 8(2),281-297
- Anderson, N. J. (1991). Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading and testing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(4), 460-472.
- Anderson, N. J. (2002). The role of metacognition in second/foreign language teaching and learning. *ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics*, 1(10), 1-5.
- Antoniou, F., & Souvignier, E. (2007). Strategy instruction in reading comprehension: An intervention study for students with learning disabilities. Learning Disabilities: A Contemporary Journal, 5(1), 41-57.
- Arrastia, M. C., Zayed, A. M., & Elnagar, H. Z. (2016). Metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) preservice teachers: An exploration of gender and developmental differences. *International Research in Higher Education*, 1(2), 46-57.
- Auerbach, E., & Paxton, D. (1997). It's not the English thing: Bringing reading research into the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 237–261.

- Barnett, M. A. (1988) Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects 12 comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(2), 150-162.
- Barnett, M. A. (1989). More than meets the eye: Foreign language reading. Language and education: Theory and practice. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED321555.pdf.
- Baumann, J. F.; Jones, L.A.; Seifert-Kessell, N. (1993). Using think alouds to enhance children's comprehension monitoring abilities. *The Reading Teacher*, 47 (3), 184-193.
- Baydık, B. (2011). Okuma güçlüğü olan öğrencilerin üstbilişsel okuma stratejilerini kullanımı ve öğretmenlerinin okuduğunu anlama öğretim uygulamalarının incelenmesi [Examining the use of metacognitive reading strategies of students with reading difficulties and their teachers' reading comprehension instruction practices]. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, *36*(162), 301- 319.
- Bazerman, C. (1985). Physicist reading physics: Schema-laden purposes and purposeladen schema. *Written Communication*, 2(1), 3-23.
- Bernhardt, E. B. (2010). Understanding advanced second- language reading. NY: Routledge.
- Bialystok, E. (1981). The role of conscious strategies in second language learning proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 65(1), 24–35.
- Bidjerano, T. (2005). Gender differences in self- regulated learning. Paper presented at the 36th/2005. Annual Meeting of the Northeastern Educational Research Association, Kerhonkson, NY.
- Biehler, R. & Mccow, R. & Snowman, J. (2012). *Psychology applied to teaching*. (13th Ed). Canada: Wadsworth Cengage Learning
- Block, E. (1986). The comprehension strategies of second language readers. *Tesol Quarterly*, 20(3), 463-494.
- Boud, D. (1995). Enhancing learning through self-assessment. New York: Routledge.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of language learning and teaching. (5th Ed.).USA:
 - Pearson Longman.
- Brown, D. (2012). Online support systems for extensive reading: Managing the tension between autonomy and institutional education. *The Language Teacher*, *36*(2), 11-16.
- Bryman, A. (2012). Social research methods. (4th Ed.). New York: Oxford University.
- Burns, A. (1999) *Collaborative action research for English language teachers*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press
- Burns, A. (2010). *Doing action research in English language teaching*. New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Butler, D. L., & Winne, P. H. (1995). Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 65(3), 245-281.
- Calderón Agudelo, S., Carvajal Ávila, L. M., & Guerrero López, A. Y. (2007). How to improve sixth graders' reading comprehension through the skimming technique. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, 8, 25-40
- Cantrell, S. C., & Carter, J. C. (2009). Relationships among learner characteristics and adolescents' perceptions about reading strategy use. *Reading Psychology*, 30(3), 195-224
- Carr, E & Ogle, D. (1987). K-W-L plus: A strategy for comprehension and summarization. *Journal of Reading*, 30(7), 626-631

- Carr, M., & Jessup, D. L. (1997). Gender differences in first-grade mathematics Strategy use: Social and metacognitive influences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(2), 318-328
- Carrell, P. L. (1989). Metacognitive awareness and second language reading. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(2), 121-134.
- Carrell, P. L., Pharis, B. G., & Liberto, J. C. (1989). Metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading. *Tesol Quarterly*, 23(4), 647-678.
- Carrell, P. L., Gajdusek, L. & Wise, T. (1998). Metacognition and EFL/ESL reading. *Instructional Science*, 26, 97-112.
- .Carrell, P. L., & Eisterhold, J. C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*(4), 553-573.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). Teaching English as a second or foreign language. U.S.A: Heinle & Heinle.
- Chamot, A.U., & O'Malley, M. (1990). Learning strategies in second language acquisition. UK: Cambridge University Press
- Chamot, A. U, & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach.* MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing
- Chamot, A. U. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 112-130.
- Chun, D., & Plass, J. L. (1997). Research on text comprehension in multimedia environments. *Language Learning & Technology*, 1, 60-81.
- Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. New York: Routledge.
- Conley, M. (2008). Cognitive strategy instruction for adolescents: What we know about the promise, what we don't know about the potential. *Harvard Educational Review*, 78(1) 84–108.
- Cook, V. (2001). Second language learning and language teaching (4th Ed.). London: Hodder Education
- Cook, G. (2003). Applied linguistics. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. (1990). Grounded theory research: Procedures, canons and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology*, *13*(1), 3-21.
- Course, S. (2017). Reading strategies and reading diaries for autonomous learning in a Turkish context. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, *17*(1), 124-144.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitive and mixed methods research approaches.* (3rd Ed). United States of America: SAGE Publications.
- Çetinkaya, P., &Erktin, E. (2002). Assessment of metacognition and its relationship with reading comprehension, achievement, and aptitude. *Boğaziçi University Journal of Education*, 19(1), 1-11.
- Çöğmen, S., & Saracaloğlu, A. S. (2010). Üst bilişsel okuma stratejileri ölçeği'nin Türkçeye uyarlama çalışmaları [Adaptation of metacognitive reading strategies questionnaire to Turkish]. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 28(28), 91-99.
- Çubukçu, F. (2008). How to enhance reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 1(2), 83-93.
- Çubukçu, F. (2009). Learner autonomy, self regulation and metacognition. International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education, 2(1), 53-64.

- Day, R. R. (2015). Extending extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign* Language, 27(2), 294-301.
- De Salas, K., & Huxley, C. (2014). Enhancing visualization to communicate and execute strategy: Strategy-to-process maps. *Journal of Strategy and Management*, 7(2), 109-126.
- De Koning, B. B., & Van Der Schoot, M. (2013). Becoming part of the story! Refueling the interest in visualization strategies for reading comprehension. *Educational Psychology Review*, 25(2), 261-287.
- Diaz, S., & Laguado, J. C. (2013). Improving reading skills through skimming and scanning techniques at a public school: Action research. *Opening Writing Doors Journal*, *10*(1), 133-150.
- Duffy, G. (1993). Rethinking strategy instruction: Four teachers' development and their low achievers' understanding. *The Elementary School Journal*, 93, 231-247.
- Eilers, H.L., & Pinkley, C. (2006). Metacognitive strategies help students to comprehend all text. *Reading Improvement*, 43(1), 13-30.
- Eker, C. (2015). Öz düzenleme becerilerinin öğretimi sürecinde K-W- L (bil-isteöğren) stratejisinin etkisi. [The effect of the strategy of kwl (know-want-learn) in teaching process of the self-regulatory skills]. *Akademik Bakış Dergisi*, 51, 168-182.
- Erten, İ. H., & Razı, S. (2009). The effects of cultural familiarity on reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 21(1), 60-77.
- Estaire, S. & Zanon, J. (1994). *Planning classwork: A task-based approach*. Oxford: Heinemann ELT.
- Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, *34*(10), 906-911.
- Flavell, J. H., Miller, P. H. & Miller, S. A. (2002). Cognitive development (4th Ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Forrest-Pressley, D., & Waller, T. G. (1984). *Cognition, metacognition, and reading*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Friedman, L. (1989). Mathematics and gender gap: A meta-analysis of recent studies on sex differences in mathemathical tasks. *Review of Educational Reseach*, 59(2), 185-213.
- Fritz, M. (2002). Using a reading strategy to foster active learning in content area courses. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 32(2), 189-194.
- Gamel, A. L. (2015). *Help! My college students can't read: Teaching vital reading strategies in the content areas.* The USA: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Genc, H. (2011). Paper and screen: Reading strategies used by low--proficient EFL learners. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 8(10), 648-658.
- Gettinger, M., & Seibert, J. K. (2002). Contribution of study skills to academic competence. *School Psychology Review*, 31(3), 350-365.
- Ghani, M. (2003). Language learning strategies employed by L2 learners. *Journal of Research*, *4*, 31-36.
- Ghosh, A. (2012). Awareness of reading strategy use of Indian ESL students and the relationship with reading comprehension achievement. *English Language Teaching*, 5(12), 131-140.

- Goldsmith, P., & Tran, T. (2012). English learners and reading comprehension: Text organization in history. *Social Studies Review*, *51*(1), 57-63.
- Golovchinsky, G., Price, M. N. & Schilit, B. N. (1999). From reading to retrieval: Freeform ink annotations as queries. In *Proceedings of the 22nd annual international ACM SIGIR conference on research and development in information retrieval*, ACM, 19-25.
- Goodman, K. S. (1967). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 6(4), 126-135.
- Goodman, K. S. (1998). The reading process. In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine and D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. (pp. 11-21). New York: Cambridge University Press,
- Gorard, S. & Taylor, C. (2004). Combining methods in educational and social research. New York: Open University Press
- Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 375-406.
- Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice.* The United States of America: Cambridge University Press
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F.L. (2011). *Teaching and researching: Reading*. (2nd Ed.) New York: NY.
- Hacker, D. J., Dunlosky, J., & Graesser, A. C. (Ed.). (2009). Handbook of metacognition in education. New York: Routledge.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hartman, H. J. (2002). (Ed). *Metacognition in learning and instruction: Theory, research and practice.* Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer Science + Business Media.
- Hassan, F. (2003). Metacognitive strategy awareness and reading comprehension. *The English Teacher*, *32*, 16-33.
- Hayashi, K. (1999). Reading strategies and extensive reading in Efl classes. *RELC Journal*, 30(2), 114–132.
- Hismanoglu, M. (2000). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *6*(8), Retrieved from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Hismanoglu-Strategies.html.
- Hong, Ng. C. (2013). Teaching of skimming at tertiary level: Theoretical and pedagogical issue. *International Journal of Bilingual & Multilingual Teachers of English*, 1, 1-7.
- Houtveen, A. A. M., & Van de Grift, W. J. C. (2007). Effects of metacognitive strategy instruction and instruction time on reading comprehension. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 18(2), 173-190.
- Hsu, S. C. (2007). The reading strategies used by EFL technical students. *English Teaching e-Monthly*, 22(1), 155-179.
- Iwai, Y. (2011). The effects of metacognitive reading strategies: Pedagogical implications for EFL/ESL teachers. *The Reading Matrix*, 11(2), 150-159.
- Jimenez, R., Garcia, G., & Pearson, P. (1996). The reading strategies of bilingual Latina/o students who are successful English readers: Opportunities and obstacles. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *31*, 90–112

- Jun Zhang, L. (2001). Awareness in reading: EFL students' metacognitive knowledge of reading strategies in an acquisition-poor environment. *Language Awareness*, 10(4), 268-288.
- Karatay, H. (2009). Okuma stratejileri bilişsel farkındalik ölçeği [A metacognitive awareness inventory of reading]. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*. 2(19), 58-80
- Karbalaei, A. (2010). A Comparison of the metacognitive reading strategies used by Efl and Esl readers. *The Reading Matrix*, *10*(2), 165-180.
- Karbalaei, A. (2011). Metacognition and reading comprehension. *İkala*, 16(28), 5-14 Kasımi, Y. (2013). Cognitive and metacognitive strategies employed by Iranian and
- Turkish EFL readers. *ELT Research Journal*, 1(3), 159-174.
- Kemmis, S. & McTaggart, R. & Nixon, R. (2014). *The action research plan: Doing critical participatory action research*. Singapore: Springer
- Kern, R. G. (1989). Second language reading strategy instruction: It's effects on comprehension and word inference ability. *Modern Language Journal*, 73(2), 135-149.
- Kırcı, M. (2004). Türkçe ve edebiyat dersleri ortamında okuma, anlatısal bilgi ve bilinçlenme denemesi [A study on reading skills, narration and awareness in Turskish language and Turkish literature courses]. 19 Mayıs Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 17, 16-24.
- Kuhn, D. (2000). Metacognitive development. Current directions in psychological science, 9(5), 178-181.
- Lawrence, J., & Tar, U. (2013). The use of grounded theory technique as a practical tool for qualitative data collection and analysis. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 11(1), 29-40.
- Lee, M. L. (2012). A study of the selection of reading strategies among genders by EFL college students, *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 64, 310-319.
- Li, F. 2010). A study of English reading strategies used by senior middle school students. *Asian Social Science*, 6 (10), 184-192.
- Liu, J. 2010. Language learning strategies and its training model, *International Education Studies*, 3(3), 100-104.
- Long, S. A., Winograd, P. N., & Bridge, C. A. (1989). The effects of reader and text characteristics on imagery reported during and after reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24, 353–372.
- Louca, E. P. (2003). The concept and instruction of metacognition, *Teacher Development*, 7(1), 9-30
- MacLeish, A. (1968). Adapting and composing reading texts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 2 (1), 43-50.
- Mackey, A. & Gass, S. M. (2005). Second language research: Methodology and design. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Maitland, L. (2000). Ideas in practice: Self-regulation and metacognition in the reading lab. *Journal of Developmental Education*, 24(2), 26-32.
- Marshall, C. C. (1997). Annotation: From paper books to the digital library.In Proceedings of the second ACM international conference on digital libraries, ACM, 131-140.
- Maxwell, M. (1978). Learning style and other correlates of performance on a scanning experiment. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 10 (1), 49-55.

- McMillan, J. H., & Hearn, J. (2008). Student self-assessment: The key to stronger student motivation and higher achievement. *Educational Horizons*,87(1), 40-49.
- McNiff, J., & Whitehead, J. (2002). *Action research: Principles and practice*. New York: Routladge Falmer Press
- Meltzer, L., Pollica, L. S., & Barzillai, M. (2007). Executive function in the classroom: Embedding strategy instruction into daily teaching practices. In L. Meltzer (Ed.), *Executive function in education from theory to practice*. New York: The Guilford Press
- Memnun, D. S., & Akkaya, R. (2009). The levels of metacognitive awareness of primary teacher trainees. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 1919-1923.
- Metcalfe, J., & Shimamura, A. P. (1994). *Metacognition: Knowing about knowing*. Massachusetts: The Mit Press
- Mettetal, G. (2002). The what, why and how of classroom action research. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 2(1), 6-13.
- Mokhtari, K. & Reichard, C. A. (2002). Assessing students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(2), 249-259
- Moreillon, J. (2007). Collaborative strategies for teaching reading comprehension: Maximizing your impact. Chicago: American Library Association.
- Nara, H. (2003). Implementation of reading in the classroom. In H. Nara., & M. Noda (Eds.), Acts of reading: *Exploring connections in pedagogy of Japanese*, 145-196. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Nassaji, H. (2003). Higher-level and lower-level text processing skills in advanced ESL reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87 (2), 261-276.
- Niemivirta, M. (1997). Gender differences in motivational-cognitive patterns of selfregulated. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED410478.pdf
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nyikos, M., & Oxford, R. (1993). A factor analytic study of language-learning strategy use: Interpretations from information-processing theory and social psychology. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77 (1), 11–22.
- Oczkus, Lori D. (2003). *Reciprocal teaching at work: Strategies for improving reading comprehension*. Newark: International Reading Association.
- Ogle, D. M. (1986). KWL: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *Reading Teacher*, 39(6), 564-570.
- Ogle, D. (1992). KWL in action: Secondary teachers find applications that work. *Reading in the content areas: Improving Classroom Instruction*, *3*, 270-281.
- Onovughe, G., & Hannah, A. (2011). Assessing ESL students' awareness and application of metacognitive strategies in comprehending academic materials. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 2(5), 343-346.
- O'Reilly, T., & Deane, P. & Sabatini, J. (2015). Building and sharing knowledge key practice: What do you know, what don't you know, what did you learn? *ETS Research Report*, 15(24), 1-53.
- O Shaughnessy, K. (2001). Everything I know about teaching language arts I learned at the office supply store. *Quarterly-National Writing Project*, 23(2), 13-18.

- Oster, L. (2001). Using the think- aloud for reading instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 55(1), 64-69.
- Othman, Y., & Jaidi, N. H. (2012). The employment of metacognitive strategies to comprehend texts among pre-university students in Brunei Darussalam. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 2(8), 134-141.
- Oxford, R. L., Lavine, R. Z., & Crookall, D. (1989). Language learning strategies, the communicative approach and their classroom implications. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22 (1), 29-39
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know?* USA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Ölmez, F. (2016) Exploring the interaction of L2 reading comprehension with textand learner-related factors. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences 232* (2016), 719 – 727.
- Özbay, M., & Özdemir, B. (2012). Okuduğunu anlama sürecinde çıkarım yapma becerisinin işlevi. [Function of the inference skills during the process of reading comprehension]. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 9(18), 17-28.
- Öztürk, E. (2012). Validity and reliability study of the Turkish form of reading strategies in the metacognitive awareness inventory. *Elementary Online*, 11(2), 292-305
- Paris, S. G., Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K. K. (1983). Becoming a strategic reader. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 8, 293-316.
- Paris, S. G. & Winograd, P. (1990). How metacognition can promote academic learning and instruction. In B. F. Jones & L. Idol (Ed.), *Dimensions of thinking* and cognitive instruction, 15-51. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Pearson, P. D., & Kamil, M. L. (1978). Basic processes and instructional practices in teaching reading. *Reading Education Report*, 7, 1-28.
- Perfetti, C. A., Landi, N., & Oakhill, J. (2005). The acquisition of reading comprehension skill. *The Science of Reading: A handbook, 13*, 227-247.
- Pigada, M. & Schmitt, N. 2006). Vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading: A case study. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *18*(1), 1-28.
- Poole, A. (2005). Gender differences in reading strategy use among ESL college students. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, *36*(1), 7-20.
- Porter-O'Donnell, C. (2004). Beyond the yellow highlighter: Teaching annotation skills to improve reading comprehension. *English Journal*, 93 (5), 82-89.
- Pressley, M., & Gaskins, I. W. (2006). Metacognitively competent reading comprehension is constructively responsive reading: How can such reading be developed in students? *Metacognition Learning*, 1(1), 99-113.
- Rampp, L. C., & Guffey, J. S. (1999). The impact of metacognition training on academic self- efficacy of selected under achieving college students. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED432607.pdf.
- Rashidi, N., & Piran, M. (2011). The effect of extensive and intensive reading on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary size and depth. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(2), 471-482.
- Razı, S. (2010) Effects of a metacognitive reading program on the reading achievement and metacognitive strategies. Published Doctorate Dissertation, Republic Of

Turkey Dokuz Eylül University Educational Sciences Institute Foreign Language Teaching Department English Language Teaching Programme, İzmir.

- Retelsdorf, J., Köller, O., & Möller, J. (2011). On the effects of motivation on reading performance growth in secondary school. *Learning and Instruction*, 21(4), 550-559.
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (Eds.). (2002). Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics. (4th Ed.). Great Britain: Pearson Education.
- Richards, J.C. & Farrell, T.S.C. (2005). Professional development for language teachers: Strategies for teacher learning. New York: Cambridge University
- Ríos Olaya, S. R., & Valcárcel Goyeneche, A. M. (2005). Reading: A meaningful way to promote learning English in high school. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, *6*, 59-72.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "Good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51.
- Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. Applied Linguistics, 11(2), 118–131.
- Salataci, R., & Akyel, A. (2002). Possible effects of strategy instruction on L1 and L2 reading. *Reading in a foreign language*, 14 (1), 1-17.
- Sallabas, M. E. (2008). Relationship between 8th grade secondary school students' reading attitudes and reading comprehension skills. *Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 9(16), 141-155.
- Salmer'on, L., Kintsch, W., & Kintsch, E. (2010). Self-regulation and link selection strategies in hypertext. *Discourse Processes*, 47, 175–211.
- Samuels, S.J., & Farstrup, A.E. (2011). What research has to say about reading *instruction* (4th Ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Sheorey R., & Mokhtari, K. (2001). Differences in the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among native and non-native readers. *System*, 29(4), 431-449.
- Singhal, M. (2001). Reading proficiency, reading strategies, metacognitive awareness and L2 Readers. *The Reading Matrix*, *1*(1), 1-9.
- Siswati, B. H., & Corebima, A. D. (2017). The effect of education level and gender on students' metacognitive skills in Malang. *Indonesia Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 4(4), 163-169.
- Snell, J. (1999). Improving teacher-student interaction in the EFL classroom: An action research report. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 5(4). Retrieved August 19, 2006 from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Snell-Interaction.html.
- Solak, E., & Altay, F. (2014). The Reading Strategies Used by Prospective English Teachers in Turkish ELT Context. *Online Submission*, 1(3), 78-89.
- Solmaz, D. Y. (2015). The metacognitive reading strategies of students: A research school of physical educational sports at Anadolu University. *Pamukkale Journal of Sport Sciences 2015*, 6(1), 25-38.
- Souvignier, E., & Mokhlesgerami, J. (2006). Using self-regulation as a framework for implementing strategy instruction to foster reading comprehension. *Learning and Instruction*, *16*(1), 57-71.
- Stern (1992). Issues and options in language teaching. London: Oxford University Press.

- Susser, B., & Robb, T. N. (1990). EFL extensive reading instruction: Research and procedure. *Jalt Journal*, 12(2), 161-185.
- Tankersley, K. (2003). *The threads of reading: Strategies for literacy deveopment*. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Teng, M. F. (2019). Autonomy, agency, and identity in teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Singapore: Springer
- Tercanlioglu, L. (2004). Postgraduate students' use of reading strategies in L1 and ESL contexts: Links to Success. *International Education Journal*, *5*(4), 562-570.
- Tercanlioglu, L., & Demiröz, H. (2015). Goal orientation and reading strategy use of Turkish students of an English language teaching department. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(3), 286-311.
- Tuncel, F. (2014). An integration of metacognitive reading strategies in English language lessons. Published Master's Thesis, Çağ University/ Institute of Social Sciences Department of English language teaching, Mersin.
- Veenman, M. V., Van Hout-Wolters, B. H., & Afflerbach, P. (2006). Metacognition and learning: Conceptual and methodological considerations. *Metacognition* and Learning, 1, 3–14.
- Velzen, J. V. (2016). *Metacognitive learning advancing learning by developing general knowledge of the learning process*. Switzerland: Springer International.
- Vianty, M. (2007). The comparison of students' use of metacognitive strategies between reading in Bahasa Indonesia and in English. International Educational Journal, 8(2), 449-460.
- Vinten, J. & Humphries, P. (2015). Englishhood A1- A2 student's book. İstanbul: Aktif Print.
- Vinten, J. & Humphries, P. (2016). *Englishhood A2*+-*B1 student's book*. İstanbul: Apa Uniprint.
- Vinten, J. & Humphries, P. (2016). Englishhood A2+-B1 workbook. İstanbul: Apa Uni Print.
- Wallace, M. J. (1999). Action research for language teachers. United Kingdom, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wallace, C. (2001). Reading. In R. Carter and D. Nunan (Eds.). The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages (pp. 21-27). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wenden L.A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(4), 515-537.
- Yamashita, J. (April, 2004). Reading attitudes in L1 and L2, and their influence on L2 extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *16* (1), 1-19.
- Yaman, İ. & Çakıcı, D. (2013). The effect of cognitive and compensation strategy instruction on reading comprehension skill, *Journal of Ondokuz Mayıs* University Education Faculty, 32 (2), 369-384.
- Yiğiter, K., Sarıçoban, A. & Gürses, T. (2005). Reading strategies employed by ELT learners at the advanced level. *The Reading Matrix*, 5(1), 124-139.
- Zainal, Z. (2003). Critical review of reading model and theories in first and second language. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 1(2), 104-124.
- Zhang, L. J. & Wu, A. (2009). Chinese senior high school EFL students' metacognitive awareness and reading-strategy use. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 21(1), 37-59.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory

(Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002)

(Öztürk, 2012)

Yönerge: Aşağıda, insanların ders kitapları ya da kütüphanedeki kitaplar gibi akademik ya da okulla ilgili materyalleri okurken yaptıkları şeyler hakkındaki ifadeler listelenmiştir. Her bir ifade (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) numaralandırılmış ve numaraların anlamları aşağıda verilmiştir.

1 anlamı "Ben bunu **asla ya da neredeyse hiç** yapmam" 2 anlamı "Ben bunu **nadiren** yaparım"

3 anlamı "Ben bunu ara sıra yaparım"

4 anlamı "Ben bunu genellikle yaparım"

5 anlamı "Ben bunu daima ya da neredeyse her zaman yaparım"

	Strateji					\square
		Asla ya da neredeyse hiç	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Genellikle	Daima ya da neredeyse her zaman
1	Okurken zihnimde bir amaç vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Okurken, okuduğumu anlamak için notlar alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Okuduğumu anlamama yardım edecek neler biliyorum diye düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Okumaya başlamadan önce ne konuda olduğunu anlamak için metni gözden geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Metin zor geldiğinde okuduğumu anlamak için yüksek sesle okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Metindeki önemli noktalar üzerinde düşünmek için okuduğumu özetlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Okuma amacımla metnin içindekilerin uyup uymayacağını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Okuduğumu anladığımdan emin olmak için yavaş ama dikkatli okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Anladığımın doğru olup olmadığını kontrol etmek için başkalarıyla tartışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Öncelikle uzunluk ve düzenleme gibi konulardaki özelliklerine okumadan önce göz gezdiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Konsantrasyonumu kaybedersem tekrar dikkatimi toplarım.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Hatırlamama yardımcı olsun diye metnin bazı bölümlerini yuvarlak içine alırım veya bu bölümlerin altını çizerim.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Okuma hızımı okuduğum metne göre ayarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Neleri dikkatle okuyup neleri önemsemeyeceğime karar veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Okuduğumu anlamama yardımcı olması için sözlük gibi kaynaklardan yararlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Metin zor geldiğinde okuduğum şeye dikkatimi daha çok veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Metni anlamam kolaylaşsın diye tablo, resim ve şekillerden faydalanırım.	1	2	3	4	5

18	Okuduklarım hakkında düşünmek için zaman zaman dururum.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Okuduğumu daha iyi anlamama yardımcı olması için içerik ipuçlarını kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	Okuduğumu daha iyi anlamak için metindeki düşünceleri kendi sözcüklerimle yeniden ifade		1		1	1
20	ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Okuduğumu hatırlamama yardımcı olsun diye metnin bazı bölümlerini zihimde resimler veya görsel olarak canlandırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Ana bilgiyi belirlemek için kalın font ve yatık harf gibi yazımsal yardımlar kullanırım	1	2	3	4	5
23	Metindeki bilgi ve bulguları değerlendirip analiz ederim	1	2	3	4	5
24	Metinde ileri ve geri gidip düşünceler arasındaki ilişkileri bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Çelişen bilgilere rastladığımda düşüncelerimi gözden geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Okurken metnin ne hakkında olduğunu tahmin ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Metin zorlaşırsa anlamama yardımcı olsun diye yeniden okumalar yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Metinde cevaplanmasını istediğim soruları kendime sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	Metin hakkındaki tahminimin doğru ya da yanlış olduğunu kontrol etmek için görmek		1		1	1
29	isterim	1	2	3	4	5
30	Cümle ya da kelimelerin bilinmeyen anlamlarını tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

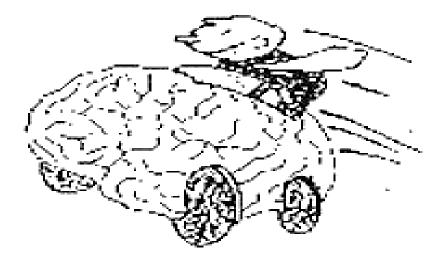
Appendix 2 Interview Questions Outline (by researcher)

- 1. What is today's strategy? What do you understand from the strategy?
- 2. Why do you think the strategy is really necessary? How does it help in a reading text?
- 3. What easiness or difficulties may be in using this strategy?
- 4. Could you use the strategy in the text easily? Have you ever used this strategy before?
- 5. Did you like the strategy? Why? Why not? Do you think you will employ this strategy in texts from now on?

Appendix 3

'Drive Your Car'

(Wilson & Conyers, 2016)



Drive Your Brain

Appendix 4

Positive Comments	Negative Comments
explaining the strategy properly	explaining the strategy inadequately
like using	dislike using
finding easy to use	finding difficult to use
finding practical, useful	finding time consuming, unnecessary
thinking about using later	thinking about not using later

Selective Coding Common Points for Semi-structured Interviews



Appendix 5

K-W-L Chart/Text/ Samples

(Ogle, 1986)

What do you Know about	What do you Want to	What did you Learn?
the topic?	Learn?	

	What do you Want to know?
Hicking bilniyaun. irindeini daymadır. Onemli iracellar yormus ola birker. Tarihe adını allın harllarlı harnış Tinsanlar. Yaplılları ut ama anlanılı şlur.	By insole. Yeyenlam Hindi isole. Yeyenlam Hindi islain kehenne delaji Teilo isinbini kangi Nobel ideb ally Teilo isinbini kangi Nobel ideb ally Basten day Basten day 20 yil sono Allor teresa

K-W-L CHART

Appendix 6 Visualization Texts/ Sample Papers

York, but all my family has Irish origins. Our ancestors had all come going to be great fun, there will be plenty of music, stalls with all types of of Leprechaun, and everybody is going to wear green clothes, green and the male family members have always been policemen or firemen baby on the Titanic and she survived of course. So they all settled here from Ireland. My great- grandmother (Barbara Joyce West) was a An Irish Boy in New York Happy St. Patrick's Day granny apples, olives, green beer, no doubt!!) I am sure this is going to be a green food (cucumber sandwiches, lettuce, pistachio ice cream, green bread my uncle Stewart who are parading in uniforms with their colleagues. This is who brought Christianity there .This year Mum has bought me a costume people. You must know that Saint Patrick is the Patron Saint of Ireland parade in the world here in New York with hundreds of thousands of today it is Saint Patrick's Day and we are all going to the biggest hats ,shamrock in button holes except my father Alec, my grandfathers and here. Dad lost a friend in the bomb attacks of September 2001. But Emerald Island because it is green too. This is going to be a great day for will go to another parade back in Dublin, the capital of Ireland called the one of the boats which colour the river green there. The rest of my family in Chicago where there is also a big parade and this year Lee was even or fantastic day, and tonight, I will call my cousin Lee who lives with his family Hi to you all, my name is Sean, and I am American, I was born in New Lite H. H. 11 day] all of us and don't forget you can pinch anybody who isn't wearing green to-SAY IF THE STATEMENTS ARE RIGHT OR WRONG AND CORRECT THOSE THAT ARE WRONG 9 8. He's going to a big parade in Chicago.-----7. People organize big parades on that day.-----12. Most of the members of his family are doctors or dentists.-----11. He has a costume of Irish dancer.-----10. The main emblem is the four leaf shamrock.-----.0 G 4 ω N ÷ The capital of Eire is Belfast.-----Saint Patrick is the Patron Saint of Ireland.-----People celebrate their revolution. He lives in Ireland.-----The main colour associated is blue.-----Today is the seventeenth of March.-----The person speaking is a boy named Sam-----Wishing you the best Sean <u>[</u>D]

(taken from https://en.islcollective.com/resources) (A2 level)

The True Story of the Faithful dog Hachika

(D) ا

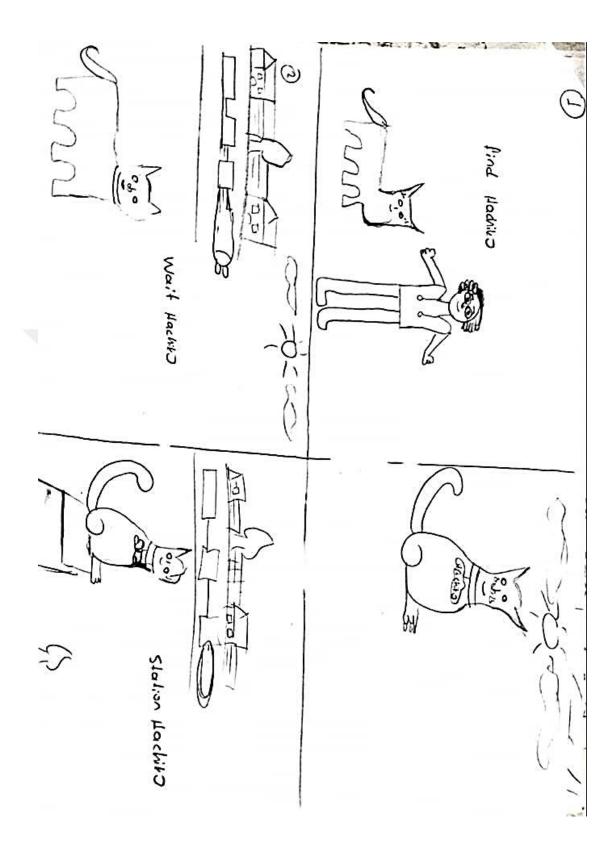
Akitas are considered to be among the most loyal of all dogs, and anyone who has heard the amazing true story if Hachiko won't disagree. In January 1924 a professor at the Japanese Imperial University brought home a two-month old Akita puppy. Dr. Ueno named the pup Hachiko. The following year was a wonderful time for Hachiko and his new master. Akitas are large dogs, and Hachiko grew to be over ninety pounds. This beautiful white dog accompanied Dr. Ueno to the Shibuya train station every morning, where Dr. Ueno would say goodbye to Hachiko and head to the university. And every day when Dr. Ueno returned home Hachiko would be waiting for him at the train station and the two would go home together. Anyone could see the powerful bond between the large Akita and his master. May 21, 1925 was like any other day for the pair. In the morning. Professor Ueno left Hachiko at Shibuya Station. But when Hachiko returned to Shibuya Station in the evening. Hachiko waited, Dr. Ueno never showed up. Dr. Ueno had died from a stroke earlier that day.

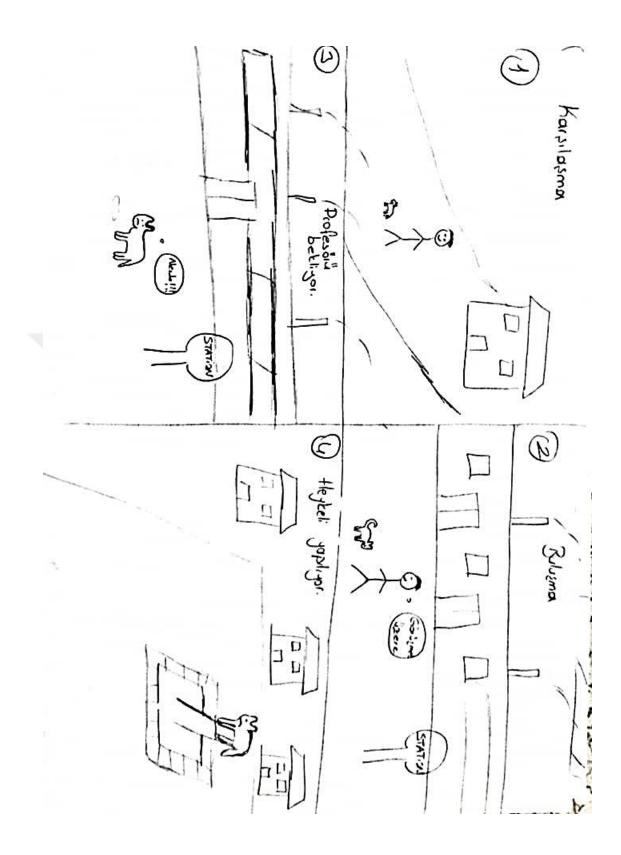
Akitas are very loyal dogs and do not bond easily with new people. Hachika was sent away to another area of Japan where there were relatives of Dr. Ueno's who could take care of him. He ran away from the family and returned to the train station ta wait for his master. The family realized that they couldn't keep the big Akita dog, so they gave Hachiko to Dr. Ueno's old

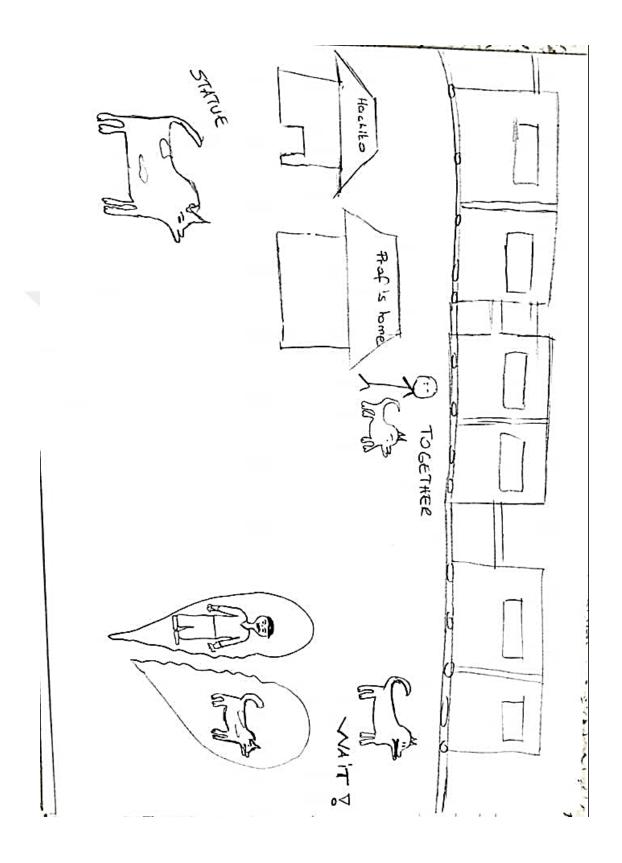
gardener who still lived in the area. Every evening Hachiko would return to Shibuya Station and wait for Dr. Ueno to get off the six-o'clock train. And every day, Hachiko was disappointed. The commuters noticed the Akita waiting every day at the station. Months passed, then years. Still Hachiko kept his vigil. A newspaper heard of the dog's story and Hachiko became a Japanese celebrity. To commemorate his loyalty, a statue of the Akita was erected at Shibuya station. Despite the people's loving intentions, Hachiko basically lived as a stray. He lived on the street, fought other dogs, and ate scraps and handouts. Hachiko got sick with worms and mange, but because so many people admired him he was given treatment by a veterinarian. Hachiko became an old, scarred dog, with one ear up and one ear down, and no longer looked like the purebred Akita that he was.

It was March, 1935 when Hachiko finally died. The old Akita was found in a Shibuya street. He had waited for his master for almost ten years. Many people were saddened by Hachiko's death, but others say that he was finally at peace and could go with his master wherever it is we go when we die. Hachiko's story of loyalty touched the hearts of many people all over the world. In Japan, his statue at Shibuya Station is still a popular meeting place. There is even a ceremony to remember Hachiko every year on April 8. In 2009. Hachiko hit the big screen in movie called *Hachika: A Dog's Story*. It will touch people's hearts and hopefully inspire them to discover the true story of this loyal Akita dog.

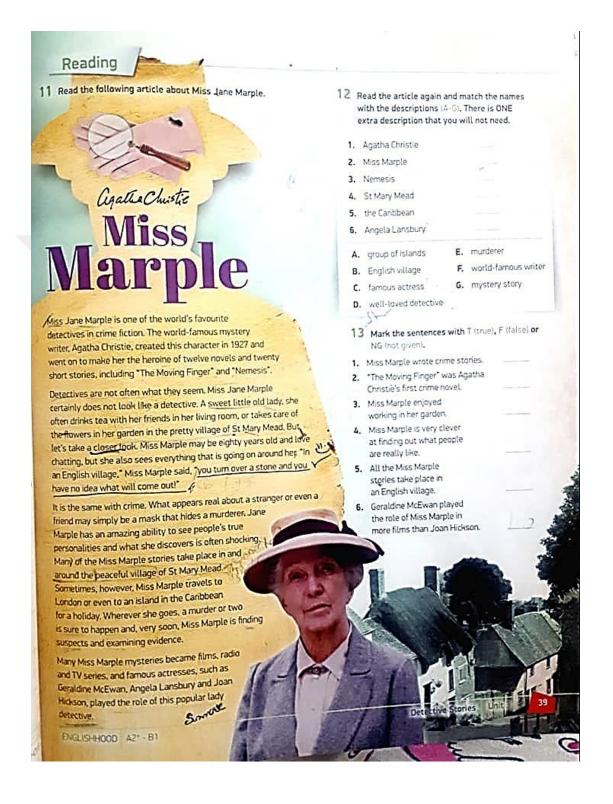
(taken from https://en.islcollective.com/resources) (A2 level)







Appendix 7 Think Aloud Strategy Text



MY LIFE WITHOUT MONEY

Heidemarie Schwermer, a 63 -year -old German woman, has lived without money for the last ten years, and has written a book about her experiences called "My life without Money".

At At the age of 54, Heidemarie gave up_her job as a pyschotherapist, gave away all her money and her flat and <u>threw away</u> her credit cards. She did not have regular <u>salary</u> anymore.Today apart from a few clothes (three sweaters,two skirts,two pairs of shoes,and a coat) and a few personal belongings,she does not have anything. Before the experience



of her, she did not have any <u>savings</u> - a big or small amount of money that a person keeps for a while.



It all began as a one – year experiment. In her home city of Dortmund she set up a 'swapping circle' where people <u>swap</u> services without using money ,for example a haircut for a mathematic class. She decided to try this life style and give up using money for a year. When the year ended, she continued and has not used money since then. Before she started this life style, she was not <u>in debt</u>, that is, she did not asked for any money from bank or somebody clse. She stayed in her friends' house and she feeded their animals and watered their plants <u>in return</u>.

At the moment she is staying in a student residence where she can sleep, have a shower, or use a computer in return for cooking for the young people who live there. Heidemarie says "When I need a bus ticket ,for example, or a new tube of tootpaste, I think - Who can I ask? What can I give them in return ?- If I want to go to cinema ,I might suggest them to look after their children for the afternoon or night. It is one the mistakes of our society that most people spend money on things they do not need.

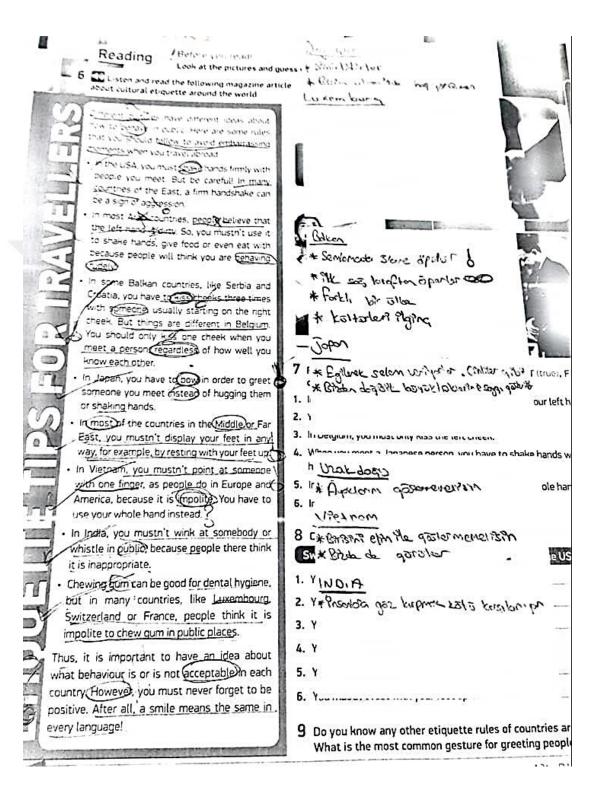
the mistakes of our society that most people approximations people approximation of the people approximation of the people of th



(taken from https://en.islcollective.com/resources) (B1 level)

Appendix 8

Annotating Strategy Text/ Sample Papers



KOCHOAE. 1.24 Reading Before you read! 6 Solution and read the following magazine article about cultural etiquette around the world. Look at the pictures and guess what the article is and the second se γ Different cultures have different ideas align how to behave in cutab Here are some rules -> Dogularilen Sinili oldalar ve Analicantour that you should follow to avoid imbarrassing artadasty moments when you travel abroad. ve anlasma Yaplik lan Göskir In the OSA, you must shake hands firmly with Appluio - Rizdade sol elle bir sey people you meet. But be careful! In many countries of the East, a firm handshake can Yaphok L'Sticking be a sign of aggression. m Fin most Arab countries, people believe that -) ORTA we you boyuda Ayoklar the left hand is dirty. So, you mustn't use it to shake hands, give food or even eat with Gusterimigorbumic demekki kulturiale yada inanakunda because people will think you are behaving rudely. yapılmanacı Gerekiyormuş 8 In some Balkan countries, like Serbia and Croatia, you have to kiss cheeks three times Real Property lies with someone, usually starting on the right cheek. But things are different in Belgium. "in defa turatosma like Kah Raikonneto 8 You should only kiss one cheek when you bizdede Eucaklasma . meet a person, regardless of how well you a know each other. In Japan, you have to for in order to greet ile: defo ome is with T (true), F (false). someone you meet instead of hugging them Bellikadon bir defa yapıyonar or shaking hands. Kulturier: byle s with your left hand. In most of the countries in the Middle or Far -skizde genellikle eyilmezler East, you mustn't display your feet in any 0 way, for example, by resting with your feet up. oma toponkuda egilirle bence shake hands with n Vietnam, you mustn't point at someone cloc table ben begendern with one finger, as people do in Europe and iur whole hand. America, because it is impolite. You have to n use your whole hand instead. In India, you mustn't wink at somebody or vietnam Ida bir etle göskil whistle in public, because people there think anne Simaric the USA Jap it is inappropriate.__ memer goelar Chewing gum can be good for dental hygiene, 1 gibi alghonir but in many countries, like Luxembourg. 932 Kirmaic Yonlist Switzerland or France, people think it is Hindistan' La З. bytudein toninda impolite to chew gum in public places. abred bein 4. AHP Karevionur. Thus, it is important to have an idea about what behaviour is or is not acceptable in each 5. 6. Herkesin Geleneyi gibreneyi kendire 5:20 fulsaf galen onlara Juhaf country. However, you must never forget to be positive. After all, a smile means the same in gamer mesela Japonkan eyileek every language! 9 around the selonianator ben ask hosuna le in your gilli 404 Sirin buildum 10 Unit 6 Helpful Tips AC' - BI ENGL

Appendix 9 **Reciprocal Strategy Role Cards**



Use what you have read, clues from the title,

- subheadings, visuals;
- it is going to be about ...
- ·I think next section will be about ...
- I think , I predict...
- -I imagine ...
- -I wonder ...

Summarize,

-Retelling the group what they have just read in

- their own words
- Tell the important items , not details ! - Use as a reminder
- The most important information/ main idea is.....
- -The story is set in..... The characters are......
- •This story/passage is about..., begin
- with..develops the idea... and ends with ...

Clarifie

To help the group clarify unknown word or different concepts;

-Does anyone know the meaning of the word ...? - Can you explain ...?

Think about the word in the text, the type of word,

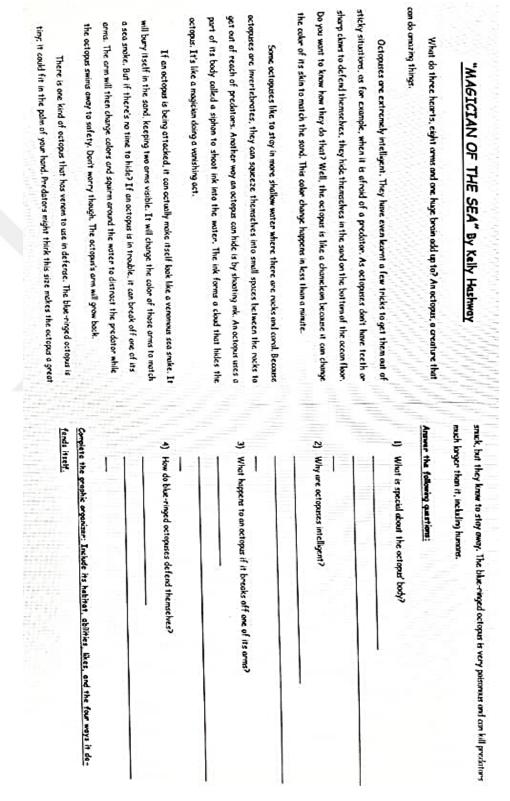
Look for words to guess the meanings...

(If you are unsure, look up dictionary)

Questioner

Ask teacher-like questions; -Who is ...?

- -What is/does ...? -When ...? Where ...?
- -Why does ... happen?
- -What are the parts of ...?
- -How...and different?
- -What is the most important of...?
- -What is your opinion of ...?



Appendix 10 Self- Assessment Strategy Text/ Sample Papers

Denis the Cat durg ar

A Bedfordshire cat has become a celebrity after stealing clothes and other items from neighbours.Denis, a two-year-old black and white cat, has stolen underwear, shoes, shirts, paintbrushes and even a doll.

He brings them all back to his embarrassed owner Lesley Newman at her home in Luton. C A

Videos of Denis in action have helped the pilfering puss become a hit on the web, with his own Facebook page, Twitter account and T-shirt range.

Denis' crime spree began at the age of just six months, a week after he was let out of the house for the first time.

"I noticed some clothes lying about and a piece from the local paper, which someone had screwed up," said Mrs Newman.

"A week later he brought home a Barbie doll. He either leaves things in the front room or brings them up to me in bed. He will come to my side of the bed and scream until I acknowledge what he has brought in. It's like 'Hello, I've brought you a present."

In the past week alone, Dennis has brought home a sock, towel, face cloth, glove and a motorcycle crash helmet bag.

Mrs Newman keeps all the items Denis steals in two boxes in case neighbours come to ask for their property back.

The most expensive item Denis has stolen is a Fred Perry polo shirt, which has still not been claimed by its owner."A few people have knocked on the door to ask if Denis has stolen their things, but thankfully no-one has been angry yet," said Mrs Newman, an accounts assistant.

Denis has a particular fondness for stealing men's underwear. "He doesn't do briefs - only boxers," she said. The feline felon also features on his own range of T-shirts, which read: "Denis stole my pants". Profits from the sale of the T-shirts go to Homeless Cat Rescue Bedfordshire, and the charity also benefits from advertising revenue from Denis' YouTube channel, which shows him in action. So far the channel has been viewed nearly 400,000 times.



(taken from https://en.islcollective.com/resources) (B1 level)

Denis the Cat durg ar

SELF- ASSESSMENT

PRE-READING -> Okumach dree .. - kedinin resimlerinden gok yaramat olduğunu anladım - Kedinin gobleri qak seytanca bakıyadı - kedinin hursiz okugunu anladuro . - kedinin hursiz okugunu anladuro . - tedinin yakını ve rengini öğrendim - Hursizlik yapmasına kakıra. WHILE READING -> OKUCKEN · Galdiği en pahalı eşyo polonun teörtüymüş POST READING - Joetleyebilitim - By kediyi saleriyorbr MI oru difi" 00 - By kediyle by likede yaşayamoz 0; . Turkiyede by kediye dumlu baknozle :

Denis the Cat Eurgar

SELF- ASSESSMENT

(とんと) PRE-READING

- Tahmin edemedim (Renginin sour oldugunus dusinmistum) !!
- Tembel bir kedi Sonnielim."
- uyucu bir kedi zonnetmişlim
- . Unil olmasini Güzelligine boralu sonnetmistim V

WHILE READING

- Husiz bir bedi oldugusna saturdum ! - Lin l' drasını güzzelligine değil de hirsizligina boruluymuş (- Lengini benim ölen kedim "kömüre" benzettim. 00 · kedi Gomazir Galiyordu. en con Galmanton hostondigi (Garnazir) dir.

-Börk hir kedim olsaydı insonların yüzüne bakarken ulanırdum " kizardi ve kedimi evden kovmoni isterdi " - Annom bana - Kedime Ceza verirdim (Kugun mamasindan az verindim derdim) . Ang l'all' oldugung savinidim kedim "all' oldugu icin bende "Into ol'urturn 11 Hirsizhie yaptigin inudia 0.0 icin bugin sono de -3 53 53

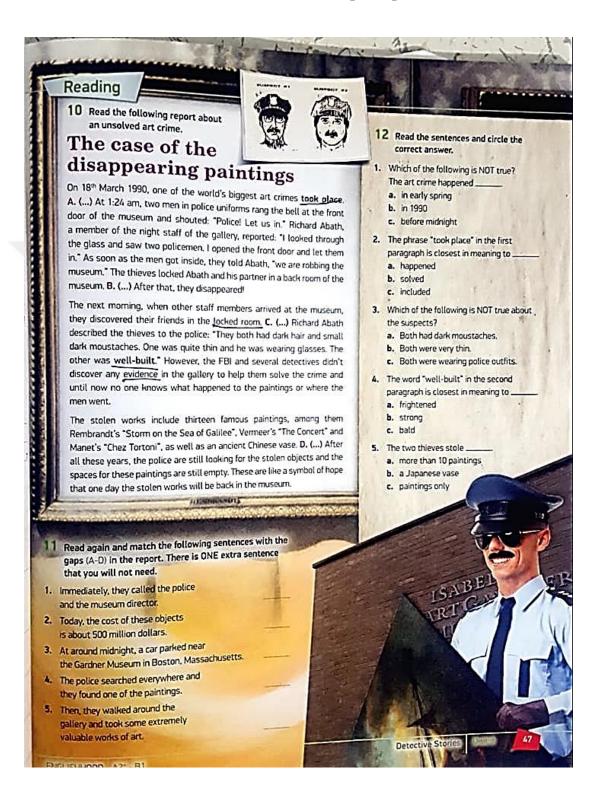
20

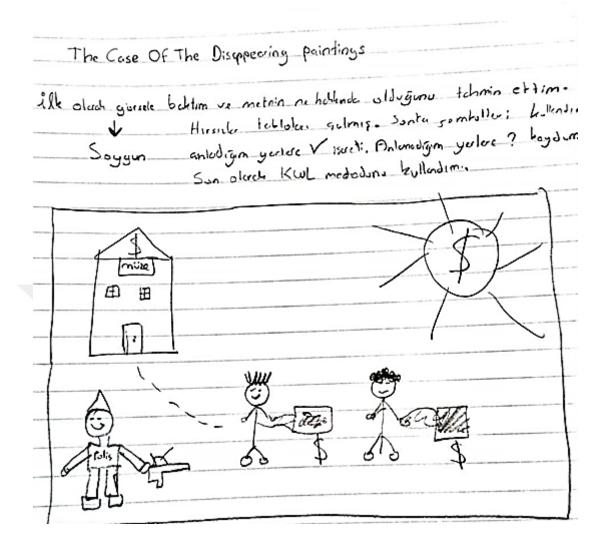
Appendix 11 Overall Strategy Text/ Sample Papers

prisen pors - altin ciedim. sulf - assessment -> kelimoyi tahmin attim. (mitaiv guverlak icine aldim. -> Haberleideki cinet geculien visiterin zendilerine zaptizerini düsündüm. 🗙 Kion ailesinin trenden 13 yoleu oldupunu öprendim ! Sembol kullandim. Kieden ne istemider? Le onbra ne yapmis? Trendevillerin sucilu olmasi beni sasirtti.! Skimming yaptim -> Basik with resinder to goodirip tahmin edital. g -> Büyütea Œ B (0) Trenden bir pörüntű

Appendix 12

Revision Week Text/ Sample Papers





15.05.2018 Soli your air the second The case of the disoppearing pointings goisel slorok conlandudum Kon 1001 120 Polis Ë koyboluyorlar tose pare senbolleri bimagigin anlamlada kullandun 7 310ff 7 should another kelime olorak seent of (crimes took place Bosligor Lakarole new tahmin her de think - gloud yaptım. Mesela başlıktan birşeylerin kaybolduğunu kendi kendime_sbyledim. En vonunda vine kendi kendime tablolar ve Nazal bulunur. butunun ca seviner olur birileri dedim.

Appendix 13

Research Consent

LIEGITIM T.C HAVZA KAYMAKAMLIĞI 25 Mayıs Anadolu Lisesi Müdürlüğü 22.09.2017 Sayı : 33914677 -605.01-181 Konu : Araştırma İzni (İlkay Banu TAMİN) Sayın : İlkay Banu TAMİN (İngilizce Öğretmeni) İlgi: a) 18.09.2017 tarihli dilekçeniz. b) Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğü'nün 22.08.2017 tarihli ve 35558626-10.06.01-E.12607291 sayılı 2017/25 no'lu genelgesi Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yüksek Lisans eğitiminiz için okulumuz 10/B sınıfi öğrencilerine uygulanmasını istediğiniz metecagnitive awereness (Biliş üstü) ve reading strategier (Okuma Becerileri) eylem araştırma metodu Yüksek Lisans tezi çalışmanızın, bir örneği Okulumuzda muhafaza edilme,eğitim-öğretimi aksatmama ve gönüllülük esas olmak kaydıyla ilgi (b) genelgesi çerçevesinde uygun görülmüştür. Söz konusu araştırma çalışmalarının bitiminde sonuç raporunun bir örneğinin CD ortamında müdürlüğümüze teslim edilmesi huşunda; Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim. M.Hilmi ALPASLAN Okul Müdürü Ayrıntılı bilgi için:M.H.ALPASLAN Okul Müd. Tel: 0 (362) 714 11 82 Faks: 0 (362) 714 52 50 Adres: Yeni Mah.J.Yrb.Mesut Kuru Cd.No:8 Havza/SAMSUN Elektronik Ağ: http://25mayisanadolulisesi.meb.k12.tr c-posta:751059@meb.k12.tr