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ASSESSING YDS TEST TAKERS' METACOGNITIVE
AWARENESS LEVELS OF READING STRATEGIES AND THEIR
ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING

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We certify that thesis under the title of "ASSESSING YDS TEST TAKERS' METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS LEVELS OF READING STRATEGIES AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING" is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

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ÖZET

YDS KATILIMCILARININ OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ ÜSTBİLİŞSEL FARKINDALIK SEVİYELERİNİ VE OKUMAYA KARŞI TUTUMLARINI DEĞERLENDİRME

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Ülkemizde eğer birileri, akademisyen veya devlet çalışanı olmak isterse, ya da dil tazminatı veya mesleğinde uzmanlık almak amacındaysa, resmi olarak kabul edilen ve çoğunluk tarafından tercih edilen Yabancı Dil Sınavını (YDS) geçmek zorundadır. Bu sınavın, katılımcıların okuma becerilerini ölçtüğü bilinen bölümleri, sınav sonuçlarını dikkate değer bir şekilde etkilemektedir. Genelde akademik makalelerden alınan zorlu okuma parçalarının oluşturduğu ve katılımcıların okuma anlama becerilerinin yanı sıra, dikkatlerini ve bağdaşım becerilerini, çıkarımsal veya direk sorularla ölçen bu bölümler, sınava katılanların genel olarak başarısızlıktan yakındığı bölümlerdir. Okuma ve okuduğunu anlama yeteneği, okuma sürecini ve bilişsel beceri gereksinimini dikkate alacak olursak, en komplike konulardan biridir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, YDS katılımcılarının okuma anlamada yaşadığı zorlukların nedeninin, yabancı dilde okuma stratejilerinin farkında olmamalarından (üst bilişsel

stratejiler) veya bu stratejileri kullanımındaki (bilişsel stratejiler) eksikliklerinden kaynaklanıp kaynaklanmadığını anlamaktır. Çalışmada, rastgele seçilmiş 30 kişilik yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen, farklı meslek gruplarından mezun ve eğitimine devam eden üniversite öğrencilerinden oluşan bir gruba iki farklı anket uygulanmıştır. Anketlerden toplanan veriler, tanımlayıcı istatistik elde etmek için SPSS paket programı kullanarak nicel olarak analiz edilmiş ve bu veri toplama araçlarının iç tutarlılığını değerlendirme amacıyla Cronbach alfa modeli kullanılmıştır. Pearson ilgileşim analizi yardımıyla, örneklemelerin okumaya karşı tutumları ve okuma stratejilerinde üst bilişsel farkındalık düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki belirlenmiştir.

Bulgular, YDS katılımcılarının okuma stratejileri üst bilişsel farkındalık düzeylerinin yüksek olduğu ve en çok problem çözme stratejilerini kullandıklarını ortaya koymuştur, bu da bize katılımcıların genel olarak okuma anlama süreçlerinin farkında oldukları ve yazılı bilgiyi anlamada problem yaşadıklarında odaklanma tekniklerini kullanabildiklerini göstermektedir. Ayrıca, YDS katılımcılarının okumaya karşı pozitif tutumlarının olduğu ve bu tutumları ile bilişsel farkındalık düzeyleri arasında çok zayıf bir ilişki olduğu saptanmıştır. Bu bilgiler, YDS katılımcılarının okuma stratejileri üst bilişsel farkındalık düzeylerinin ilgili bölümlerdeki başarısızlıklarının sebebi olmadığına dair bir kanıt sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: YDS Katılımcıları, Okuma, Okuduğunu Anlama, Üst Bilişsel Okuma Stratejileri, Okumaya Karşı Tutum.

ABSTRACT

ASSESSING YDS TEST TAKERS' METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS LEVELS OF READING STRATEGIES AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING

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In our country if someone wants to be an academician or a state employee, to get language allowance or take expertness in his/her professional occupation he/she has to pass Foreign Language Examination (YDS) which is officially recognized as a national language proficiency tests in Turkey and, preferred by the vast majority of people due to many reasons. The sections of the test, known to evaluate the reading skills of the test takers, cover the considerable part and effect the test result significantly. YDS test takers generally complain about the failure in these sections of the test, which include difficult reading passages mostly taken from academic articles to assess test takers' reading comprehension, attention, and coherence knowledge with a number of inferential and explicit questions. Reading and the ability to comprehend a written text have been one of the most complicated issues to understand its process considering its requirement for cognitive skills.

This study aimed at finding out whether the difficulties that YDS test takers face in reading comprehension arise from the lack of the usage (cognitive strategies) and awareness (metacognitive strategies) of reading strategies in FL reading. Two different surveys were administered to randomly selected participants 30 graduate EFL learners in different professional fields, and undergraduates in different majors. The data were analyzed quantitatively with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), to develop descriptive statistics and, both surveys were analyzed for internal consistency by using Cronbach's alpha. The relationship between the participants' attitudes and their metacognitive skills was also measured with the assistance of Pearson correlation analysis to build up a clear picture of the correlation. The findings of the instruments demonstrated that YDS test takers are metacognitively skilled FL readers and, the problem solving strategies were reported as reading strategies employed by YDS test takers most frequently, indicating that the participants were generally aware of their comprehension process and were able to use the focused techniques when they come across problems in comprehending textual information. It was also found that YDS test takers have positive attitudes towards reading and, the degree of YDS test takers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies does not have a strong relationship with their reading attitude. It has provided an evidence that YDS test takers' lack of metacognitive strategy use is not a reason why YDS test takers have difficulties in FL reading during the test.

Key Words: YDS Test Takers, Reading, Reading Comprehension, Metacognitive Reading Strategies, Attitudes towards Reading.

ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	:	English Language Teaching
FL	:	Foreign Language
EFL	:	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	:	English as a Second Language
MARSI	:	Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory
ASRA	:	Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes
YDS	:	Foreign Language Examination conducted in Turkey
L1	:	First Language
L2	:	Second Language

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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to study

English Language Teaching (ELT) covers an important part of foreign language teaching and learning, as it is recognized as a second language to use for communication by almost all countries due to the political, economic, cultural, and many more reasons. As Harmer (2007) states “by the end of the twentieth century English was already well on its way to becoming a genuine lingua franca, that is a language used widely for communication between people who do not share the same first language” (p.13). Turkey, aiming to be a member of the European Union has paid special attention to ELT and the foreign language curriculum has been almost entirely changed in recent years with the adjustment of Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR). Reforms for the foreign language education in Turkey have still been maintaining. The most recent of these reforms is structuring the new curriculum that students start to take language classes from second grade of primary school education. The main aim of this reform is to enhance language acquisition by providing learning conditions that for students to develop their ability to express themselves and comprehension skills in foreign language.

Thanks to these innovations, ELT has no longer been seen as a process of transmitting set of rules to the learners in Turkey. The attention has been shifted on to the instructions that promote the awareness of the learners on language and support the

communicative competence, and assessment and evaluation procedure has been affected by this change inevitably. Assessment and evaluation are always indispensable components of the educational event in foreign language teaching. Many forms of assessment are used in different learning settings with different objectives to ensure that the intended learning outcome is achieved. In order to emphasize the place of assessment and evaluation in ELT, Davison & Cummins (2007) state that “they are common concerns in different ELT sectors and levels, from mainstream schooling to specialist EAP courses, from kindergarten to adult and in both traditional EFL and ESL contexts”(p. 415). The aforementioned reforms in ELT have not affected the national language tests of Turkey, which have been conducted through administrative procedures on the purpose of documenting individuals’ competence of foreign language. In our country if someone wants to be an academician or a state employee, to get language allowance or take expertness in his/her professional occupation he/she has to pass either international or national language exams. Instead of international exams, national exams are preferred by the vast majority of people due to many reasons such as high cost, inconvenience to access and timing problems of the international exams.

State Personnel Language Examination (KPDS), which was first administrated and delivered by the State Personnel Administration and Ministry of Finance and Customs with the help of a large executive committee including representatives from the Student Selection and Placement Centre (OSYM) in 1990. Inter-University Foreign Language Examination (UDS) started to be carried out directly by OSYM for only academicians in 2002, and was officially recognized as a national language proficiency tests until quite recently. These proficiency exams have begun to be administered by combining the two

into a single exam called Foreign Language Examination (YDS) since April 2013. Nothing has changed except the number of questions.

The preparation period of this standardized exam is depressing, time-consuming and troublesome for both test takers and educators. Deerman , Fluker, Panik, Powell, Shelton, Uline & Notar, (2008) comment on the negative sides of high stakes standardized testing and state that these tests affect both the art of teaching and student learning and self-esteem. “The pressure on students to perform well on a quantitative measurement of learning at one specific point in time negates the qualitative progress a student makes over a period of time” (Deerman et al., 2008, p. 62).

YDS tests reading, grammar, and vocabulary knowledge of the test takers and it is expected them to be made use of the time well. Since there is a mismatch between YDS and the language teaching curriculum that intended to follow by the formal language-teaching environment in Turkey, ELT community disclaims this exam. Gür (2012) highlights the inappropriateness of such exams held in Turkey and he advocates that the evaluation should be carried out according to curriculum, textbooks, and materials, which have been used for language teaching. Therefore, test takers need a special preparation program that is not given by schools or universities though it has a vital importance in terms of building a career.

Whether YDS is approved or not by ELT community, this exam has existed for decades and it seems it will last longer. The need for an efficient way to use in language classes to make test takers ready for the exam and to motivate them is challenging for educators. This need has been trying to be met by private language schools and training centers with the support of the publications which are established according to YDS. On

the purpose of preparing test takers from different learning environments, for this exam, these institutions follow their own methods and materials by putting them together in a classroom as trainees. Since YDS consists of questions that assess test takers' knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension and translation, the classes include only reading as a skill. The classes always start from the beginning and trainees memorize English grammar rules and vocabulary in a given time, sometimes do at least 100 questions in a day to get ready. They study English Language as a mathematical formula, without meaningful learning and become unable to associate meaning form relationship therefore this process results in rote-learning based education.

The grammar, translation, and vocabulary parts of the test are generally handled by studying grammar rules and making translation, considering the level of test takers proficiency they can easily prepare on these parts. The sections of the test, which evaluate the reading skills of the test takers, cover the considerable part and effect the test result significantly; therefore, test takers need special competences to deal with those parts. This challenge is a particular concern to many people in respective fields. Reading passages are mostly taken from academic articles and they assess test takers' reading comprehension, attention, and coherence knowledge with a number of inferential and explicit questions. YDS test takers generally complain about the failure in these sections of the test. They are capable of reading in foreign language (FL) however; they have challenges to answer reading comprehension questions in a given time. In this regard, we cannot consider reading as a simple coding activity that depends only language knowledge, it needs to be regarded as a complex cognitive activity which depends on the readers' linguistic knowledge, mental skills and their skills related to the world through recognizing and

understanding the symbols of written language (Epçaçan, 2009). Thornbury, (1999) explains the reason lies behind the learners' inability to use some strategies in foreign language as a lack of confidence about learners' understanding of the context than they would be in their first language. If the test takers explore their cognitive process during reading they may be more confident to use reading strategies to deal with comprehension consequently the metacognitive knowledge may be acquired. According to Flaitz & Feyten, (1996) detailed comprehensive strategy training that involves learners' exposition to the full range of strategies which is a hard work by emphasizing the benefits of raising learners' general awareness of learner strategies (p.220).

Learning strategies that second language learners use were defined as the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and categorized as metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies. Schmidt, Boraie, Kassabgy (1996) define cognitive strategies as elaboration, organizational strategies, inference strategies and metacognitive strategies as planning, monitoring, and regulating and resource management. Recent researches on learning strategies like Kaya (2010), FU (2012), and Mahdih (2012) have revealed that these strategies can be acquired. Students' metacognitive knowledge about learning strategies and strategy use can be developed by learners who are less competent to be successful learners, through training and methods of strategy training have been examined to determine the best for language learners (Cohen, 2005; Newton & Kraemer, 1994; Oxford, 1989; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Designating paths to be followed for language learners to raise their consciousness on learning strategies is another crucial point that needs to be taken into

account. Chamot (2004) emphasizes the importance of combining the context of learning and teachers' instructional goals with language learners' goals (the need for survival communication skills, a foreign language requirement in school, academic study in a second language at different educational levels, passing examinations) together while deciding on the types of learning tasks engaged in. Types of learning strategies expected to be best assist for learning. Flaitz & Feyten, (1996) argue that students can benefit from activities designed to raise their general level of awareness of language learning strategies adducing their study. Mahdiah (2012) assists that the most effective variable of reading strategy on reading comprehension is metacognitive strategy regarding the result of his study conducted with second language readers in different proficiency level to examine the relationship and differences of four reading strategy uses (cognitive, meta-cognitive, compensatory, and testing strategies).

Reading is one of the most essential skills for second language learners. Acquiring language skills being a gradual process needs an extensive elaboration for second language learners. Reading and the ability to comprehend a written text have been one of the most complicated issues to understand its process considering its requirement for cognitive skills. According to Walter (2003), one must determine how English as a Second Language (ESL) reader process a text at a cognitive level in order to understand how they handle reading. He suggests carrying on considering the main factors that contribute to reading fluency and vocabulary acquisition and covering the related aspects of teaching and learning practice, which may contribute to developing these aspects of L 2 reading skills, as the next step for reading instruction to second language. Harmer (2007) advocates that to get a maximum benefit from reading language learners need to be involved both extensive

reading which is beneficial for general language improvement and intensive reading designed to enable language learners to develop specific skills. The framework named The Cognitive Foundations of Learning to Read which has been developed by Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) represents cognitive knowledge domains founded essential to English reading acquisition, basing a large corpus of research literature and a body of research conducted in a variety of disciplines, such as education, linguistics, cognitive science and psychology. The framework defines the components of reading comprehension as decoding and language comprehension and it is claimed that readers struggle to comprehend due to the lack of requirement of language comprehension or decoding or both.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

One of the biggest challenges facing learners who have to pass YDS is handling the sections that assess test takers' reading comprehension skills with difficult reading passages mostly taken from academic articles. Those parts are seen challenging by the test takers, they always complain about the unfamiliar words and their lack of comprehending, and they often claim that they often do not understand the passages in first reading, and sometimes try to translate whole text into their L1 therefore spend more time than expected. It is precise that long-standing unintentional mistakes have been made in language learners' education that they have engaged in their early years of schooling considering their lack of reading strategy knowledge. Motivated adult learners are aware of metacognitive strategies therefore, they are good at making decisions, solving problems, and thinking critically, additionally adults are able to regulate their emotions, get over complexity, and deal with

conflict. It is important for adults to use metacognitive skills by consciously employing in new situations (Dawson, 2008, p. 3).

YDS test takers sometimes find the correct answers in a short time while studying on reading tests, however when they are asked to explain how they do it, confusing and elusive explanations come.

Naturally, adult learners have developed some reading comprehension strategies and use them subconsciously or consciously as they use in L1 reading. They usually translate the texts into their L1 with the help of their grammar and vocabulary knowledge so the causes of these test takers' failure in reading comprehension may not be related to their language proficiency completely.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This study aims at finding out whether the difficulties that YDS test takers face in reading comprehension arise from the lack of the usage (cognitive strategies) and awareness (metacognitive strategies) of reading strategies FL reading. In order to focus this issue it is essential to measure the level of YDS test takers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. Since the YDS test takers are adult learners who have been studying English Language for a long time, it is a challenging question whether they are aware of their own cognitive work in reading or not and whether they can manage and regulate these strategies. This study provides researcher a way to determine the reading strategies, commonly used by YDS test takers to deal with the relevant sections of the exam. This study also permits researcher to find out whether there is a relationship between the level of

metacognitive awareness of YDS test takers and their attitudes towards reading, as another aim of the study.

1.4. Research Questions

The research questions to be answered in this study are as follows:

1. What kind of strategies do YDS test takers use most to handle reading sections of YDS?
2. Are the YDS test takers aware of metacognitive reading skills?
3. Is there a correlation between YDS test takers' attitudes towards reading and their metacognitive strategy use?

1.5. Operational Definitions

Meta-cognition: Meta-cognition plays a critical role in successful learning , it is ability to use cognitive skills for approaching a learning task; to administer them on time appropriately, aiming to solve problems, and modify learning(Chamot& O'Malley, 1986).

Metacognitive knowledge: General knowledge about how human beings learn, and process information, as well as individual knowledge of one's own learning processes (Livingston, 1997, p. 1)

Metacognitive Regulation (Awareness): Adjustments individuals make to their processes to help control their learning, such as planning, information management strategies, comprehension monitoring, and evaluation of progress and goals(Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001)

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter examines the act of reading and reading comprehension process by analyzing the skill itself. The chapter also provides information about learning strategies and their effects on FL learners' reading skills by reviewing many studies in relevant literature. Additionally learning strategies which learners use to comprehend the reading text while reading are examined and this process is described and in order to present an insight into cognitive and metacognitive process of FL readers which touches on several studies with different point of views are reviewed.

2.2. Reading

We were never born to read, human beings invented reading only a few thousand years ago. We rearranged the very organization of our brain, which in turn expanded the ways we were able to think which alter the intellectual evaluation of our species. (Wolf, 2008, p.308)

The most substantial feature that distinguishes us from other living things may be the language skills that we have. We use these skills to communicate, we speak or write to be understood, listen, and read to understand. One of the most important aims of the

schooling is to help students develop in basic literacy known ability to read and write, and since it facilitates learning in every sense, reading has always been essential in learning environment. Brown (2004) states that “the written word remains its function to convey information, to amuse and entertain us, to codify our social, economic, and legal conventions, although people are bombarded with an unending supply of visual and auditory media”(p. 185).

Reading gives us chances to learn and to find out about ideas, and it also gives us pleasure and takes us to different worlds while sitting on a couch or standing in a train. It is an indisputable truth that reading is seen as an indicator of sophistication, so readers are always considered intellectual. Wolf (2008) views reading as one of the single most remarkable inventions in history. She argues that it is crucial to know about reading demands of human brain and how it contributes to people’s capacity to think, to feel, to infer and to understand other people especially these days as we experience the transition of individual’s brain from a reading brain to an digital one.

Reading has not been considered as a simple decoding activity contrary to traditional belief. The results of the studies have revealed that reading is not only a process of decoding written symbols but it is also a process of reconstructing meaning (Nunan, 1999). Aiming to examine individuals with dyslexia, known as reading disabilities due to the inefficiency in decoding written symbol system, Wolf (2008), reveals a new insight into how brain works during the act of reading. She defines reading as an intrinsically messy enterprise because of the complex requirements for a reading and its consistency of so many disciplines. Epçaçan (2009) describes the reading process as an intellectual activity resulting from thinking, which depends on biological, psychological, and physiological

characteristic of individuals, and he adds the ability to comprehend is based on readers' linguistic knowledge, mental skills and their skills related to the world through recognizing and understanding the symbols of written language. Karatay (2009) defines reading as sensory and cognitive activity which needs to be operated together at the same time and this activity requires perceiving visuals such as letters, words, graphics and pictures by sense of organs, and recognizing, comprehending and interpreting them with the help of background knowledge.

2.2.1. Reading in Foreign Language

“FL reading is a vital source of input and exposure to the language. Text that learner processes are sites for enquiry about language, culture, and meaning and thus they reveal various levels and manifestations of language awareness” (Piasecka, 2014, p.184). In our own language, we usually learn reading thirdly, since we develop speaking and listening language skills to communicate before formal education. According to Brown (2004) reading is the most essential skill for success in all educational contexts as well as in ELT. Piasecka (2014) draws an analogy between understanding a FL text and a crossroad where different types of knowledge, linguistic and non-linguistic, and a variety of cognitive processes meet and interact. She points out the FL reading as a vital source of input and exposure to the language since it has various sources of implicit and explicit knowledge that have an impact on text comprehension. It is important to differentiate skill from strategy at this stage.

2.2.2. Defining Reading Skill and Strategy

Nokes & Dole (2004) make a distinction between skill and strategy: skill that involves more specific behaviors than strategies and often drilled to the point of automaticity as opposed to strategies involving conscious and intention. Strategy research suggests that less competent learners may improve their skills through training in strategies evidenced by learners that are more successful. At this viewpoint, strategies are seen as tools used to develop skills of learners in this sense it can be stated that the skill is a notion that covers strategies to become a skilled learner, and strategies can be considered as fundamental constituents of skills. Skilled readers can be called as the ones who have the knowledge of reading strategies or regulate and administer these strategies subconsciously. In other words, the readers who fail in reading comprehension might be not aware of these strategies and cannot employ, regulate and administer them that meta-cognitively skilled readers do. (Martinez, 2008; Sengupta, 1999; Chamot, 2004)

2.2.3. Reading Comprehension

Comprehension as the basic aim of reading for communication with the written texts seems to make the reading process hard. Ortega y Gasset (1959) emphasizes the hardship of reading for both natives and non-natives defining it as one-way communication, which readers cannot ask the writer questions, and he states that written texts may not provide about the situational context and the context of a written text, do not have nonlinguistic devices for the reader to convey meaning and emotion. Therefore, reading act

is considered as a process that is complex and has many cognitive efforts to make the comprehension successful.

There are three widely stated characteristics of reading comprehension as stressed by Papaja (2014): 1) goal-oriented, searching for meaning and sense, 2) an act of comprehension, highly active constructive process, the key to language learning as well as content learning lie, 3) dynamic and strategic (p. 196). Dewey (2004) argues that the language comprehension develops faster than language production. Reading comprehension, with the inclusion of cognitive processing, and the metacognitive efforts, have been vital issues in literature and these processes examined thoroughly to clarify what learners have been through to comprehend the written text when they enter in the reading process. The process has been discussed in literature by dividing the process into two levels. Higher level text processing which requires cognitive and metacognitive efforts that is related to text comprehension directly by enabling the reader to construct a meaning-based representation of the text (Cain & Oakhill, 2006), and lower level process which includes the use of lexical skills of readers such as knowledge of vocabulary, grammar rules. If lower level lexical skills are used efficiently, they help higher-level processes by providing necessary knowledge so these skills facilitate reading comprehension (Cain & Oakhill, 2006). In their study Sani, Chic, Nik, and Raslee (2011) found out that the learners only used the lower level reading strategies, and they do not make use of the metacognitive skills, which are of higher level reading strategies.

Additionally, Sani et al. (2011) claim that students always use the cognitive reading strategy because they are sufficient to answer questions in examination due to their lack of mastery of the higher level reading strategies and emphasize necessity of

metacognitive skills for students' effective reading. Villalobos (1991) discusses that "lower- level ideas are not well recalled because peripheral related information gets less rehearsed in memory" (p. 203).

2.3. Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) identifies learning strategies as steps for students to enhance their own learning in a fast, enjoyable, more self-directed, and effective way.

Most of the studies in literature conducted to understand the competences of second language learners who are good at reading comprehension.

With the study basing on the lack of knowledge of language educators about what their learners do, while attempting to understand reading materials, Shah (2010) found out that the good second language readers tended to use more reading strategies by comparing them with the average ones. She explains the reason as a frequent usage of better strategies used by the good readers.

Reading strategies are the procedures that readers lead in the act of reading to comprehend the written text and overcome difficulties they come across while reading. Higher order thinking is defined by Livingston (1997) as an active control mechanism over the cognitive processes engaged in learning.

Aydoğdu (2009) points out the foreign language teaching as a field in which students can learn how to become autonomous. He identifies autonomous learner as " the student who knows how to learn is the one who can take the responsibility of his own learning; who is aware of his needs and goals; who is able to choose the appropriate

sources and materials; who can identify his studying methods and who is able to evaluate his own performance”(p. 68).

<i>Memory Strategies</i>	Creating mental linkages, Applying images and sounds, Reviewing well Employing action
<i>Metacognitive Strategies</i>	Centering your learning Arranging and planning your learning Evaluating your learning
<i>Cognitive Strategies</i>	Practicing Receiving and sending messages Analyzing and reasoning Creating structure for input and output
<i>Affective Strategies</i>	Lowering your anxiety Encouraging yourself Taking your emotional temperature
<i>Social Strategies</i>	Asking questions Cooperating with others Empathizing with others
<i>Compensation strategies</i>	Guessing intelligently

Figure 1. Classification of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford ,1990, p. 17)

This aim not only requires different objectives and methods in language learning process in classrooms but it also aims to help the adult learners become more in control their learning.

According to Harmer, (2007) the role of a teacher depends on what it is the teacher desires the learners to achieve. “The adult learners’ reason and purpose for learning create the motivation to engage in adult learning therefore one has to understand why and what is the reason and purpose for engaging in adult learning” (Chao, 2009, p. 909). If a teacher works with adult learners the role of the teacher turns into facilitator, because the primary aim of teachers needs to be leading learners take their own learning responsibility, thus make them independent learners even after finishing their informal education.

Cognitive Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	Social and Affective Strategies
Resourcing	Organizational planning	Questioning for clarification
Grouping	Self-evaluation	Eliciting from a teacher or peer
Note taking	Advance organization	Cooperation
Summarizing	Selective attention	Self-talk
Deduction	Self-management	
Imagery	Advance preparation	
Auditory representation	Self-monitoring	
Elaboration		
Transfer		
Inference		

Figure 2. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Nunan (1995) states that raising learner awareness of learner strategies underlying the particular task in question would be a reasonable first step for teachers to make learners

autonomous. Chamot & O'Malley (1986) divided the learning strategies into the following classification scheme and they identified these strategies (Figure 2).

2.3.1. Reading Strategies

Most of the studies conducted in second language reading have focused on reading strategies that readers attempt to adapt to reading process. Studies in this area have revealed that the reading process is general, automatic, and subconscious and, reading strategies are defined as conscious subject to control, and purposeful techniques that readers use for successful reading (Cohen & Upton, 2006; Cohen, 2005; Williams & Moran, 1989).

Most of the studies conducted in second language reading have focused on reading strategies that readers attempt to adapt to reading process. Rupp, Ferne, and Choi (2006) define the reading strategies as conscious techniques and tactics deliberately employed by a reader for successful reading (p. 447). Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) have classified reading strategies into three broad categories:

1. Planning and identifying,
2. Monitoring strategies to regulate understanding, and learning.
3. Assessing strategies regarding to their reflection.

Strategies	Sub-skills
<i>Prediction</i>	Looking at headlines, pictures, typeface and layout to guess what you think a text will be about.
<i>Skim Reading</i>	Reading to get a general but not detailed understanding of the text.
<i>Gist reading</i>	Reading to get a general, but not detailed understanding of the text.
<i>Intensive reading</i>	Reading to get detailed information from the text.
<i>Inferring meaning</i>	Either guessing the meaning of new vocabulary in a text or understanding meaning, or a message in the text that is not immediately obvious.
<i>Extensive reading</i>	Reading the longer texts frequently over a period.

Figure 3. ESOL Teaching Skills Task Book

UR (1996) suggests various criteria that distinguish efficient from inefficient readers.

Efficient readers:

- can access content easier by changing reading speed according to the text,
- can select significant features of a text and skim the rest, can guess or infer meaning from context,
- think ahead by predicting outcomes,

- use background knowledge to help them understand the meaning,
- motivated to read the text as they see it as a challenge and the text has a purpose,
- can switch reading strategy according to the type of text they are reading.

ESOL Teaching Skills Task Book whose aim is to provide a material for teachers to use in ELT defines sub-skills and strategies of reading are set out in figure 3.

2.3.2. Reading Comprehension Strategies

Duke and Pearson (1992) summarize comprehension strategies, considering the benefits referenced from the result of their research: prediction/prior knowledge, think-aloud, text structure, visual representations, summarization, and questions/questioning. Nokes & Dole (2004) point out comprehension strategies, meta-cognition, and explicit instruction as three concepts, which are foundational to explicit strategy instruction. They also make a distinction between skill and strategy as, skill that involve more specific behaviors than strategies and often drilled to the point of automaticity as opposed to strategies involving conscious and intention. Puskorius (2013) defines comprehension in reading as “the process in which meaning is constructed and is a main goal of reading instruction for elementary students” and summarizes the reading comprehension strategies for teachers (Figure 4).

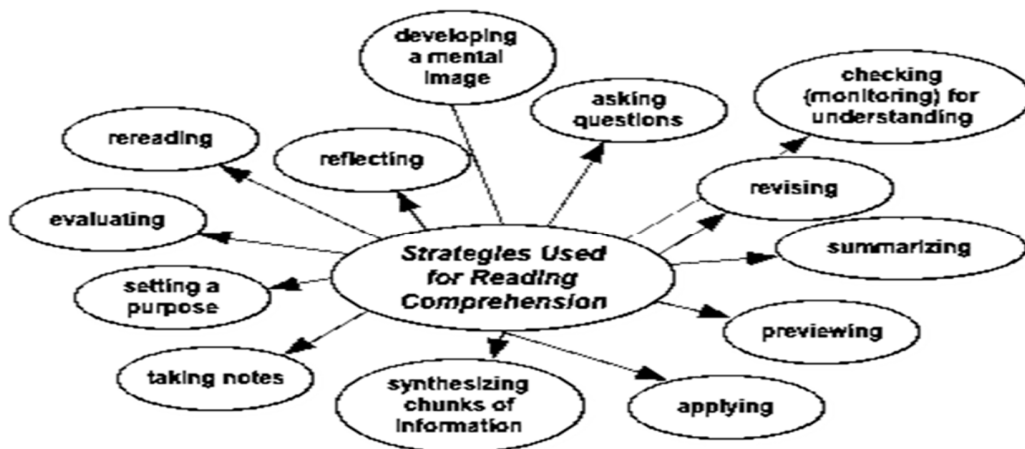


Figure 4. Reading Comprehension Strategies (Puskorius, 2013)

Researchers have focused on the relationship between reading strategies and comprehension through managing the readers’ interaction with the written text while reading. Carrel and Grabe (2002) state that readers engage this interaction not only at the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and discourse levels, but they also engage in “goal setting, text-summary building, interpretive elaborating from knowledge resources, monitoring and assessment of goal achievement, making various adjustments and repairs to enhance comprehension” (p. 234).

2.4. Metacognition and Skilled Readers

“We make meaning with different dimensions of awareness and understanding; in adulthood we may more clearly understand our experience when we know under what conditions an expressed idea is true or justified” (Mezirow & Associates 2000, p. 3). To reveal the relationship between strategy employment, and the success in comprehension researchers examine skilled and unskilled readers and great discrimination in awareness

and usage of strategies have revealed. Skilled readers have shown the conscious awareness of the strategic reading process and actual usage of reading strategies applied to handle FL reading (Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001).

These studies show precisely that the usage (cognitive strategies) and awareness (metacognitive strategies) of reading strategies are essential to second language reading comprehension. Pressley and Woloshyn (1995) advocate that possessing a large number of strategies and using them to deal with cognitive and meta-cognitive difficulties is necessary to be a successful strategy user. Papaja (2014) describes the process of reading comprehension as dynamic and strategic and suggest to introduce techniques and activities which are not boring for the learners and which require the use of various metacognitive strategies as the best idea. As for meta-cognition it is stated that “knowing ourselves includes knowing how we learn, knowing when we do or do not understand, and knowing our strengths and weaknesses” (Nokes& Dole, 2004, p. 165).

In this sense, explicit instruction methods have been developed, and suggested by many researchers to raise learners’ awareness on meta-cognitive strategies. One of them is an explicit instruction, which involves explicit training and teacher modeling, guided, and independent practice phases respectively described by Nokes and Doles (2004). The model of comprehension instruction suggested by Duke and Pearson (1992) has the following five stages; an explicit description of the strategy, Teacher and/or student modeling of the strategy in action, Collaborative use of the strategy in action, Guided practice using the strategy with gradual release of responsibility, Independent use of the strategy. Chamot (2004) states that instead of teaching student the name of every strategy defined in literature

teaching them how to use strategies that they consider as effective for the kinds of tasks that need to be accomplished in is important in strategy training.

2.4.1. Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Administering learning strategies is another mission that is essential to make right choices and to use them in the correct way. In other words, readers need to use cognitive strategies referred as techniques used to comprehend a written text and become metacognitively skilled readers, which enable readers to use the cognitive reading strategies in a conscious and purposeful way to succeed in reading comprehension. “In reading, metacognitive strategies are self-monitoring and self-regulating activities, focusing on both the process and the product of reading” (Zhang & Seepho, 2013, p.57). Schraw and Brooks summarize the requirement and features of metacognition in Figure 5 with the title of ‘Metacognitive Awareness: Encore to Strategies, Prelude to Self-Regulation’

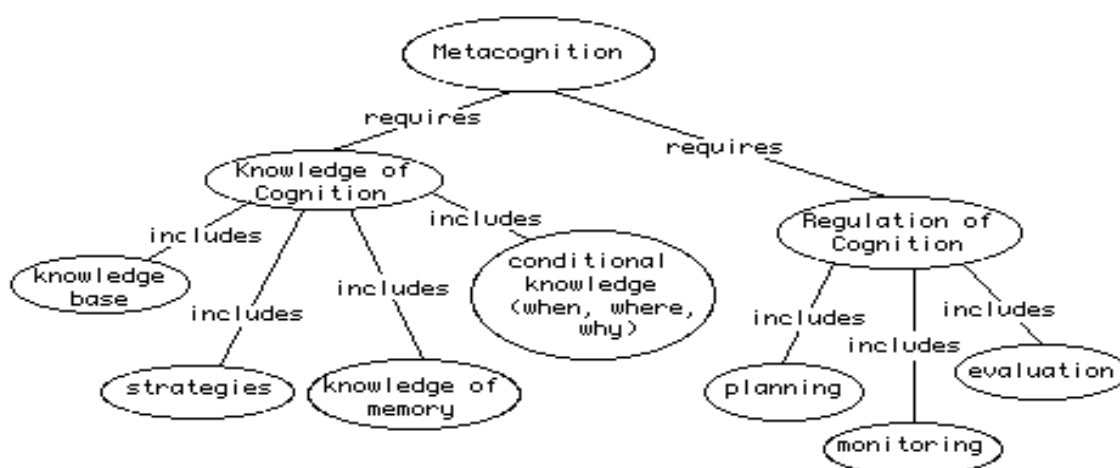


Figure 5. Metacognition (Schraw & Brooks, n. d.)

Oxford (1990) claims that metacognitive reading strategies can be seen as one of the six in sub-strategies of reading, which include direct attention, self-assessment, organization, goal setting, and objectives, and seeking opportunities for practice. Redfern and Weil (2002) advocates that, the awareness of metacognitive strategies permit students the possible benefits of conscious, purposeful use of learning strategies, and it can serve as an introduction to a longer-term focus on strategic learning.

2.4.2. Explicit Instructions for Metacognitive Strategies

For second language reading, many studies carried out to examine the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy use while reading and the studies reveal that instruction that aims to improve learners' metacognitive skills is beneficial for reading in FL. Hofer and Yu (2003) state that metacognitive training can increase students' motivation to learn since the metacognitive instruction may enhance students' sense of self-efficacy. In their study, Carrell et al. (1989) found out that metacognitive strategies enhanced L2 reading and there were significant interactions between students' learning styles and the effectiveness of using in different strategies.

The benefits of metacognitive skills for FL learners have been emphasized in literature accordingly; studies have concentrated on strategy instruction for FL learners. Prasansaph (2013) conducted a study to see the effect of metacognitive reading strategy instruction on EFL adolescent students. The results of the study showed that an explicit instruction of metacognitive reading strategies influenced students' reading comprehension and reading awareness. It was observed that EFL students in the study were able to show the evidence of their increasing metacognitive strategy awareness as the study went on and

demonstrated a statistical difference in reading comprehension of most EFL secondary students, regardless of their L2 language proficiency.

Researchers have been of the same mind about the necessity of the meta-cognitive awareness (Oxford, 1990; Duke & Pearson, 1992; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Chamot & O'Malley, 1996; Nokes & Dole, 2004; Prasansaph, 2013); as a consequence separate courses or regular language courses which are integrated with strategy training classes are recommended for FL learners (Chamot, 2004). Therefore, many strategy-training models are presented for educators to implement the language classes.

Chamot (2004) asserts that the explicit instruction needs to be integrated into regular course instead of separated learning strategy classes and he describes the ideal situation that all teachers in all subject areas teach learning strategies, as students become more likely to transfer strategies learned in one class to another class. However, Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) advocate that "Teachers can promote this awareness by simply informing students about effective problem-solving strategies and discussing cognitive and motivational characteristics of thinking" (p. 250).

The most famous model may be The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) instructional model developed in 1986 to meet the academic needs of students learning English as a second language in American schools (Chamot and O'Malley, 1997). The sequence of instruction in CALLA approach has steps to follow:

- 1) Preparation stage used to raise students awareness of what they are learning and make them familiar to the subject,

- 2) Presentation stage to present new information and topics, practice stage to get the students to use learning and language strategies in the classroom, and

3) Evaluation stage which includes learners' evaluation of their success.

2.5. The Role of Attitudes on Reading Difficulties

An attitude is an expression of favor or disfavor toward a person, place, thing, or event ("Attitude", 2004). There are many definitions of attitude in literature and one of the clearest belongs to Chapman (2002). He defines attitude as a summary evaluation of an object of thought. "Attitudes may encompass affective behavioral and cognitive response" (Chapman, 2002, p.5). Mager (1986) divides attitudes into two types; the favorable or positive attitude and unfavorable or negative attitude. He states that people move toward stimulus if they have a favorable attitude and they move away from the stimulus when they have an unfavorable attitude. Kerlinger (1984) states that attitudes affect people so that they have a certain tendency toward certain issues and individuals' emotions, motivations, and cognitive responses toward certain problems.

There are many studies aim to find out the factors that affect reading ability in literature. According to Mathewson (1994) people can behave in a certain way toward something if he or she has a certain thought or belief. Some researchers believe that learners' attitudes towards reading might have an impact on reading success. McKenna, Kear and Ellsworth (1995) claim that reading ability is related to beliefs about the outcome of reading. Guthrie & Wigfield (1997) advocate that the motivated readers hold positive beliefs about themselves as readers and similarly, struggling readers regard the cause of their reading difficulties to be themselves.

The components of attitudes towards reading are discussed in literature by many researchers (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Mathewson, 1994; McKenna et al., 1995; Guthrie &

Wigfield, 1997). The most mentioned of the components are cognitive components, which cover individuals' beliefs or opinions about reading, and affective components, consisting of individuals' feelings and evaluations of reading. Mathewson (1994) explains the components of attitudes towards reading as evaluative beliefs and feelings about reading, and readiness to read. Mathewson (1994) also advocates that these components affect the various aspects of reading behavior, such as attention, reading comprehension and strategy use and that a positive attitude toward reading helps a weak reader succeed in reading.

Many measurements and scales are used to examine attitudes. "Attitudes are not directly observable so if one wants to know a person's attitudes one has to find some other way of assessing it" (Chapman, 2002, p. 19). While the result of the study, which was conducted by Kush, Watkins & Brookhart (2005), shows no relationship between children's attitudes toward reading and their reading ability, Conlon, Zimmer-Gembeck, Creed, and Tucker (2006) found significant relationship between reading comprehension and reading attitude with adolescents as participants. It can be stated that the mentioned relationship may differ according to participants' age. Yıldırım (personal interview, March 3, 2014) states that learning process of adults can be more complicated due to their emotional components that affect their learning therefore their attitudes also need to be measured in this process if we want to get more valid information of their dysfunctional belief and schema, because the schema might have been learned by metacognitive process or therapies.

As teachers if we realize learners have problems with reading, we need to consider their attitudes towards reading, in this sense there is an essential need for measuring the

learners' attitudes towards reading to gain deeper insight into attitudes to get a clear picture of their reading difficulties.

2.6. Conclusion

All these findings have been effective to determine the theoretical structure of metacognitive regulation and its effects on reading comprehension, and teaching-learning process by revealing the possible consequences. The information from these studies and views above verifies that learners need to be awoken while reading to succeed at FL reading, in other words they need to be aware of which steps they take, while reading.

It is widely known that adult learners are already occupied with some reading comprehension skills, strategies, etc. and they do not aware of their cognitive process (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). Metacognitive strategies in reading are designed to increase learners' consciousness in their cognitive process, to be able to regulate, to improve their reading comprehension.(Zhang & Seepho, 2013, p. 58).

Metacognitive strategies, also known as self-regulation strategies are used at pre-reading, while reading and post reading steps to make readers aware of his/her own reading process and this kind of awareness gives readers a chance to regulate their own reading. In other words, the metacognitive reading strategies enable the reader to monitor and administer their own reading process. Regarding their English Language proficiency, which let them translate the texts into their L1, it can be considered that the failure of YDS test takers might be due to the lack of using metacognitive reading strategies.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The research design, the participants of the study, and data collection tool used in this study, presented in this chapter. The third chapter also consists of the information about the procedure of data collection and the method of data analysis, used to answer the research questions. In addition, the rationale for using Quantitative approach in the present study and the validity and reliability of the instruments were discussed.

3.2. Research Design

The research questions of the study were responded to by following a quantitative approach. Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil (2002,) states that the quantitative approach consists of techniques such as “randomization, blinding, highly- structured protocols, and written or orally administered questionnaires with a limited range of predetermined responses to measure and analyze causal relationships between variables within a value-free framework” (p. 45).

This study was conducted by using a descriptive method, with two different surveys as the instrument in collecting the data. Since a quantitative approach gives a chance to the researcher to investigate a phenomenon without having any influence on it or

being influenced by it Sale et al (2002, p. 44), the researcher considered the survey method as a good way to address the research questions of the present study.

Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSII) was conducted to evaluate YDS test takers' metacognitive skills and to determine the reading strategies employed by YDS test takers most frequently.

Aiming to investigate the YDS test takers attitudes toward reading the Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes (ASRA) was employed, and the findings from two surveys were examined to analyze causal relationships between the levels of YDS test takers' attitudes towards reading and their metacognitive skills.

3.3. Participants

YDS test takers from different learning environments who were enrolled in private courses to prepare for the YDS test that assesses test takers' knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension and translation, constitute the population of this study. The test takers are at pre-intermediate, and intermediate levels and they have been trying to meet their needs with the support of publications, which are established according to YDS. 30 participants were selected randomly from a group of graduate EFL learners in different professional fields, and undergraduates in different majors and they are taking the test to advance their academic career.

3.4. Data Collection Tool

In order to respond the research questions of the study two different surveys were employed. All information for these inventories was presented.

3.4.1. Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory

Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) criticize the collection tools existing up to that time for measuring metacognitive awareness of middle or upper level students in reading regarding “the use of scales with a small number of items, limited psychometric properties, evidence of reliability and validity, or an uncertain characterization of the construct of metacognition in particular and reading in general”(p.250).

The instrument used in the study is Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSİ) created by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). MARSİ, which was created to measure adolescent and adult readers’ metacognitive skills, and perceived use of reading strategies, is an outcome of a demanding work. In many studies, researchers have used MARSİ (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Gelen, 2003; Ateş, 2013; Dawaideh & Saadi, 2013), to discover the reading strategies that are frequently used by language learners, to analyze the links between metacognitive reading skills of FL readers and their attitudes, success on reading, strategy choice, etc. With the assistance of knowledgeable expert judges that were experienced in teaching and assessment of reading strategies in the process of selecting and categorizing the strategy statements within the instrument (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

Inventory Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
1. I have a purpose in mind when I read.	639		
2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I am reading.			728
3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I am reading.	418	404	
4. I preview the text to see what it is about before reading it.	470		
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I am reading.		375	375
6. I write summaries to reflect on key ideas in the text.			773
7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my purpose.	597		
8. I read slowly but carefully to be sure, I understand what I am reading.		454	
9. I discuss my reading with others to check my understanding.			571
10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	640		
11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.		679	
12. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.			616
13. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.		512	
14. I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	582		
15. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I am reading.			493
16. When text becomes difficult, I begin to pay closer attention to what I am reading.		553	
17. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	385		
18. I stop from time to time to think about what I am reading.		605	
19. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	407		
20. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I am reading.			526
21. I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I am reading.		632	
22. I use typographical aids like boldface type and italics to identify key information.	425		
23. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	.308		354
24. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.			511
25. I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	352	325	
26. I try to guess what the text is about when reading.	373	303	
27. When text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding.		634	
28. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.			.510
29. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	.389		

Figure 6. Standard Coefficients of Rotated Factor Pattern of MARSI

Mokhtari and Reichard (2002, p. 251) point out the efforts in development processes of the inventory, and they state that the MARSII became the current form (Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002, p. 260), which includes 30 items collected under three factors as you can see in figure 6. Mokhtari and Reichard (2002, p. 259) describe each factor as follows:

1. Global Reading Strategies(GLOB): They are intentional, carefully planned techniques, with which learners monitor or manage their reading. (Items 1, 3, 4, 7, 10, 14, 17, 19, 22, 23, 25, 26, 29) Examples: to set an aim for reading, activating background knowledge, checking text content, guessing what the text is about, skimming, and recognizing the textual features to use contextual tips.

2. Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) strategies; the localized, focused techniques used when problems develop in understanding textual information. (Items 8, 11, 13, 16, 18, 21, 27, 30) Examples are reading slowly and carefully, adjusting reading rate, paying close attention to reading, pausing to reflect on reading, rereading, visualizing the information read, reading text aloud, and guessing the meaning of unknown words.

3. Support Reading Strategies (SUP) strategies: the basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text. (Items 2, 5, 6, 9, 12, 15, 20, 24, 28) Examples are; taking notes while reading, paraphrasing text, and revisiting previously read information, asking self-questions, using reference materials as aids, underlining textual information, discussing reading with others, and writing summaries of the reading. Measuring the scores of the survey is quiet easy; figure7 shows how to grade participants' scores.

Statement Options	Scores	Score Range	Scale Evaluation
'I never or almost never do this'	1	1,00 – 1,79	Low
'I do this only occasionally'.	2	1,80 – 2,59	
'I sometimes do this'	3	2,60 – 3,39	Medium
'I usually do this'.	4	3,40 – 4,19	
'I always or almost always do this'.	5	4,20 – 5,00	High

Figure 7. MARSIS Scale Evaluation (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002, p. 254)

The study of Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) showed that Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory was reliable and valid to measure individuals' awareness of these strategies and their preferences, during academic reading(p. 252-254)

3.4.2. Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes

Adult Survey of Reading Attitude questionnaire (ASRA) was adapted from another questionnaire which was developed for assessing children's reading attitudes(Wallbrown, Brown, Engin, 1977). Smith (1990) made item revisions and found ASRA consisted of forty items related to reading attitudes by making little changes such as; reading information for an occupation or a social activity or defining reading as an activity instead of subject the survey became more applicable to adults. The internal consistency of the questionnaires was tested through SPSS by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients. ASRA is considered a valid and reliable survey to measure the adults' attitudes in reading and used by several researchers (Brooks, 1996; Smith, 1990; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Karabuğa, 2012) in their studies.

Category	Item Number
Reading activity and enjoyment (RAE)	8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 17, 23, 24, 27, 31, 33,39
Reading anxiety and difficulty(RAD)	2, 4, 6, 16, 18, 19, 20, 26, 32, 36, 37, 7
Reading modes (RM)	1,15, 21, 25, 29, 34, 7
Social reinforcement (SR)	5, 9, 22, 28, 30, 38, 40
Tutoring others in reading (TOR)	3, 35

Figure 8. Categories of ASRA

Participants respond on a five-point Likert-type scale to the statements ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The forty items of the survey were grouped around five factors by the factor analysis conducted by Smith (1990). They are presented in Figure 8 (Smith, 1990, p. 216).

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

In order to conduct the present study, a period of the class time, which lasted forty minutes, was taken. The researcher got permission from the teacher of each class and the administration of the language school. The researcher directly administered both surveys in person where the participants were comfortable. First, the researcher explained the aim of the research and then the hard copies of surveys were distributed to each participant. The YDS test takers were asked to rate ASRA at first and directions were read aloud to ensure that all participants understood the rating scale. It took 15 minutes for the participants to complete survey.

After that, they were invited to rate MARSİ by reading each statement of the strategy, and respond to it by considering their experiences with FL reading comprehension. The directions of the inventory were read aloud again to facilitate understanding. They took 20 minutes to complete the MARSİ and the surveys were collected.

3.6. Data Analysis

In this study, the data were analyzed quantitatively to develop descriptive statistics. The factors of both surveys including each item were analyzed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), and the means of variables gathered from the data were determined. The surveys were also analyzed for internal consistency by using Cronbach's alpha. Correlation coefficients of the survey were computed to ascertain if the items on the scales were correlated with the other items and with the total score, and the standard deviation of the results were included to reach a “well-rounded description that would satisfy most purposes reliability analysis of the scores” (Şahinkarakaş, 2013).

The strategy preferences of the participants were analyzed by using the averages of each factor from MARSİ for all participants. Through these examinations, the level of participants' awareness of metacognitive reading skills and the reading strategies employed most frequently by them were determined. The data from ASRA was analyzed for mean reported frequencies in order to highlight the participants' attitudes toward reading. The relationship between the participants' attitudes and their metacognitive skills was measured with the assistance of Pearson correlation coefficients to build up a clear picture of the correlation.

METHODOLOGY SUMMARY

Research Design	Quantitative, Descriptive, Survey Method
Participants	30 YDS takers at Pre-intermediate, and Intermediate levels Randomly selected Graduate students in different field of profession, and undergraduates in different majors
Instruments	Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSII) Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes (ASRA)
Data Analysis	Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Cronbach's alpha Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Figure 9. The methodology of the study

CHAPTER 4

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter of the study presents the analysis of the data and findings gathered from the data collection tools used in the study.

4.2. Internal Consistency of the Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategy Inventory

The result of the reliability analysis of the data indicated is presented in table 1, a reasonably reliable measure of participants' meta-cognitive awareness of reading strategies.

Table 1. Internal consistency of MARS I

Survey	Cronbach's alpha	N of Items
The first half of the survey	,70	15
The second half of the survey	.79	15
All survey	,85	30

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for half of the survey revealed that the alpha score of the first half (.70 over 15 items), and the second half (.79 over 15 items) in the MARS I were approximate which means the responses from the participants are reliable.

The Cronbach's alpha value of whole survey was .80, which showed a high-value reliability of the instrument (Kalaycı, 2010).

4.3. Internal Consistency of the Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes (ASRA)

The result of the reliability analysis of the data proved that the survey is a reliable measure of participants' attitudes towards reading. The Cronbach's alpha value for half of the survey revealed that the values of the first half (.61) and the second half (.74) of the items were approximate. The Cronbach's alpha of whole survey was .80, shown in table 2, it was sufficient to use the scale to measure participants' attitudes towards reading in the present study

Table 2. Internal consistency of ASRA

Survey	Cronbach's alpha	N of Items
The first half of the survey	,61	20
The second half of the survey	.74	20
All survey	,80	40

4.4. YDS test takers' Reading Strategy preferences

The patterns of strategy choice in relation to individual strategies, types of strategy, and overall strategy use were analyzed by examining the means and the standard

deviations of all items in MARSI. The participants' responses in terms of the three MARSI categories were examined to find out the most frequently used ones. For this purpose, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each subscale. Each category of strategy preferences of YDS test takers is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Metacognitive strategies employed by the YDS test takers

Category	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
SUP	2,67	4,56	3,41	,40
GLOB	3,08	4,85	3,85	,51
PROB	2,50	4,88	4,06	,54
N				30

As far as the three categories of strategies are concerned, YDS test takers showed a clear high usage, ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 0.54$), of problem solving strategies followed by global reading strategies ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 0.51$) and support reading strategies ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.40$). The overall score averages indicate that participants use PROB strategies most while reading in FL.

GLOB strategies had the second highest score, which have a purpose of “setting the stage for reading act” (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). Since they are generalized strategies to set purposes for reading such as critically analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text, and taking an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading, GLOB strategies might not be considered the best ones to use in YDS

for the test takers or they may not know some of them. The means and standard deviations of responses to each factor and each question can be found in table 12 carefully examined along with a total that gives the overall average of the responses.

4.4.1. Findings of Problem Solving Strategies

As their prime choice, PROB strategies are presented with their means and standard deviation to find out each strategy in table 4. Within the category of problem-solving strategies, all strategies were reported to have frequent usage, indicating that YDS test takers were generally aware of their comprehension process and were able to use the focused techniques when they come across problems in comprehending textual information. For example they reported that they paid closer attention (Item 14, $M = 4.30$, $SD = 0.79$) to what they read, or they re-read to increase their understanding (Item 25, $M = 3.97$, $SD = 1.06$) when text becomes difficult.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for scoring Problem Solving Strategies (PROB)

No	Questionnaire Item	Mean	SD
9	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	3,83	1,02
11	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	4,17	,98
14	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	4,30	,79
16	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	4,17	,98
19	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	3,90	1,26
25	When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding	3,97	1,06
28	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	4,13	1,10

The mentioned strategies lead readers to plan their actions to overcome difficulties in text skillfully.

4.4.2. Findings of Global Reading Strategies

In table 5 we can see that they clearly showed involvement in comprehension monitoring by pausing to reflect on their reading (Item 16, $M = 4.17$, $SD = .98$) and adjusting their reading rate (Item 11, $M = 4.17$, $SD = .98$).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for scoring Global Reading Strategies (GLOB)

No	Questionnaire Item	Mean	SD
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	4,10	1,06
3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	3,93	1,01
4	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	3,40	1,32
6	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	4,20	,714
8	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	3,53	1,10
12	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	3,73	1,11
15	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	3,53	1,19
17	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	4,03	,89
20	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	3,40	1,35
21	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	4,00	,87
23	I critically analysis and evaluate the information presented in the text.	4,37	,66
24	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	4,30	,70
27	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.	3,60	1,24

“Such strategies are localized, focused problem-solving or repair strategies used when problems develop in understanding textual information” (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002, p. 251).

4.4.3. Findings of Support Reading Strategies

While some support strategies such as: translating from English into a native language (Item 29, $M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.36$) or thinking about information in both English and a native language (Item 30, $M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.30$) were among the least favored ones.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for scoring Support Reading Strategies (SUP)

No	Questionnaire Item	Mean	SD
2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	3,60	1,16
5	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	3,17	1,62
10	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	4,50	0,90
13	I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	3,50	1,46
18	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	3,13	1,36
22	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	3,97	0,81
26	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	3,40	1,25
29	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	2,73	1,36
30	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	2,77	1,30

Other strategies to support their comprehension such as visualizing information (Item 19, $M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.26$), and guessing the meaning of unknown words (Item 28, $M = 4.13$, $SD = 1.10$) were reported as frequently used strategies.

Participants were asked to respond to the survey considering academic materials, which they study from while preparing for YDS or during the test itself. Therefore, it is a reasonable result that the SUP strategies, which involve use of outside reference materials such as dictionary use, taking notes, were the least used ones. It can be concluded that participants were flexible in their strategy selection (table 6).

4.5. YDS test takers' Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies

Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSİ) was analyzed to evaluate YDS test takers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies for responding to the second research question. MARSİ involves 30 items and a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (I never do this) to 5 (I always do this) and the evaluation of score ranges were based on the following criteria.

The frequency of 4, 20 to 5, 00 is taken as indicating high strategy use, 2, 60 to 3, 39 as medium, and 1, 00 to 1, 79 as low. The above analysis showed that the participants were able to employ metacognitive reading strategies during their comprehension process. If we look at figure 9, we can draw the conclusion that YDS test takers can be characterized as metacognitively skilled readers.

As can be seen appendix 2, 26 of the strategies were reported to be used with high frequency that can give us sufficient information about the high level of participants' metacognitive awareness.

They almost all had a tendency to use reading strategies, therefore it can be concluded from the results that YDS test takers were both conscious of their cognitive process and they can monitor and administer them during reading in FL.

The 85% of high frequency use was under the GLOB which includes planning, monitoring, managing strategies and PROB that are used to help focus on reading by adjusting techniques, which means they have a noticeable awareness of metacognitive reading strategies.

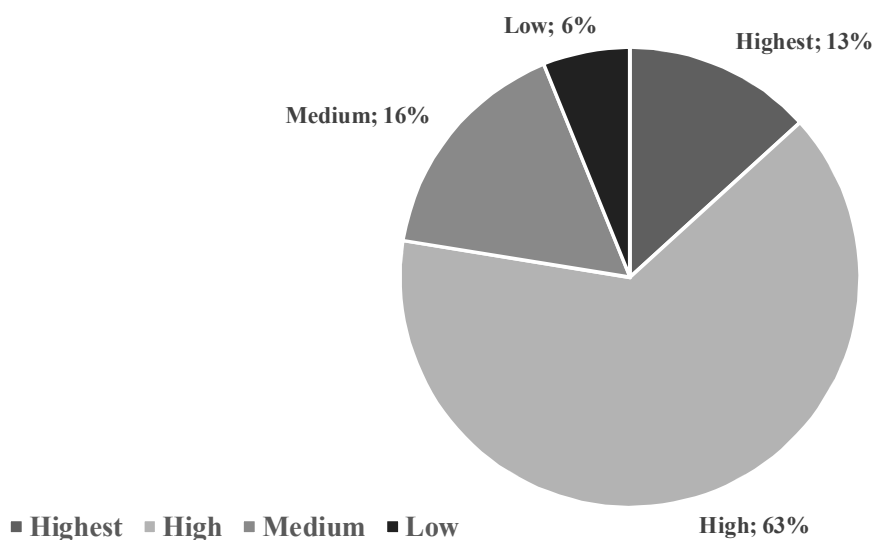


Figure 10. YDS test takers' metacognitive reading strategy use.

4.6. YDS test takers' Attitudes toward Reading

YDS test takers who are pre-intermediate and intermediate level FL learners, were assessed with ASRA to determine their attitudes towards reading. The data from the questionnaire were calculated for the interpretation and analysis. The findings showed that there were positive responses from the participants, it can be concluded that the participants had a positive attitude toward reading. The general average score of the survey (120) was calculated considering the highest score (200) and the lowest score (40) of the survey, and the participants' attitudes towards reading were determined accordingly. In that case, it was regarded that the negative attitudes were below 120 and the positive attitudes were above 120. The average score of the respondents was 135, which means YDS test takers have positive attitudes towards reading and only 11% of the participants were below the average score. The mean scores and standard deviations of each category were calculated in SPSS. The results also showed that items of the RAE and SR categories had the highest score from the participants as shown in table 7.

The analysis above showed that YDS test takers have positive attitudes towards reading. It also provides a different point of view about problems, which participants experience in YDS test.

Their attitudes towards reading might not cause difficulties in comprehension during the test. The means and standard deviations of each item of the survey can be seen in appendix 3.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Each category of ASRA

Category	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
RM	1,57	5,00	2,62	,77
RAD	1,92	4,67	3,45	,67
RAE	1,42	4,92	3,48	,83
SR	2,29	5,00	3,59	,79
TOR	2,00	5,00	3,86	,81
N				30

4.7. Bivariate Correlations between All Variables

A Pearson correlation analysis was run to examine whether the participants' overall use of metacognitive strategies were correlated with their attitudes toward reading. The general average score of the ASRA was 120 so, a score above 120 was determined positive while below 120 was agreed as a negative attitude toward reading. The average score of the respondents was 135, which means YDS test takers have positive attitudes towards reading and only 11% of the participants were below the average score.

The results also showed that items of the RAE and SR categories had the highest score from the participants. The Pearson correlation analysis showed that overall use of metacognitive strategies and their attitudes toward reading had a weak correlation as it is shown in table 8. In addition, there appeared to be a strong correlation within the factors of both surveys as another finding from the correlation analysis.

Table 8. Correlation findings between MARSI and ASRA

		RAE	RAD	RM	SR	TOR	GLOB	PROB	SUB
RAE	Pearson Correlation		273	442*	816**	583**	449*	055	461*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		144	015	000	001	013	772	010
RAD	Pearson Correlation	273		683**	422*	165	286	,071	175
	Sig. (2-tailed)	144		000	020	383	126	711	354
RM	Pearson Correlation	442*	683**		401*	316	144	,236	230
	Sig. (2-tailed)	015	000		028	089	447	209	222
SR	Pearson Correlation	816**	422*	401*		546**	412*	,060	337
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000	020	028		002	024	754	068
TOR	Pearson Correlation	583**	165	316	546**		430*	207	469*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001	383	089	002		018	272	009
GLOB	Pearson Correlation	449*	286	144	412*	430*		504**	643*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	013	126	447	024	018		005	000
PROB	Pearson Correlation	055	,071	,236	,060	207	504**		618*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	772	711	209	754	272	005		000
SUB	Pearson Correlation	461*	175	230	337	469**	643**	618**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	010	354	222	068	009	000	000	

N: 30

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to give a brief summary of the present study, and to discuss the findings. The discussions will be followed by implications. The final aim of the chapter is to guide future researchers for further research.

5.2. Summary of the Study

Following the design of a survey method, the study was based on quantitative data. The MARSII was delivered to investigate YDS test takers' use of reading strategies and ASRA was delivered to determine their attitudes toward reading. After that, each questionnaire was examined for statistical analysis to answer the research questions of the study. The frequency of strategy choice, types of strategy, and overall strategy use were analyzed to get descriptive statistics by examining the means and standard deviations of the data. Accordingly the average and percentages of the choice of strategy, and the use of metacognitive reading strategies of each participant were reached. YDS test takers' attitudes were measured to get an idea about the relationship between metacognitive reading strategy awareness and their attitudes. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 21.0) was employed for the statistical analysis of the data. In order to

evaluate the data, descriptive statistics methods were preferred. This study aims to answer the following research questions.

5.2.1. Research Question 1

What kind of strategies do YDS test takers use most to handle reading sections of YDS?

This research question proposed to investigate the reading strategies that YDS test takers use to deal with English academic materials during the YDS. The overall score averages indicated that YDS test takers use problem solving strategies most ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 0.54$), and global reading strategies had the second highest score ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 0.51$), followed by support reading strategies as the least used category ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.40$).

5.2.2. Research Question 2

Are the YDS test takers aware of metacognitive reading skills?

The second research question of this study seeks to answer whether the YDS test takers are aware of their reading skills or not. The results of the MARSI analysis which consists of 30 items with 3 categories were computed in order to find out whether the participants were aware of the reading skills. The survey was the same instrument used to collect data to find answers to the first research question of this study, and the high usage category was identified for means of 3.5 or higher; the medium usage category for 2.5 to 3.4; and 2.4 or lower were considered low usage. The results showed that 23 of the 30 strategies (76%) placed into the High Usage Group while 5

strategies (16%) fell into the medium usage category and the remaining 2 strategies of the survey (6%) were in the low usage group.

5.2.3. Research Question 3

Is there a correlation between YDS test takers' attitudes towards reading and their level of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies?

Aiming to answer the last research question, the factors of MARS and ASRA were analyzed by Pearson correlation. There was a weak correlation between the participants' problem solving strategies, and reading activity and enjoyment items and social reinforcement items, attitudes towards reading metacognitive awareness levels and their attitudes towards reading. Table 9 also revealed a significant correlation between the factors of both surveys.

5.3. Discussion and Conclusion

This study attempted to investigate 30 intermediate and pre intermediate level YDS test takers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. It gave us a chance to determine the most employed reading strategies of YDS test takers for the test.

Problem solving strategies were reported as frequently used, indicating that the participants were generally aware of their comprehension process and were able to use the focused techniques when they come across problems in comprehending textual information. Problem solving strategies also help readers plan their reading process to overcome difficult problems in text. Since they are generalized strategies to set purposes for reading such as critically analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text,

global reading strategies might not be considered the best ones to use in YDS for the test takers or they may not know some of them.

This investigation also provided us a measure of the YDS test takers' levels of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. The results showed that YDS test takers both know and use reading strategies, which means they are metacognitively skilled FL readers. It has provided empirical evidence that employing metacognitive reading strategies does not play a significant role in the reading comprehension questions of YDS.

The findings of the instruments demonstrated that YDS test takers are metacognitively skilled FL readers and, the problem solving strategies were reported as reading strategies employed by YDS test takers most frequently, indicating that the participants were generally aware of their comprehension process and were able to use the focused techniques when they come across problems in comprehending textual information. It was also found that YDS test takers have positive attitudes towards reading and, the degree of YDS test takers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies does not have a strong relationship with their reading attitude. It has provided an evidence that YDS test takers' lack of metacognitive strategy use is not a reason why YDS test takers have difficulties in FL reading during the test.

Based on the results of the present study, the degree of YDS test takers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies does not have a strong relationship with their reading attitude. It can also be concluded that YDS test takers' problems are not related to their attitude or metacognitive strategy use. YDS test takers' lack of metacognitive strategy use is not a reason why they have difficulties in FL reading during the test, therefore the required implementation in their preparation process cannot be strategy-training classes.

5.4. Recommendations for Further Study

Some findings of this study lead us to think more carefully about the size of samples. It could have been investigated with the bigger sampling to generalize. The main limitation of the study may be the sampling size of the study. It was limited, with only 30 YDS test takers at the same language school in Mersin, therefore the findings cannot be generalized to all populations. Suggestions for further research may be conducting the same study with a bigger sampling of participants.

The study gave us a chance to ponder the reasons behind this problem. YDS test takers have difficulties and failures as a result in reading comprehension sections of YDS.

When we consider the findings of the study, it is quite odd to see that these meta-cognitively skilled YDS test takers who also have positive attitudes toward reading, have failures in the sections claimed to be prepared to assess reading comprehension skills of test takers.

Having such a low success rate (See Figure 10) in a national test, which has a vital importance for test takers', is extremely confusing. In this respect, it may be necessary to conduct a study with the aim of investigating YDS itself, to find out whether the related sections really assess test takers' reading comprehension skills. In order to find out the main causes of their problems, the suggested further study can also involve conducting research with different data collection tools to investigate the different skills of the test taker.

We may find many reasons for the increasing failure rate (See Figure 11), such as test anxiety, perceptual biases, time management, or fear of failure because of previous

experiences. Suggestions for further study to researchers may be to conduct studies with a bigger sampling of participants by considering these probable reasons.

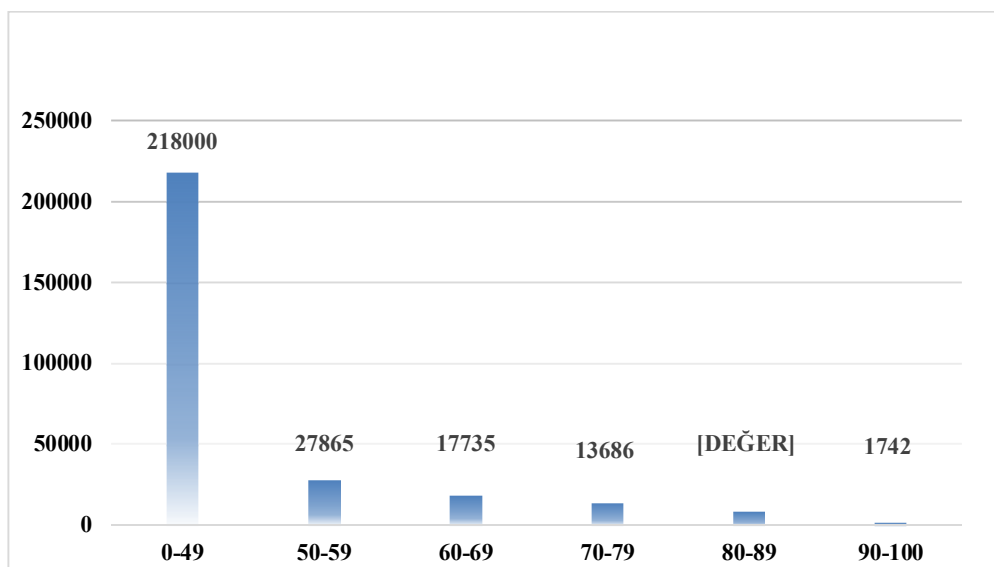


Figure 11. Scores averages of 2013 spring term YDS

In addition, the participants were selected randomly from a group of graduate EFL learners in different professional fields, and undergraduates in different majors. They have only one thing in common; they take the test to advance their academic career. YDS test takers' previous learning environments and their professional fields were not taken into consideration and YDS test takers could have been analyzed in occupational aspects.

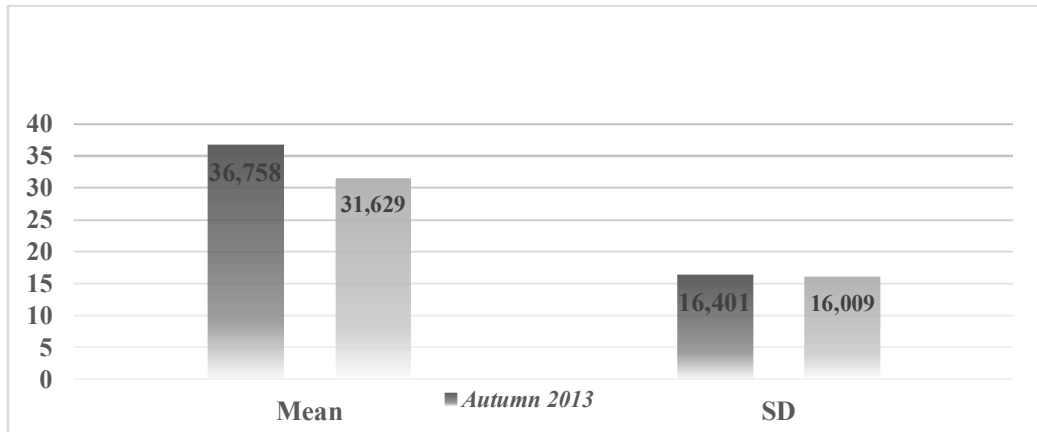


Figure 12. The statistics of YDS 2013-2014

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7. APPENDICES

7.1 Appendix 1: Survey of Reading Strategies

SURVEY OF READING STRATEGIES

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the various strategies you use when you read academic materials in ENGLISH for YDS. Five numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 follow each statement, and each number means the following:

- '1' 'I never or almost never do this'.
- '2' 'I do this only occasionally'.
- '3' 'I sometimes do this'. (About 50 % of the time)
- '4' 'I usually do this'.
- '5' 'I always or almost always do this'.

After reading each statement, circle the number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which applies to you. Note that there is no right or wrong responses to any of the items on this survey.

**THERE ARE 30 STATEMENTS. PLEASE READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY
AND RESPOND TO EACH ONE.**

1. I have a purpose in mind when I read. 1 2 3 4 5
2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it. 1 2 3 4 5
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. 1 2 3 4 5
6. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose. 1 2 3 4 5
7. I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading. 1 2 3 4 5
8. I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it. 1 2 3 4 5
11. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading. 1 2 3 4 5
12. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. 1 2 3 4 5
13. I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read. 1 2 3 4 5
14. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading. 1 2 3 4 5
15. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding. 1 2 3 4 5
16. I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading. 1 2 3 4 5
17. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read. 1 2 3 4 5
20. I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information. 1 2 3 4 5
21. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text. 1 2 3 4 5
22. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. 1 2 3 4 5
23. I check my understanding when I come across new information. 1 2 3 4 5
24. I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read. 1 2 3 4 5
25. When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding. 1 2 3 4 5
26. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text. 1 2 3 4 5
27. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong. 1 2 3 4 5
28. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. 1 2 3 4 5
29. When reading, I translate from English into my native language. 1 2 3 4 5
30. When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue. 1 2 3 4 5

7.2. Appendix 2: Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes

ADULT SURVEY OF READING ATTITUDES

The statements in this survey are concerned with the way you feel about reading. THERE IS NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS, because people have different opinions and feelings about reading. For example, if I say, "reading is a source of pleasure for me" I am sure many people would say that this statement is not true for them. Therefore, it is important that you indicate how YOU really feel.

Please read each of the statements carefully. After you read each statement, decide if you agree or disagree with the statement.

Following each statement is a scale from 5 to 1:

Circle 5 if you STRONGLY AGREE with the statement.

Circle 4 if you AGREE with the statement.

Circle 3 if you are UNCERTAIN how you feel about the statement.

Circle 2 if you DISAGREE with the statement.

Circle 1 if you STRONGLY DISAGREE with the statement.

THERE ARE 40 STATEMENTS. PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH ONE.

1. I learn better, when someone shows me what to do than if I just read what to do.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I need many help in reading.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I get a lot of satisfaction when I help other people with their reading problems, or when I read to others.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I get upset when I think about having to read.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Whenever my friends read a good book, they usually tell me about it.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I can read but I do not understand what I have read.	5	4	3	2	1
7. There are better ways to learn new things than by reading a book.	5	4	3	2	1
8. I am a good reader.	5	4	3	2	1
9. My friends enjoy having me tell them about the books that I read.	5	4	3	2	1
10. When I am at home, I read a lot.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Reading is one of the best ways for me to learn things.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Most books in the public library are too difficult for me.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Reading is one of my favorite activities.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I want to have more books of my own.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I would rather have someone explain something to me than to try to learn it from a book.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I often feel anxious when I have a lot of reading to do.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I read when I have the time to enjoy it.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I try very hard, but I just cannot read very well.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I quickly forget what I have read even if I have just read it.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I get nervous if I have to read a lot of information for my job or for some social activity.	5	4	3	2	1
21. Encountering unfamiliar words is the hardest part of reading.	5	4	3	2	1
22. My friends and I often discuss the books we have read.	5	4	3	2	1
23. I get a lot of enjoyment from reading.	5	4	3	2	1
24. I would rather read what to do than to have someone tell me what to do.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I remember the things people tell me better than the things I read.	5	4	3	2	1
26. I worry a lot about my reading.	5	4	3	2	1
27. I like going to the library for books.	5	4	3	2	1
28. When I read an interesting book, story, or article I like to tell my friends about it.	5	4	3	2	1
29. It is easier for me to understand what I am reading if pictures, charts, and diagrams are included.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I like to listen to other people talk about the books they have read.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Reading is one of the most interesting things, which I do.	5	4	3	2	1
32. When I read I, usually get tired and sleepy.	5	4	3	2	1
33. I am the kind of person who enjoys a good book.	5	4	3	2	1
34. I have a lot in common with people who are poor readers.	5	4	3	2	1
35. I enjoy it when someone asks me to explain unfamiliar words or ideas to them.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I try to avoid reading because it makes me feel anxious.	5	4	3	2	1
37. I have trouble understanding what I read.	5	4	3	2	1
38. I am afraid that people may find out what a poor reader I am.	5	4	3	2	1
39. I spend a lot of my spare time reading.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I enjoy receiving books as gifts.	5	4	3	2	1

7.3. Appendix 3: Descriptive Statistics of ASRA

	No	Questionnaire Item	Mean	SD
RAD	2	I need many help in reading.	3,46	1,47
	4	I get upset when I think about having to read.	3,53	1,22
	6	I can read but I do not understand what I have read.	3,86	1,19
	16	I often feel anxious when I have a lot of reading to do.	2,9	1,39
	18	I try very hard, but I just cannot read very well.	3,36	1,15
	19	I quickly forget what I have read even if I have just read it.	3,7	1,36
	20	I get nervous if I have to read a lot of information for my job or for some social activity.	3,16	1,36
	26	Encountering unfamiliar words is the hardest part of reading.	3,76	1,07
	32	I get a lot of enjoyment from reading.	3,06	1,31
	36	I would rather read what to do than to have someone tell me what to do.	4	1,05
	37	I remember the things people tell me better than the things I read.	3,73	1,2
	7	There are better ways to learn new things than by reading a book.	3,46	1,47
	RAE	8	I am a good reader.	3,46
10		When I am at home, I read a lot.	3,43	1,3
11		Reading is one of the best ways for me to learn things.	3,9	1,29
13		Reading is one of my favorite activities.	3,36	1,27
14		I want to have more books of my own.	3,73	1,31
17		I read when I have the time to enjoy it.	3,63	1,32
23		I get a lot of enjoyment from reading.	3,63	1,32
24		I would rather read what to do than to have someone tell me what to do.	3,66	1,09
27		I like going to the library for books.	2,8	1,27
31		Reading is one of the most interesting things, which I do.	3,2	1,37
33		I am the kind of person who enjoys a good book.	3,9	1,21
39	I spend a lot of my spare time reading.	3,03	1,29	
RM	1	I learn better, when someone shows me what to do than if I just read what to do.	2,23	1,22
	15	I would rather have someone explain something to me than to try to learn it from a book.	2,93	1,5
	21	Encountering unfamiliar words is the hardest part of reading.	2,5	1,45
	25	I remember the things people tell me better than the things I read.	2,7	1,31
	29	It is easier for me to understand what I am reading if pictures, charts, and diagrams are included.	1,7	1,02
	34	I have a lot in common with people who are poor readers.	3,46	1,35
SR	7	There are better ways to learn new things than by reading a book.	2,83	1,36
	5	Whenever my friends read a good book, they usually tell me about it.	3,26	1,22
	9	My friends enjoy having me tell them about the books that I read.	3,43	1,13
	22	My friends and I often discuss the books we have read.	3,3	1,31
	28	When I read an interesting book, story, or article I like to tell my friends about it.	3,96	0,88
	30	I like to listen to other people talk about the books they have read.	3,83	1,2
	38	I am afraid that people may find out what a poor reader I am.	3,8	1,29
	40	I enjoy receiving books as gifts.	3,53	1,45
TOR	3	I get a lot of satisfaction when I help other people with their reading problems, or when I read to others.	3,66	1,02
	35	I enjoy it when someone asks me to explain unfamiliar words or ideas to them.	4,06	0,98

7.4. Appendix 4: Descriptive Statistics of MARSI

	No	Questionnaire Item	Mean	SD
PROB	7	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.	3,83	1,02
	9	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	4,17	0,99
	11	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	4,30	0,79
	14	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	4,17	0,99
	16	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	3,90	1,27
	19	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	3,97	1,07
	25	When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding	4,13	1,11
	28	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	4,07	0,94
GLOB	1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	4,10	1,06
	3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	3,93	1,01
	4	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	3,40	1,33
	6	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	4,20	0,71
	8	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	3,53	1,11
	12	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	3,73	1,11
	15	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	3,53	1,20
	17	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	4,03	0,89
	20	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	3,40	1,35
	21	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	4,00	0,87
SUP	23	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	4,37	0,67
	24	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.	4,30	0,70
	27	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	3,60	1,25
	2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	3,60	1,16
	5	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	3,17	1,62
	10	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	4,50	0,90
	13	I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	3,50	1,46
	18	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	3,13	1,36
	22	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	3,97	0,81
	26	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	3,40	1,25
	29	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	2,73	1,36
	30	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	2,77	1,30