T.C.

ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES ENGLISH

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

TURKISH EFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS REGARDING

READING STRATEGIES

M.A THESIS

SERDİL İLK

İstanbul, 2012

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SUPERVISOR:ASST.PROF.DR.AYNUR KESEN

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İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

Tezli Yüksek Lisans Tez Onay Belgesi

Enstitümüz İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Yüksek Lisans Programı Y0912.020007 numaralı öğrencisi **SERDİL İLK'ın "Turkish Efl Teachers' beliefs regarding reading strategies"** adlı tez çalışması Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 17.08.2012 tarih ve 2012/19 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından ..oy.birliği.......... ile Tezli Yüksek Lisans tez olarak .kabul.edilmiştir.

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Not: Öğrencinin Tez savunmasında **Başarılı** olması halinde bu form **imzalanacaktır**. Aksi halde geçersizdir.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To my son Erol Kerim   İLK

ABSTRACT

TURKISH EFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS

REGARDING READING STRATEGIES

İLK, Serdil

Master Thesis, English Language and Literature Department

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Aynur KESEN

88 Pages, 2012

The present study aimed to explore EFL teachers' beliefs regarding reading strategies. In order to identify teachers' beliefs on reading strategies, a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used. The study was carried out with 50 participants working at English preparatory school of Istanbul Aydın University. The obtained data was analyzed by utilizing both qualitative and quantitative analysis to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' use of strategies and such variables as gender, degree,….etc.

The results of the study revealed that there aren't any statistical relationships between the teachers' gender, degree,years of teaching reading and the strategies they use in the classroom.On the other hand,there is a statistical relationship between the teachers' experiences in teaching and the pre-reading strategies they use.

Key Words: Reading strategies, Teachers' beliefs

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ İLE İLGİLİ İNANÇLARI

İLK Serdil

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalı

Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Aynur KESEN

2012, 88 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin okuma stratejileri konusunda sahip oldukları inançları ve derste uyguladıkları stratejileri araştırmaktır.Öğretmenlerin okuma stratejilerine ait inançlarını belirlemek için anket ve görüşme yapılmıştır. Bu çalışma İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller bölümünde görev yapan 50 İngilizce öğretmeni ile yapılmıştır.Elde edilen veriler niceliksel ve niteliksel analizler yapılarak öğretmenlerin kullandıkları okuma stratejileri ile öğretmenlerin cinsiyeti, eğitimi gibi değişkenlerle bir ilişki olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Okuma stratejileri,Öğretmenlerin inançları

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1.Background to the Study

Reading is one of the most essential skills for English as a foreign language. Carrell(in Nga,2009) claims that "for many students, reading is by far the most important of the four macro skills, particularly in English as a second or a foreign language."Being an important skill, reading has been examined and described in various ways by the researchers.

Urquhart and Weir (in Grabe, 2009) defines reading as "process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print.''In this context, we can see the interaction between the text and the reader. According to Aebersold and Field (1997), "the text and the reader are necessary entities for reading process because the interaction between the text and the reader creates the actual reading''. That is, the interpretation of the reader may be different from the writer of the text or the meanings the readers get, can be different from each other.

The researchers explain the process of the reading with three models which are bottom-up, top-down and interactive model.While Nunan (1999) views the bottom-up approach as" a process of decoding written symbols into their aural equivalents in a linear fashion, Carrell views the top-down process as "a process in which the readers' background knowledge plays a critical role and Carrell also defines the interactive approach as "an interaction of the top-down and bottom-up models(in Uzunçakmak, ,2005).

Another important factor in reading is the purpose.When people start reading they read for a certain purpose. One can read just forpleasure or to get information. According to Aebersold and Field (1997) "purposesdetermine how people read the text'', so purposes determine the strategies of the readers. Devine claims that "both teachers and researchers have attempted to identify the mental activities that readers use

in order to construct meaning from a text. These activities are generally referred to as reading strategies (in Aebersold & Field, 1997). Reading strategy is simply defined as techniques used by the readers to comprehend better (in Uzunçakmak,2005).

Reading researchers usually divide reading strategies into two groups which are cognitive and metacognitive (in Salatacı&Akyel,2002) .According to Carrell, cognitive strategieshelp the readers to construct meaning from the text.Sheorey and Mokhtari (in Varol,2010) viewcognitive strategies as follows:

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

Metacognition is simply defined as "thinking about thinking'' (in Livingstone, 1997) so metacognitive strategies are the strategies that function to monitor or regulate cognitive strategies(in Civelek&Ozek,2006).

In recent years research has proved that there is a close relationship between the readers' success and the strategiesthey use. In the context of EFL, teachers have also an important role regarding reading strategies. The beliefs of teachers are influential in determining their professional behavior (in Khonamri&Salimi, 2010).Richards claims that "beliefs are built up gradually over time'' (in Khonamri&Salimi, 2010).In other words, beliefs are formed as a result of teachers' experience.Richards (1996)implies that "beliefs may be derived from other sources like established practices, teachers' personality factors, educational principles, research-based evidence, and principles derived from an approach or method''(in Khonamri&Salimi,2010).

As a result, reading is an important skill for English as a both foreign language and second language. In order to be a successful reader, readers use some strategies. In

the context of teaching reading, teachers' beliefs play an important role regarding reading strategies.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Reading has been viewed as one of the most emphasized receptive skills in foreign language teaching. Hence, studies in the field of teaching English as a foreign language have investigated such issues as learners' and teachers' attitudes towards reading, reading strategies and effective reading instruction. As to help foreign language learners become effective readers, teachers' strategies and beliefs should certainly be studied .Although some research has already been conducted about reading as a skill, reading strategies and reading instruction, the number of studies conducted in Turkey is limited especially in regard to the studies investigating teachers' beliefs about strategies used in teaching reading. Therefore, the need for more studies investigating teachers' views about reading strategies seems crucial.

1.3.The aim and Scope of the Study

This study aims to elicit Englishlanguage teachers' beliefs concerning the reading strategies they employ in reading lessons. It also aims to compare the teachers' gender, degree, and experience in teaching English and in readingwith the strategies they use in the classroom. Additionally it searches into the EFL teachers' attitudes to reading in general.

In order to achieve these aims a questionnaire was designed and administered by the researcher to EFL teachers at Istanbul Aydın University of preparatory school and foreign languages as to find out the frequency of the reading strategies they claimed to use in reading lessons. It also finds out the teachers' attitudes to reading in both L1 and L2.

1.4. The Research Questions

This study aims at investigating the following research questions:

1. What are the beliefs of TurkishEFL teachers regarding strategies?

2. Is there a significant difference between teachers' preferences of reading strategies and their gender?

3. Is there a significant difference between teachers' preferences of reading strategies and their experience in teaching?

4. What are Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes to reading in general?

1.5. Operational Definitions

Reading Strategies: Specific methodsof approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, and planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information employed in reading(in Kesen,1999).

Teachers' beliefs: Teachers' belief systems are the goals, values, and beliefsteachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understandingof the systems which they work and their roles within it. (in Yurdaışık, 2007)

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Reading and Reading Process

2.1.1 What is reading?

Reading has been described and interpreted in various ways by the scholars over the years. One of the main reasons is that reading is an important and at the same time difficult skill in EFL (English Foreign Language).That's why, many researchers and scholars have investigated this process deeply for decades.

Wallace (in Öztürk, 2003) defines reading as "a communicative reaction to a written text; there is a communicative intention of the reader to understand what the writer has written, that is accompanied with different reading purposes, situational context and social expectations in different settings''. In contrast to Wallece, Ajideh (in Öztürk, 2003) defines reading "not as a reaction to a text but as an interaction between writer and the reader mediated through text."

Carter and Long (in Kesen, 2002) claim that reading is not a passive process but it requires reader to be active. Like Carter and Long, Littlewood also views reading as an active process and claims that

> Reader's relationship to a literary text differ in an important aspects
> from that of an informational text. The reader's creative (or rather co-creative
> role and imaginative involvement endangered by this role encourage
> a dynamic interaction between reader, text, and external world…..
> The possibly static and unquestionable reality of the informational text
> is replaced by a fluid, dynamic reality, in which there is no final arbiter
> between truth and falsehood (in Kesen, 2002).

Grabe (2009) describes the processes that define reading as follows:

1. A rapid process

2. An efficient process

3. A comprehending process

4. An interactive process

5. A strategic process

6. A flexible process

7. A purposeful process

8. An evaluative process

9. A learning process

10. A linguistic process

Schick and Schmidt present a different definition for reading. They describe reading as "a complex psychological process that fuses symbols with their spoken meaning to comprehend the writer's thought" (in Öztürk, 2003).From another point of view, Goodman describes reading as follows:

Reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game.
It involves an interaction between thought and language.
Efficient reading does not result from precise perception
and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting
the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses
which are right the first time. The ability to anticipate that which
has not been seen, of course, is vital in reading, just as the ability
to anticipate what has not yet been heard is vital in listening.

On the other side, Leipzig (2001) claims that reading is a complex process which involves word recognition, comprehension, fluency, and motivation. This proves that reading involves many skills in order to be successful reader.

Gee (1996) believes that "literacy practices are almost always fully integrated with, interwoven into, constituted as part of, the very texture of wider practices that involve talk, interaction, values, and belief.''

All these show us the complex nature of reading .In other words, reading is not only word recognition but also the beliefs, interpretation and perception of the readers. We can also claim that reading is an interaction between the reader and the writer.

2.1.2 Models of Reading Process

Reading process has always been investigated because of the fact that unlike speaking, reading is not something that can be learned individually (Nunan, 1999). In order to describe the interaction between the reader and the text, researchers developed models of reading. Barnett (in Aebersold and Field, 1997) explains the three main models of reading. These are Bottom-up Theory, Top-down Theory, and The interactive model

The bottom-up approach views reading as a decoding written symbols and this means that the reader first distinguishes each letter, sounds and then matches them with their aural equivalents, mixes them in order to form meaning. Finally, the reader derives meaning (in Nunan, 1999).

Aebersold and Field (1997) claim that constructing meaning from the small units becomes so automatic that readers are not aware of how they do it. Decoding is the earlier step of this model. Therefore, readers analyze the text starting from smaller textual units and building up a meaning for a text from these small units at the bottom(letters to sounds and to words) to larger units at the top (phrases- clauses, intersentential linkages) (in Uzuncakmak, 2005 Brown, 1998; Carrell et al., 1988; Thompson, 1988; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).In bottom–up model the readers' background

knowledge has little or no effect(Grabe, Stoller,2002).While Block calls these strategies local strategies , Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001) call them problem- solving and support strategies.

Top-down strategies are general strategies. Readers use these strategies to predict text content, construct a goal for reading , and self-monitor the reading process (in Huang, Chern, Lin, 2008).Sheorey & Mokhtari(2001) call top down strategies global strategies .Top-down models do not suggest information processing that begins with the largest units and proceeds to knowledge of the content area (content schemata) and rhetorical structure of the text (formal schemata) play an important role in the processing of the text (in Uzuncakmak,2005).According to Goodman, the readers bring their knowledge, expectations and questions of the text and after learning the basic vocabulary they read as long as the text meets the expectations and the top-down school of theory argues that the readers use their knowledge that they have before when they encounter with the new and unexpected information in the text (Aebersold, Field 1997) Furthermore, Block claims that'' successful readers don't read in a mechanic way but use top-down strategies and by using this ,they deal with the text, use their prior knowledge and experience to have the new information''(in Uzuncakmak,2005).

Later in the 1980s, Eskey found out that the 'interactive' model of reading supported the idea that balanced interaction between 'bottom up' and 'top down' processes led to successful reading (in Sadık,2005).Therefore, as Anderson points out reader becomes active who reconstructs the meaning that the writer has constructed on his /her prior knowledge(in Varol,2010).That is, interactive models assume the interplay between the text content and the reader's general knowledge to reach the comprehension (in Varol, 2010).Similarly, Hudson claims that "second or foreign language learners can compensate for a lack of knowledge and abilities in L2 by invoking interactive strategies, utilizing prior knowledge, and becoming aware of their strategy choices." (in Uzuncakmak, 2005)

Aebersold and Field (1997) assume that both bottom-up and top-down processes can occur at the same time or alternately. Thus, this approach is described as a process that has both top-down and bottom-up processes regarding the type of the text, readers'

background knowledge, language proficiency level, motivation, strategy they use and beliefs about the reading.

In this context Aebersold (1997) advises reading teachers to develop the ability to analyze these models because by understanding how they operate, teachers will be able to anticipate the types of process and the problems that they will encounter. Furthermore, Alderson(2000) declares that neither the top-down nor bottom-up approach is enough for the reading process and interactive models are more adequate since every elements of reading process can corporate with any other components.

As a conclusion less successful readers are unaware of the strategies so they don't know how to coordinate these strategies and this leads them to misinterpret or make the written text incomprehensible .On the other side , bottom-up, top-down and interactive strategies   explain how the readers read and comprehend the text.(in Uzuncakmak, 2005). In order to be successful readers second language readers should employ both bottom-up strategies and top-down strategies and at the same time appropriate content and background knowledge .

2.1.3. Reading in L2

Reading in any language even in mother tongue is a complex issue. That is, reading in a foreign language is much more difficult than reading in mother tongue. Harvey assumes that "reading in any language is a complicated business" (in Ozkul, 2007).Dunlop (1985) defines foreign language as follows:

> A foreign language is not one's mother language
> but is associated with a country whose mother tongue
> is and the user expresses himself and communicates with
> another in different sounds with different rhythm of speech
> different words, different grammar and different phraseology
> in different styles for different situations (in Özturk, 2010).

Alderson (in Kaya ,2000) affirms that even advanced foreign language readers do not read as easily or fluently in the foreign language as they do in their mother language. The reason of this is not in the deficiency in vocabulary knowledge but they show poorer processing in lower mechanisms that might be involved in basic word recognition. On the other hand, Alderson believes that once reading ability has been acquired in the first language, it is available to use in the foreign language (in Kaya, 2000).Though there are some similarities in reading L1 and L2, some scholars like Badwari deny this relationship between L1 and L2. According to Badwari (in Kesen, 1999)

> For one learning to read his native language,
>
> the task is essentially one of decoding the graphic
>
> representation of the language he already uses.
>
> The task of the L2 learner is infinitely more difficult.
>
> Even if he succeeds in decoding the written form of
>
> individual works; he may find that they do not go
>
> together in any pattern that is familiar or meaningful to him (p.18).

In other words, we are not aware of how we are reading in our language .We develop our reading skills as we grow up and become familiar with the different types of text, but when we see these texts in a foreign language we are unable to decode the message . The reason is not that, we are not using the correct techniques but that we are unable to recognize the meaning and the words (in Tennat, 2012).

Grabe (2009) groups the differences between L1 and L2 reading under three headings:

1. L2 acquisition and training background differences
2. Language processing differences
3. Social context differences.

In Grabe's opinion, L1 readers have already had the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary before reading. On the other hand, L1 readers have limited vocabulary and grammar knowledge (in Uzuncakmak, 2005) so L1 and L2 readers start learning to read from different points. That is, L2 learners should develop linguistic resources and reading comprehension at the same time(Grabe,2009).Language processing differences mean to transfer effects from L1 to L2 reading contexts and as Grabe and Stoller indicate social context differences are related to the "L1 socialization to literacy practices that L2 students bring from their L1 cultural backgrounds"(in Uzuncakmak, 2005). Grabe also indicates that L2 learners may come across with some difficulties during the process of words in L2.He mentions that the reasons of these difficulties can be that the learners' L1 language may have few vowels and constants so learners have to recognize more sounds and this makes meaning difference or the learner needs to learn the new word-stem changes and new processes of affixation that are different from his/her L2.The learner also has to learn syllable structures and any new complications in letter-to-sound pattering if L1 is more transparent than L2 in its orthography. All these differences have an important effect on the speed and accuracy of word-recognition processes in L2 reading. Moreover, Grabe affirms that although L1 transfer has a significant role, L2 reading development is not only the result of L1 transfer. Indeed, L2 reading development can be due to the development of L2 language proficiency. (Grabe, 2009).

There are many factors, which affect reading ability in second language. Coady (in Kesen, 1999) reveals three important factors that affect the efficiency of L2 reading.

1. Higher level conceptual abilities which mean ability to analyze, synthesize,and infer.

2. Background knowledge (socio-cultural knowledge of the English speaking community).

3. Process strategies (abilities and skills to reconstruct the meaning of the text through sampling based on knowledge grapheme-morphophonemic. Syllable-morpheme information, syntactic information, lexical meaning and cognitive meaning).

The factors in efficient reading can be shown as in the figure. (in Kesen, 1999)

Conceptual abilities ⟷ Background knowledge

Process strategies
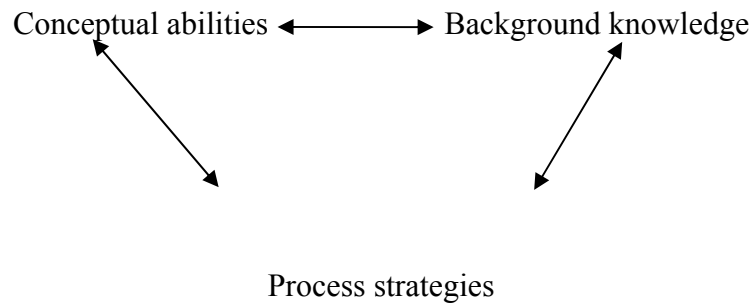
Fig.2.1 The factors in efficient reading

Aebersold and Field (1997) list the factors which influence reading in L2 as follows:

- Language proficiency in L1

- Language proficiency in L2

- Cognitive development during the L2 study

- The differences between The L1 and L2

- Cultural inclinations

- Knowledge of L1 structure, grammar

Istifci (in Kaya, 2009) claims that reading abilities of L2 learners have been investigated, and it has been found that they understand better when they use strategies in the class. On the other hand, Coady (in Kesen, 1999) points out the process of reading in second language differs from learning to read first language and so he puts forward two different aspects of reading:

1. There is the obvious need to learn the target language and avoid the pitfalls of the native language.

2. There is the fact that a great deal of the ability to read transfers automatically.

However there are some characteristics of successful L2 readers. Grabe (in Ozkul , 2007) lists successful L2 readers' characteristic as follows:

1. They have strategies while reading.

2. They have a reading purpose.

3. They can change the speed of reading

4. They are aware of their reading strategies.

That is, the characteristics of successful L2 readers are similar to the L2 readers.

2.2 Reading Strategies

2.2.1 Definition of Reading Strategies

Many scholars have given different definitions of reading strategies. Duffy (2009) explains strategy by showing the difference between skill and strategy. According to him skill is something you do without thinking. On the other hand, a strategy is a plan which you reason when you do it so in reading making predictions is a strategy because readers think about using text clues and background knowledge to make prediction; however, they are ready to change when the text clues need more information. The term "strategies'' focuses on the active participation of the reader while the term "skill" emphasizes the readers' passive abilities (in Carrell, Gajdusek, Wise, 1998).Vygotsky suggests that a strategy can" go underground'' and become a skill. In other words strategies are selected intentionally to achieve a goal and when

used intentionally a skill can become a strategy so "strategies are skills under consideration.'' (in Carrell, Gajdusek, Wise, 1998).

As Pani indicates "reading strategies are the mental operations that are involved when readers deal with a text effectively in order to make sense of what they read'' (in Kaya, 2010). Similarly Duffy (2009) claims that strategies are important part of comprehension .Like Duffy; Adler (2001) calls reading strategies as comprehension strategies which are conscious plans. Garner defines reading strategies as an action or series of actions involved to get the meaning (in Yurdasık ,2007).Block claims that reading strategies point out how readers perceive the text, what kind of textual clue they use ,how they interpret it and what they do when they don't understand(in Song, 1998).

Hacker claims that "Strategies provide the readers' ways to lessen the demands on working memory therefore facilitate comprehension'' (in Yurdasık, 2007). That is, focusing on effective reading strategies increase the readers' comprehension. Similarly, Adler believes that Strategy instruction also enables the students to become purposeful and active readers because they can control their reading comprehension. In this context Carrell et al. suggests that less competent readers can develop themselves by training in strategies (in Yurdasık, 2007).

Mi-jeong claims that good readers are better at monitoring their comprehension, more aware of the strategies than poor readers' .At the same time they use the strategies more flexibly and efficiently because good readers distinguish the important while they are reading and can use clues to anticipate information and connect with the new information. They are able to notice inconsistencies in a text and employ strategies to make these inconsistencies understandable. (in Song, 1998) and It has been also proposed by Carrel et al.(in Kaya 2010) that" less competent readers can improve by means of training in strategies evidenced by more successful readers''.

Studies have showed that purpose is one of the most important factors because each reader uses different strategies since they have different purposes. Rivers and Templey claim that there are seven main purposes for reading: (in Nunan, 1999)

1. To obtain information for some purpose

2. To obtain instructions on how to perform some task for our work or daily life

3. To act in a play, play a game, do a puzzle;

4. To keep in touch with friends by correspondence or to understand business letters;

5. To know when or where something will take place or what is available;

6. To know what is happening or has happened (as reported in newspapers, magazines, reports);

7. For enjoyment or excitement

The success of a strategy depends on the time and place of the reading usage. Kern (as cited in Farrell, 2001; Carrell, 1998 in Uzuncakmak, 2005) states that the effectiveness of the use of those strategies is not due to the strategy itself. "Rather, what makes a strategy effective depends on (a) who is employing it, (b) how consciously it is employed, (c) what kind of text is being read, (d) when it is being employed, and (d) why it is being used "(Carrell, 1998; Cohen, 1990; Farrell, 2001).

On the other hand, as Carrell indicates there isn't a simple relationship between strategies and comprehension. In other words, by using certain reading strategies readers may not be successful at reading comprehension whereas by using other strategies readers may not be unsuccessful at reading comprehension. The study of Anderson (1991) proves that there isn't simple relationship between certain strategies and success of reading comprehension. He adds that success at reading comprehension in second language is "not simply a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but the reader must also know how to use, but the reader must also know how to use it successfully and to orchestrate its use with other strategies. It is not sufficient to know about strategies, but a reader must also be able to apply them strategically'' (in Carrell, Gajdusek, Wise, 1998).Duffy claims that readers who use strategies and skills in

combination are the good readers (in Kaya, 2010) so good strategy users are also good readers.

According to Almasi (2003), in order to be a good strategy user in reading, readers must have five characteristics. Successful readers must have knowledge base, be motivated to use strategies, be metacognitve, analyze the text, and have different strategies. He also adds that "these characteristics work in unison as a coherent whole, rather than in isolation, to produce efficient strategy use in only a matter of seconds''. In this context teachers should motivate their students to use strategies. Pressley (1990) makes a list as a guide for motivating students to use strategies (in Almasi, 2003):

Teachers must (1) teach strategies that are not too difficult or too easy (2) Choose the appropriate strategies that are worth learning so students can recognize their value (3) create conditions that support students' success (4) support the success regularly and consistently (5) put forward clear goals (6) give detailed, particular and constructive feedback (7) teach the students how to self-reinforce to be successful.

The most important characteristics of good strategy user are the ability to analyze the task. Pressley (1990) emphasizes that good strategy users can recognize the process in a given text because by recognizing it readers have knowledge of how to employ a strategy and which is linked with metacognition and if something goes wrong, they know how to solve the problem to achieve their goal so good strategy users should have a variety of strategies .Pressley (1990) calls it "cognitive toolbox "he explains it by this example. When something goes wrong and he/she has a metacognitive awareness,she /he can look into his/her toolbox and select a strategy to solve the problem (in Almasi,2003).

Chamot suggests that reading strategies are a part of general learning strategies. According to him, "second language learners are not mere sponges acquiring the new language by osmosis alone. That are thinking, reflective beings who consciously apply mental strategies to learning situations both in classroom and outside of it.'' (in Carrel, Gajdusek, Wise, 1998)

Brown (2004) lists the reading strategies as follows: (in Sadık, 2005)

Some Principal Strategies for Reading Comprehension

1) Identify the purpose in a reading text

2) Apply spelling rules and conventions for bottom-up decoding

3) Use lexical analysis (prefixes, suffixes, roots, etc) to determine meaning

4) Guess at meaning (of words, idioms, etc.)

5) Skim the text for the gist and for main idea

6) Scan the text for specific information (names, dates, key words)

7) Use silent reading techniques for rapid processing

8) Use marginal notes, outlines, charts, or semantic maps for understanding andretaining information

9) Distinguish between literal and implied meanings

10) Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationship.

Another typology is developed by the teachers in eltu at ChineseUniversity. They believe that second language readers can increase their accuracy and speed by choosing the strategies for different texts and purposes (in Nunan, 1999)

Strategy	Comment
1. Having a purpose	It is important for students to have a goal and to keep in mind what they want to get from the text
2. Previewing	Conducting a quick survey of the text in order to find out the topic, the main idea, and organization of the text.
3. Skimming	Looking quickly through the text to get the general idea
4. Scanning	Looking quickly through text to get the specific information
5. Clustering	Reading clusters of words as a unit
6. Avoiding bad habits	Such as reading word by word
7. Predicting	Anticipating what is to come.
8. Reading actively	Asking questions and then reading for answers
9. Inferring	Identifying ideas that are stated.
10. Identifying genres	Identifying the overall organizational pattern of a text
11. Identifying paragraph	Identifying the organizational structure of a paragraph
12. Identifying sentence	Identifying the subject and main verb in complex sentence
13. Noticing cohesive	Assigning correct referents to performs and identifying the function of conjunctions

14. Inferring unknownvocabulary	Using context as well as parts of words (prefixes, suffixes and stems) to work out the meaning of unknown words.
15. Identifying figurative language	Understanding the use of figurativelanguage and metaphors
16. Using background knowledge	Using what one already knows to understand new ideas
17. Identifying style and its purpose	Understanding the writer's purpose in using different stylistic devices.
18. Evaluating	Reading critically and assessing the truth value of textual information
19. Integrating information	Tracking the ideas that are developed across the text through techniques such as highlighting and note taking
20. Reviewing	Looking back over a text and summarizing it.
21. Reading to present	Understanding the text fully and then presenting it to others.

2.2.2 Types of Reading Strategies

It is obvious that strategy is necessary for efficient reading and most of the readers use reading strategies consciously or unconsciously. It has been revealed that readers can understand more if they use reading strategies .According to the researches, readers use a variety of strategies to help them with the comprehension, storage and retrieval of the information (in Huang, Chern, Lin, 2008).

19

Janzen(1996)claims that reading strategies range from simple strategies like simply rereading difficult parts and guessing the meaning of the unknown words to more complex strategies like summarizing and connecting the text and background knowledge.(in Song ,1998).In addition to Janzen, Brown ad Palincsar(in Song,1998)focus on four concrete reading strategies: summarizing, questioning ,clarifying, and predicting.

Duffy (2009) declares that although there are varieties of strategies, there are only a few strategies that readers use again and again in various ways. These are:

- Making predictions

- Monitoring and questioning what is happening

- Adjusting predictions as you go

- Creating images in the mind.

- Removing blockages to meaning.

- Reflecting on the essence or the significance or the importance of what has been read.

Duffy (2009) classifies these strategies as follows:

- Before the reading

- As you begin reading

- While reading

- After reading

The strategies used before you begin the reading involve purpose. The readers should ask some questions like "Whyam I reading it?'' "How will I use it?" Predicting is mostly used as you begin reading and prior knowledge becomes important in this context because when a reader sees the title or a picture, his/her prior knowledge

appears and forms the prediction, so prediction can be based on prior knowledge. Monitoring, questioning and predicting are the basic strategies used while you read a task. Summarizing, determining the main idea, theme and conclusion, evaluating and synthesizing are the important after-reading strategies (Duffy, 2009).

Duffy (2009) also categorizes reading strategies into three groups when learning to read:

1. Vocabulary and comprehension strategies.

2. Strategies for identifying words

3. Strategies for reading fluently

Scholars have tried to classify the reading strategies for many years. Oxforddivides strategies into six categories which are memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, social, and affective strategies. On the other hand, Cohen suggests four groups of strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective. Despite variety of the reading strategy categorization, the most frequently ones are cognitive,metacognitive, text-level, and word-level strategies (in Uzuncakmak, 2005)

2.2.2.1 Cognitive Strategies in Reading

Williams and Burden define cognitive strategies as "mental processes concerned with the getting the information to learn, that is for obtaining, storage, retrieval or use of information'' (in Özek and Civelek, 2006).

According to Block ,reading researches in EFL provide division of cognitive strategies as bottom-up and top-down (in Salatacı and Akyel,2002).Aeborsold and Field explain that during reading , readers pass from variety of process for example when readers use bottom-up strategies, they start by processing information in the sentence level. Barnett and Carrel verify this by stating that when they process the information, they try to put it in the correct place using top-down strategies like background

knowledge, prediction, getting the general idea and skimming (in Salatacı and Akyel, 2002).

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) divide those cognitive strategies into three main groups: rehearsal, elaboration, and organizational strategies. Underlining the text, saying a word or phrase aloud, or using a mnemonic are rehearsal strategies. Elaboration strategies include paraphrasing or summarizing the text, creating analogies, note-taking, explaining ideas to others, asking and answering questions about the text. Organizational strategies include selecting the main idea from text, outlining the text, and using a particular technique for selecting and organizing the ideas in the text. Weinstein and Mayer claim that, all of these organizational strategies can be used to test and confirm the accuracy of readers' comprehension of the text (in Sang, 2010).

All these definitions and categorizations demonstrate that cognitive reading strategies include all perceptual and regulation skills, ranging from skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from context to paying attention to rhetorical organization of texts (in Varol, 2010).

2.2.2.2 Metacognitve Strategies in Reading.

Metacognition which has been considered as an important role in learning throughout the decadesis often defined as "thinking about thinking." Livingstone (1997) emphasizes that metacognition is an order of thinking which has an active role in learning process. John Flavell (1979) who is associated with this term claims that "metacognition consists of both metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experiences or regulation. According to Flavell, metacognitive knowledge is an acquired knowledge in the processes of cognition. In other words, this knowledge can be used to control cognitive processes (in Livingstone, 1997).

Flavell considers metacognition as a key to strategic possessing since it helps the readers to follow the development to achieve the goal .According to Baker ,It also enables them to control their learning (in Almasi,2003).Similarly, Borkowski confirms

that metacognition helps the learners to be successful and has been associated with the intelligence(in Livingstone,1997).

Readers' metacognitive knowledge and use of metacognitive strategies have important role on their success in reading L2 so metacognitive strategies are as important as cognitive strategies.

Carrell et al. believes that "One reason metacognition is significant is that if learners are not aware of when comprehension is breaking down and what they can do about it, strategies introduced by the teacher will fail" (in Varol,2010). Similarly, O'Malley points out that "Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future directions'' (in Carrell, Gajdusek, Wise, 1998)

Devine and Favell define metacognitive strategies as "strategies that monitor and regulate cognitive strategies.' According to, Baker and Brown(1984) these include "checking the outcome of any attempt to solve a problem, planning one's next move, monitoring the effectiveness of any attempted action, testing, revising, and evaluating one's strategies for learning.'' In this context monitoring is an important strategy for the learners because they can know what they read.

Devine (1981) explains that skimming a text for particular information is a cognitive strategy, whereas evaluating the effectiveness of skimming is a metacognitive strategy (in Salatcı, Akyel, 2002). In other words ,cognitive strategies enable the learners to achieve a particular role while metacognitive strategies enable them to check whether the goal has been reached (in Livingstone,1997).It is evident that metacognitive strategies usually follow the cognitive strategies , many scholars have believed that metacognition strategies often occur when cognitions fail and categorize the strategies. For example, Oxford (1990) proposes that metacognitve strategies include three strategy sets: Centering, arranging and planning, as well as evaluating the learning (in Shang, 2010).Another model of metacognitive strategies suggested by Pintrich (1999) involves three types of strategies which are planning, monitoring, and regulating. Planning activities involve the goals one sets up before reading.

According to Pintrich, planning activities "help the learner plan their use of cognitive strategies and also seem to activate or prime relevant aspects of prior knowledge, making the organization and comprehension of the material much easier" . Weinstein and Mayer (1986) assess all metacognitive activities as the monitoring of comprehension where students check their understanding according to some self-set goals. Pintrich presents that "Monitoring activities include tracking of attention while reading a text, self-testing through the use of questions about the text material to check for understanding, etc and regulatory strategy which is closely tied to monitoring strategies include asking questions to monitor students' comprehension, slowing the pace of reading with more difficult texts, reviewing examination materials, and postponing questions (in Shang, 2010).

Flavell (1978) emphasizes the two dimensions of metacognitive ability which are knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. Knowledge of cognition involves the knowledge of the readers' about their own cognitive resources and the affinity between the reader and the reading situation because if the readers can be aware of their limitations, it is easier to meet the demands of the reading task. The other dimension of metacognition, regulation of cognition alludes when a "higher order process orchestrates and directs other cognitive skills'' and these skills include planning, monitoring, testing, revising, and evaluating the strategies in reading (in Carell, Gajdusek, Wise, 1998).

Carrell asserts that these skills are used for:

- To illuminate the purpose of the reading task.

- To distinguish the message.

- To emphasize the main content

- To monitor

- To give importance to the self-questioning to determine if the goals are achieved.

- To make a progress when there is a failure in comprehension. (in Carrell,Gajdusek,Wise,1998)

In spite of the categorization in metacognitive strategies, some strategies can be both considered as a metacognitive and cognitive. For example if you use a self-questioning strategy when you read just for obtaining knowledge, it will be cognitive. On the other hand, If you use the same strategy as a way of monitoring what you read, then it will be considered as metacognitive. (in Livingstone, 1997)

In short as Yurdasık (2007) indicates, metacognitive strategies include directed attention and self assessment, planning, setting goals and looking for practice opportunities.

2.3 Teachers' Beliefs

Foreign language teachers like the other teachers have different beliefs and notions and they bring these into their classroom and so teaching is affected by the belief system of the teachers. Many researches suggest that teachers' beliefs influence the actions of the teachers.

McDonough (in Tercanlıoğlu, 2005) mentions that beliefs can be an important factor for behaviors:

What we believe we are doing, what we pay attention to,

what we think is important how we choose to behave,

how we prefer to solve problems, form the basis for

our personal decisions as to how to proceed.

An important fact about this argument is that

 It is not necessary for these kinds

 of evidence to be true for them to have

important consequences for our further development.

Definitions of beliefs proposed by different scholars generally focus on how and when teachers acquire the beliefs. According to Puchta "beliefs are guiding principles for our students' behaviors and strong perceptual filters…they act as if they were true'' (in Tercanlıoğlu, 2005).Similarly, Richardson indicates that beliefs are "psychologically held understanding, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true'' (in Tercanlıoğlu, 2005).

In the context of EFL, many studies have been conducted. In this context, Borg reports that teacher cognition has only been the research topic for the last 30 years. Woods confirms that a great amount of research has been carried on role of teachers' beliefs, knowledge, implicit theories or assumptions on their decision-making process. Silberstein points that teachers are only a facilitator in a reading class where students are assigned with problem solving tasks and independently choose efficient strategies to reach their goals.(in Varol, 2010)

Kesen (2002) claims that both teachers and students bring their personal theories and beliefs into the class and generally the strategies they adopt are due to these beliefs. Bennett and Carre point out that teachers and students have " implicit beliefs about teaching and learning-attitudes, theories ,values and expectations-which guide their planning and decision making in the classroom''(in Kesen,2002) .Many studies have been conducted in regard to teachers' beliefs. For example, Morine and Dershimer (1993) reported that thought of teachers lead to actions of teachers. Similarly Woods indicated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and the practices they do in the class so he found out that the decision made in planning and carrying the course were relevant to underlying assumptions and beliefs about language ,learning, and teaching. Based on this view what teachers do in the classroom depend on their personal beliefs. (in Kesen, 2002)

Teachers often come into the classrooms surrounded by their previous educational experiences, cultural backgrounds, and social interaction, which shape their beliefs about English teaching (in Liao,2007).Liao(2007)claims that " the beliefs of teachers are usually seen as significant predictors for their actual teaching practices since they bring these unique sets of beliefs and so by understanding teachers' specific

beliefs about English teaching ,researchers can get idea about how the teachers teach, in other words which strategies they use in the class.''

Schraw and Moshman (1995) claim that cultural learning, individual differences, and peer interaction all play important role for the metacognition among individuals. Therefore teachers' beliefs develop along with and become part of their metacognitive theories because beliefs are usually derived from one's culture by social learning, are spontaneously constructed by individuals, and involve a process of social construction through peer interaction. Muijs and Reynolds (2001) focus on dynamism of these beliefs. Teachers' belief systems, including their attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning, are considered a primary source of teachers' classroom practices(in Liao,2007).

Richards (1996) implies that beliefs are usually affected by their own experience as learners in classrooms, prior teaching experience, classroom observations they were exposed to, and their previous training courses at school. White (1999) verifies this theory stating that "beliefs have an adaptive function to help individuals define and understand the world and themselves and are instrumental in defining tasks and behaviors.'' (in Liao, 2007)

The concept of teachers' belief can be a little complicated issue. In order to solve the problem of misuse of this concept some scholars classify it into various categories. For example William and Burden (1997) suggested the three areas of teachers' beliefs which are "about language learning, learners about themselves as language teachers''. In addition, Johnson (1992) identified and grouped ESL teachers' beliefs into three methodological approaches. These are :"(1) a skill-based approach, which views language as consisting of discrete skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking; (2) a rule-based approach, which sees language as a process of rule-governed activity; and (3) a function-based approach, which focuses on the use of authentic language in social context''(in Liao,2007).

2.4 Studies on Reading Strategies

Many studies have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness and the necessities of reading strategies. In these studies types of reading strategies, strategy training, the importance of strategy usage, teachers' and learners' choices have been emphasized. In these studies, many scholars have found out the nature of good and poor readers by using variety of methods. Also, in most of studies we see the comparisons and contrasts between L1 and L2.Awareness of metacognitive strategies in reading or in any other skill is one of the main topics of the studies, too.

For example Carrell in his study , investigated metacognitive awareness of second language readers about reading strategies in both their first and second language by comparing L1 and L2 and also emphasized the relationship between their metacognitive awareness and comprehension in both first and second language reading.(in Yurdasık ,2007)

Dana (2002) presents the study on reading strategies used by Chinese EFL learners in their reading process and the correlation between the reading strategies adopted and reading proficiency. In addition, it aims at finding out the differences in the employment of reading strategies between successful and unsuccessful readers. The study reveals that Chinese EFL learners use reading strategies frequently and there are obvious differences between successful and unsuccessful readers in terms of strategy use.

In Turkey, Salatcı and Akyel (2002) conducted a study on possible effects of strategy instruction on L1 and L2 reading. They investigated the reading strategies of Turkish EFL students in Turkish and English and the possible effects of reading instruction on reading in Turkish and English. The data came from think-aloud protocols, observation, a background questionnaire, a semi-structured interview and the reading component of the PET (the Preliminary English Test). The results indicated that strategy instruction had a positive effect on both Turkish and English reading strategies and reading comprehension in English.

In another study, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) investigated differences in the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among native and non-native readers. In their study they pointed out that both US and ESL students are all aware of the strategies included in the survey.Both groups list the reading strategies in the same order regarding the importance, which are cognitive strategies (the deliberate actions readers take when comprehension problems develop), metacognitive strategies (advanced planning and comprehension monitoring techniques), and support strategies (the tools readers seek out to aid comprehension). Both ESL and US high-reading-ability students use more cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies than lower-reading-ability students, and It is showed that the US high-reading-ability students give more importance to the reading strategies than the low-reading ability US students.

On the other hand ESL students give importance to the reading strategies, regardless of their reading ability level. In addition, among the US group, the females are reported as a higher level in strategy use but this gender effect is not taken into consideration among ESL sample.

Teachers' beliefs or attitudes towards reading strategies have also been investigated because the studies revealed that teachers' beliefs play an important role in choosing the strategy in reading classes. Pace and Powers (1981) indicate that study on the relationship between the teachers and their actual behaviors are limited (in Khonamri&Salimi, 2010).Salimi (2010)conducted a study on the interplay between EFL high school teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices regarding reading strategies. In their study they aimed to investigate the teachers' belief about reading strategies among EFL high school teachers, then to explore the degree of discrepancies or consistencies between teachers' beliefs about reading strategies and their practical teaching activities in the context of English teaching as a foreign language in high schools of Iran, Mazandaran.

Barry (2002) focused on the favorite strategies and why they used it. In his study he found that teachers usually chose the strategies which suit their needs and the needs of their students.

Besides the choices of the teachers regarding the reading strategies, there are many studies on the use of the strategies by EFL students. Ozek and Civelek (2006) conducted a study on the use of cognitive reading strategies by ELT students. In their study they aimed to find out which reading strategies are generally employed by the students and which reading strategies should be used to understand the texts better. They used two different methods to collect the data. In part one a self-report questionnaire was given to the university students and in the second part, Think-Aloud Protocol was conducted. Reading strategies are evaluated under three groups which are pre-reading, while-reading and post reading. The results of the survey indicated that the most effectively used strategies and also in this study they revealed there were some differences on the effective use of cognitive reading strategies due to the student's gender, age and proficiency in reading, school source and duration in learning English

The studies about reading strategies have been conducted among all the levels from elementary to advance in all countries where English is studied as a second language. Nguyen Thi Thu Nga (2009) investigated teachers' beliefs about teaching reading strategies and their classroom practices in high school. The aims of this research are to investigate the teachers' beliefs about teaching reading strategies in a specific high school and examine the extend to which their beliefs are reflected in their reading classes .The data were collected through pre-interview , class observation, post-interview. According to the results, Thi Thu Nga (2009) claimed that the teachers' beliefs influence their classroom practices. However classroom practices don't always correspond to their beliefs and it was also assumed that teachers' classroom practices were based on their cognition and theories. On the other side, their beliefs were not reflected because teachers' beliefs affected by both external factors which are context, material, curriculums, students' motivation and internal factors that are teachers' education, view and ability.(in Thi Thu Nga,2009)

Kuzborska (2011) used different methods to collect data. In order to examine the links between the teachers' beliefs and practices, lesson observation, video stimulated recall and document analysis were utilized in her study. She investigated how EAP teachers are affected by their beliefs in a non-western university. According to her

study, there was a strong relationship between the teachers' beliefs and the practices in their classroom. She also noticed that teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading was skill-based focusing on vocabulary translation, reading aloud, whole class discussion. As a conclusion, it is suggested that teachers could be more strategic in reading instruction.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study aims to investigate EFL teachers' beliefs regarding reading strategies. The study also searches into Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes to reading.

As the aim was to describe EFL teachers' beliefs about reading strategies, descriptive design was used as the research design. Two questionnaires were developed by the researcher to investigate teachers' beliefs. The obtained data were analyzed by utilizing SPSS computer program to find out whether there was a significant difference among the teachers and their beliefs regarding reading strategies.

3.2 Participants

The study was conducted at Istanbul Aydın University. Fifty teachers were selected randomly from preparatory school and foreign languages department. Thirty-eight of participants were female and eleven of them were male. Thirty-four participants' work experiences at the university were between one and five-years. Fourteen participants' work experiences were between five and ten years. One participant's work experience was between eleven and twenty years and one participant's work experience at the university was more than twenty years. Thirty-one participants have been teaching reading for between one and three years. Thirteen participants have been teaching for between five and ten years and six participants have been teaching for more than ten years. When we look at their degree of education, thirty participants have bachelor degree, nineteen participants have master degree and one participant has PHD degree. The questionnaire was distributed on March 5, 2012 and participants were asked to return the questionnaire within a week. Out of sixty-five teachers, fifty returned the questionnaire.

Table 3.1 The distribution of participants' gender

Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	12	24,0	24,0	24,0
	Female	38	76,0	76,0	100,0
	Total	50	100,0	100,0	

Table 3.2 The distribution of teachers' experience of teaching at the university

Yrs of teaching at the university		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5 yrs	34	68,0	68,0	68,0
	5-10 yrs	14	28,0	28,0	96,0
	11-20 yrs	1	2,0	2,0	98,0
	More than 20	1	2,0	2,0	100,0
	Total	50	100,0	100,0	

Table 3.3 The distribution of teachers' experience of teaching reading

Yrs of teaching reading		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-3 yrs	31	62,0	62,0	62,0
	5-10 yrs	13	26,0	26,0	88,0
	More than 10	6	12,0	12,0	100,0
	Total	50	100,0	100,0	

Table 3.4 The distribution of teachers'degrees

Degree		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor	30	60,0	60,0	60,0
	Master	19	38,0	38,0	98,0
	PhD	1	2,0	2,0	100,0
	Total	50	100,0	100,0	

3.3 The Questionnaire

In this study, a questionnaire developed by the researcher was used in order to gather data (see Appendix 1). The aim of the questionnaire was to explore teachers' beliefs. Furthermore, the questionnaire aimed to investigate teachers' attitudes to reading. The questionnaire for this study consisted of three parts. The first part aimed at gathering participants' background information; their gender, years of teaching at the university, years of teaching reading and their degrees.

The second part of the questionnaire aimed to find out the frequency of the reading strategies   teachers claimed to use in reading lesson. This section was based on a Likert scale including 5 statement of preference (1: Always; 2: Usually; 3: Sometimes; 4: Rarely; 5: Never). In this section, participants were asked to circle the number which reflected the frequency of reading strategies they use.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of fifty-one questions. First fifteen items were designed to elicit the teachers' practices regarding pre-reading strategies. Items from sixteen to forty-three were designed to elicit the teachers' usage of reading strategies while reading and items from forty-four to fifty-two were designed to investigate the teachers' reading strategies after reading. In this section participants were asked to choose one item that described the frequency of their reading strategy usage.

In the third part of the questionnaire, subjects chose the best answer to reflect their opinions about reading.

The last section of the questionnaire consisted of fifteen items. These items were designed to investigate the teachers' attitudes to reading. The answers of the teachers also reflect their reading habits both in L1 and L2.First seven questions elicit the subjects' reading habits and their interest for   reading. The participants answer the items from eight to fifteen as strongly disagree, disagree, not sure, agree, strongly agree so that their answers reflect teachers' the attitudes to reading in English. Furthermore the connection between reading and proficiency in teaching is focused on.

The structure of the questionnaire can be summarized as below:

Section 1 (Background Information)

A. Teachers' Name and Surname

B. Gender of teachers.

C. Teachers' work experiences at the university

D. The years of teaching reading.

E. Degrees of teachers

Section 2 (Teachers' practices of reading strategies in the classroom)

A. Teachers' practices of reading strategies before reading (1-15)

B. Teachers' practices of reading strategies while reading. (16-43)

C. Teachers' practices of reading strategies after reading.(44- 51)

Section 3(Teachers' attitudes to reading)

A. Items 1-7 investigated the teachers' reading habits and their interest for reading.

B. Items 8-15 aimed to elicit the teachers' opinion concerning the relation between reading and second language learning and teaching.

3.3.1 Piloting the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was piloted as to see whether the questions were clear and relevant. The questionnaire was administered to teachers working at Foreign Languages Department of Istanbul Aydın University. After receiving feedback from the teachers, some of the items that caused ambiguity were modified and irrelevant items were eliminated.

3.3.2. Distribution of the Questionnaire

The questionnaires were distributed to the participants working at IstanbulAydınUniversity by the researcher. Each participant was given information about the purpose of the study and how the questionnaire should be completed. On request, with some of the participants, the questions were skimmed through.

3.4 Interviews

The second instrument for data collection was semi-structured interviews. According to Nunan (1994),"interview gives the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview and a great deal of flexibility to the interviewer"(in Kesen,2002).

Semi-structured interview protocols were administered to 7 teachers. The participants for the interview were chosen according to gender, years of experience and degree. The rationale behind such criteria was to see the diversity among the participants' responses. The main aim of the interview was participants' beliefs regarding reading strategies. During the interview participants were asked to elaborate on the answers they wrote in the questionnaire. Note-taking procedure was used to record data. It took approximately 30 minutes to conduct the interviews with each interviewee.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques were utilized. While the questionnaires yielded quantitative data, interviews provided qualitative data of the study. The items in the second and third part of the questionnaire were analyzed using the statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequencies and percentages were taken for every item. Chi-square tests were also used to find the significance of the differences among the variables.

The interviews were transcribed and analyzed by the researcher. Interview data were analyzed using content analysis.

Table 4.1 The Distribution of Pre-Reading Strategies

		1		2		3		4		5	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	I ask students to look at the title and guess the subject of the text	21	42	16	32	7	14	4	8	2	4
2	I ask students to identify the topic	17	34	21	42	7	14	3	6	2	4
3	I ask students to look at the pictures and predict how it relates with the text	20	40	19	38	4	8	7	14	-	-
4	I ask some warm-up questions before reading	35	70	10	20	2	4	2	4	1	2
5	I ask students to read the text silently	22	44	13	26	10	20	5	10	-	-
6	I ask students to skim the text quickly before reading	12	24	15	30	19	38	3	6	1	2
7	I ask students' experience related with the topic	14	28	22	44	11	22	3	6	-	-
8	I teach some important words before starting to read	16	32	16	32	12	24	4	8	2	4
9	I encourage students to activate their background knowledge related to the content of the text	22	44	23	46	4	8	-	-	1	2
10	I evaluate guesses and try new guesses if necessary	12	24	22	44	14	28	2	4	-	-

11	I adjust strategies to the purpose for reading	13	26	21	42	14	28	1	2	1	2
12	I ask students to establish the purpose in reading text	9	18	21	42	16	32	4	8	-	-
13	I encourage students to increase the speed in silent reading	8	16	15	30	16	32	11	22	-	-
14	I recommend my students the process of note-taking	9	18	16	32	17	34	7	14	1	2
15	I use the same strategy for all texts	6	12	12	24	8	16	18	36	6	12

1: Always   2: Usually   3: Sometimes 4: Rarely   5: Never

The results presented in Table 4.1 indicate the teachers' beliefs regarding pre-reading strategies. The items in this part aimed to investigate teachers' practices before starting the reading. Fifteen items are related with the pre-reading strategies. According to the table, most of the participants use pre-reading strategies.

When we look at the frequencies for item 1, we see that a great number of the teachers ask their students to look at the title and guess the subject of the text (always: 21; 42% or usually: 16; 32).However, there are 2 teachers who never use this strategy. The reason for such a finding might be due to the fact that teachers can draw their students' attention to the text. Also the following quotation from the interview of a participant presents the reasons for using the strategy "looking at the title and guess the subject of the text":

My students have to be aware of the goal of objectives that they are going to have to do. Guessing the subject by looking at the title helps students to identify the goal at the same time.

The answers for the second item showed that teachers quite frequently ask their student to identify the topic. (always:f=17; usually:f=21). On the other hand, small

number of participants use this strategy "rarely'' or "never'' (rarely=3; 6%, never=2; 4%).

The responses given to item 3 revealed that every teacher asks their students to look at the pictures and predict how it relates with the text. Additionally, the percentages of frequencies are quite high(always: 40%; usually: 38%).The results for item 4 displayed the importance of the strategy because more than half of the teachers always ask warm-up questions to their students (f=35; 70%).The reason for a such a finding might be that warm-up questions can prepare the students for the new subject. A sample quotation from the interview for the strategy "using warm-up questions before reading "is as follows:

Warm-up is important because it is the first stage of communication. Asking warm-up questions help students to improve their speaking skill. Also warm-up questions give clues about the text they are going to read.

Item 5 which was designed to investigate whether the participants ask their student to read the text silently showed that most of the teachers use this strategy quite frequently (always: 44%; usually: 26%). The results for item 6 showed that a few teachers don't ask their students to skim the text (f=1; 2%).On the contrary 19 out of 50 participants sometimes use the strategy of skimming.

Item 7 elicited the frequencies of the teachers' usage regarding students' experiences. According to the table, each teacher asks his/her students about their personal experiences related to the subject. When we compare the frequencies, the percentage of rarely is lower than the other responses (f=3;6%).On the other hand, the answers(either always or sometimes) are similar.(always:14;28%,sometimes:11;22%).

Item 8 which was designed to investigate the vocabulary teaching yielded that all of the teachers give some vocabulary before reading the text .Most of the teachers teach the unknown words before students start to read. Teachers use this strategy quite frequently (always=16, usually=16).The reason for such a finding might be that since vocabulary is an important part of the comprehension, students understand the text better.

The aim of designing item 9 was to investigate whether participants encourage the students to activate their background knowledge related to the content of the text. It is seen in Table 4.1 that 45 out of 50 participants always or usually encourage their students to activate their background knowledge. The reason why teachers tend to use activating the learners' prior knowledge might be that prior knowledge can help learners to deepen the understanding.

The analysis of item 10 revealed the importance of guessing, because very few teachers do not often evaluate the guesses and try the new guesses if necessary(4%).The frequency usage of this strategy is rather high(always ,f=12;usually,f=22;sometimes,f=14).

The result of item 11 which aimed to find out whether the teachers adjust strategies to the purpose for reading, presented that almost half of the participants usually use the strategy (f=21, 42%).As shown in table (4.1), the frequency of this item is not very low because the other half of the participants answer this item as "always'' or "sometimes'' (always: f=13; sometimes: f=14).

Item 12 elicited the establishment of the purpose in reading text.Every teacher uses the strategy about establishing purpose in reading (always: 18%; usually: 42%; sometimes: 16%).Another strategy used by every participant is encouraging the students to increase the speed in silent reading. Though only eight out of fifty participants always encourage their students about this, the percentages of usually or sometimes are quite high(usually: 30%,sometimes:32%).

Note-taking is important for almost every teacher, so the findings for item 14 which was designed whether the teachers recommend their students the process of note-taking revealed that teachers recommend note-taking regularly because the number of the participants who answer this item as usually or sometimes is higher than the others (usually=16; sometimes: f=17).

The last item in this group displays the teachers' attitudes to the variety of the strategies. Although small amount of teachers always use the same strategy for all texts

(12 %), few teachers never use the same strategy (12%). As for this item, the participant gives the following rationale:

There are various texts and generalization is always dangerous. It develops monotony. The purposes of the text also determines the strategies

AN OVERVIEW

When we analyze the data concerning the teachers' beliefs regarding pre-reading strategies, we observe that almost every teacher uses pre-reading strategies. On the other hand, the percentage of the teachers is variable regarding pre-reading strategies. The data reveals that asking some warm-up questions before reading is the most frequently used strategy by the participants.(see figure 4.1) We can infer that teachers give importance to the preparation of the students. The preferences about activating the prior knowledge of the students indicate that teachers use this strategy quite frequently. Another most frequently used strategy is asking the students to read the text silently. The reason for such a finding might be that reading silently can increase the learners' speed.

When we compare the teachers' gender, degree, years of teaching at the university and years of teaching reading, we see that there aren't any significant relationships between teachers' gender, degree, and experience in teaching reading and pre-reading strategies they use. However, there is a relationship between teachers' experience in teaching at the university and pre-reading strategies.
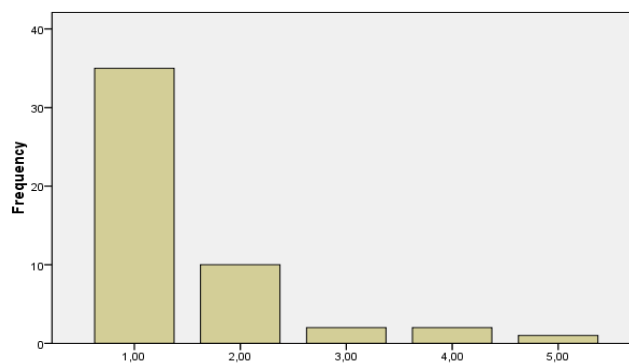
Figure 4.1 Frequency of pre-reading strategies

Table 4.2 Distribution of While-Reading Strategies

		1		2		3		4		5	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	I ask students to read the text only once.	4	8	18	36	22	44	3	6	3	6
2	I ask students to read the text aloud more than once.	4	8	7	14	10	20	13	26	16	32
3	I encourage students to pay attention to the parts of sentences such as phrases and clauses.	16	32	20	40	11	22	3	6	-	-
4	I encourage students to pay attention to the sentence structure, such as subjects and objects.	10	20	9	18	19	38	9	18	3	6
5	I ask students to read clusters of words as a unit.	11	22	20	40	16	32	2	4	1	2
6	I encourage students to avoid habits such as reading word-by word.	19	38	17	34	8	16	5	10	1	2
7	I encourage students to translate the text into L1.	5	10	5	10	13	26	18	36	9	18
8	I encourage students to use dictionary for the unknown word.	11	22	12	24	12	24	9	18	6	12

9	I encourage students to use the context as parts of words(prefixes, suffixes, and stems)to work out the meaning of unknown words.	18	36	17	34	10	20	4	8	1	2
10	I read the text fully and the present it to the students.	11	22	14	28	7	14	9	18	9	18
11	I ask students to skim the text .	17	34	20	40	9	18	1	2	3	6
12	I comment on the significance of content and question the information in the text.	16	32	20	40	13	26	1	2	-	-
13	I help the students to visualize the information in the text.	18	36	14	28	13	26	4	8	1	2
14	I ask students to connect new information with the previously stated content.	14	28	24	48	9	18	2	4	1	2
15	I ask students to guess the unfamiliar words in co-text.	19	38	18	36	11	22	1	2	1	2
16	I ask students to distinguish main idea from minor ideas.	19	38	16	32	12	24	3	6	-	-
17	I allow students to go on reading even if they're unsuccessful.	24	48	11	22	9	18	5	10	1	2
18	I ask students to focus on meaning of the text not the form	19	38	14	28	13	26	3	6	1	2

19	I encourage students to disregard insignificant words.	13	26	15	30	16	32	5	10	1	2
2o	I ask students to deduce the meaning from context.	18	36	26	52	5	10	1	2	-	-
21	I ask students to deduce meaning from word structure.	8	16	16	32	15	30	9	18	2	4
22	I encourage students to benefit from relationships of cause and effect.	11	22	17	34	16	32	5	10	1	2
23	I recommend my students the process of note-taking.	7	14	16	32	20	40	7	14	-	-
24	I ask students to re-read for better understanding.	5	10	28	56	14	28	3	6	-	-
25	I ask students to take notes, highlight or underline the important notes.	17	34	20	40	9	19	4	8	-	-
26	I give active role to the students.	17	34	22	44	9	18	1	2	1	2
27	I ask students focus too much on form at the expense of meaning.	4	8	8	16	19	38	9	18	10	20

1: Always   2: Usually   3: Sometimes 4: Rarely   5: Never

The results presented in Table 4.2 display the opinions of   teachers regarding the strategies they use. Almost all teachers use while reading strategies. Some of the

teachers use different strategies more frequently than the others. As it is seen in the table above, only few participants never use some strategies.

When we look at the frequencies for item 1, we see that nearly half of the teachers sometimes ask their students to read the text only once (f=22, 44%).The percentages of always, rarely and never are almost the same. (always: 8%; rarely: 6%; never: 6%).On the other hand, more than half of the teachers never or rarely ask their students read more than once (never=16; rarely=13).

The third item in this group was designed to find out the teachers' attitudes to the parts of the sentences such as phrases and clauses. The results of this item indicated that every participant encourages the students to pay attention to the parts of the sentences such as phrases and clauses. Only 3 out of 50 participants rarely give importance to phrases and clauses in the text. The teachers who always or usually encourage their students about paying attention to the phrases and clauses are more than the teachers who state that they sometimes use this strategy answer (Sometimes=11; 22%).The reason for such a finding might be that since L2 reading like L1 reading requires linguistic knowledge as to better understand the text EFL teachers tend to have their students consider phrases and clauses in understanding the text.

The analysis of the results for item 4 revealed that most of the teachers encourage the students to pay attention to the sentence structure such as subjects and objects. However, when we focus on the choices presented in the questionnaire, we see that the frequencies are different. Teachers who always encourage their students about paying attention to the sentence structure are less than the teachers who sometimes use this strategy (always=10; sometimes: f=19).Apart from that, the percentages of rarely and usually are the same (18%).The percentage of never is the lowest (6%).The reason for such a finding might be due to the fact that the teachers tend to have their students be aware of the grammar as well.

The analysis of the data for item 5 indicates that almost every participant gives importance to the cluster of the words. Only 3 participants rarely or never ask their students to read the clusters of the words as a unit. Nearly half of the teachers usually

ask the students to read the cluster of the word as a unit (f: 20; 40%).Interestingly, the choice of sometimes is higher than the choice of always (always=11, sometimes: f=16).

The analysis of item 6 in this group displays that the participants don't want their students to read word by word so the percentages of the teachers who always or usually have students avoid habits such as reading word by word are higher than the teachers who rarely or sometimes use this strategy (always: 38%; usually: 34%).On the other side, 2 % of the participants never avoid habits such as reading word by word.

The seventh item which was designed to find out the teachers' attitude to the translation of the text into L1 showed that teachers more or less encourage the students to translate the text into L1 because only 18% of the participants never have their students translate text .Although the percentages of using this strategy as always or usually are low (10%), the percentage of teachers, who choose sometimes for this item, is higher than the teachers who answer as never (sometimes: 26%).The reason for such a finding might be that translating the text into L1 can help learners to understand the text better. The reason why one of the participants used this strategy is as follows:

I believe that translation is a good way of understanding the text and vocabulary. Translation can sometimes be necessary when the students are in trouble with the text. But we also shouldn't forget that translating the text into L1 causes the loss of concentrate on the target text.

Item 8 aimed to find out whether the teachers encourage the students to use dictionary for the unknown words. The results revealed that the percentages of the participants who say always, usually or sometimes are similar (always: 22%; usually: 24%; sometimes: 24%). In other words, using dictionary is one of the most frequent strategies used by the teachers. The reason for such a finding might be that using dictionary can help learners to overcome the barrier they build for unknown words.

The analysis of item 9 (which was designed for using the context as well as parts of words in order to find out the meaning of the unknown words) displays similar results. The frequency of the teachers who said they always encourage their students to use context as well as parts of words (prefixes, suffixes, and stems) (f=18, 36%) is very

close to the frequency of the teachers who answered as usually (f=17, 34%).In other words, the frequency of the participants who answered this item as rarely or never (rarely=4; never: f=1) is lower than the answer sometimes (f=10).

When we focus on the frequency of the teachers in item 10 in this group, we see that half of the teachers always or usually read the text fully and then present it to the students (always=11; usually=14).Nevertheless, the frequency of the teachers who chose sometimes is lower than the participants who chose never or rarely (never, rarely=9, sometimes: f=7).This finding might be due to the fact that teachers tend to become models for fluent reading.

Item 11 aimed to investigate whether students skim the text . As it is seen in Table 4.2,more than half of the teachers usually or always ask the students to skim the text(always=17,usually:f=20).In other words, the frequency of the teachers who rarely or never ask their students to skim the text is not very high (rarely=1;never:f=1).

When we look at the results of item 12 which aimed to find out whether the participants comment on the significance of content and question the information in the text, we see that only one participant out of 50 rarely uses this strategy. Most of the teachers usually comment about it (f=20).The percentages of always and sometimes are very close to each other (always: 32%; sometimes: 26).

Item 13 was designed to elicit whether the participants help their student to visualize the information in the text during reading. The results displayed in Table 4.2 show that the frequencies of the teachers who chose always, usually or sometimes (usually=14; sometimes: 13%) are very similar although the choice of always (f=18) is the highest. A small number of the teachers never or rarely help their students about visualization (rarely=4; never=1).The reason why teachers tend to use visualizing in reading classes might be that visualization can help students cross the boundary to improved comprehension.

The results of item 14 shown in the table 4.2 indicated that nearly half of the participants usually ask students to connect new information with the previously stated content (f=24).Though a small number of the teachers rarely or never ask their students

to connect the new information with the previous one, the frequency of the teachers who chose "always'' is higher than the ones who chose "sometimes'' (f=14; f=9).This finding might have stemmed from the fact that connecting new information with the previous one can help teachers to build motivation and interest for an introductory lesson.

The analysis of Item 15 which is about the unfamiliar words showed that 2 out of 50 participants rarely or never ask their students to guess the unfamiliar words in co-text. The frequency of the teachers who always or usually ask the students to guess the unknown words in co-text, are very close (f=19; f=18) and higher than the ones who chose sometimes (f=11).

The item 16 was designed to elicit whether the teachers ask their students to distinguish main idea from minor ideas. According to the Table 4.2 above,a great percentage of the teachers ask their students main ideas quite frequently. The frequency of teachers who chose always is higher than the other frequencies (f=19).

The analysis of item 17 revealed out an important result. Except one participant, every participant allows their students to go on reading even if they're unsuccessful. Although there are few teachers who rarely allow this (f=5), half of the teachers always allow the students to go on reading even if they are unsuccessful. The frequency of the teachers who chose "usually'' and "sometimes'' are very similar (usually=11, sometimes: f=9).

Below is the quotation from the interview with a participant for this item:

Reading is necessary for developing students' reading skills and their pronunciation. Mistakes should be corrected later. I mean not during the reading because stopping the students can discourage them.

As it is displayed in Table 4.2, Item 18 aimed to find out whether the teachers ask students to focus on meaning of the text not its language. According to the results, the percentages of the participants who chose "usually'' or "sometimes'' are very close to each other(28%,26%).That is, for teachers meaning is more important than language

since only 2% of teachers never ask students to focus on meaning but its language. Furthermore, 6% of teachers rarely emphasize the meaning of the text.

The results of the item 19 which aimed to investigate whether teachers encourage their students disregard insignificant words, revealed that there aren't any significant differences among the choices of always, usually or sometimes(f=13;f=15;f=16).On the contrary, the frequencies of the teachers who chose "never'' and "rarely'' are the lowest.

When we look at the analysis of item 20 which aimed to elicit whether the teachers ask students to deduce meaning from the context, we see that every teacher uses this strategy. More than half of the participants usually ask students to use the context of the text to find out the meaning of the unknown words (f=26).Even the frequencies of the teachers who chose always are more than the ones who chose sometimes (always=18; sometimes: f=5).Nevertheless, there is only on participant out of 50 said never to this item.

The sample quotation for the strategy "deducing meaning from the context" is presented below:

Deducing meaning in a context makes reading easier and more pleasurable. Students can remember the words better when they encounter later.

The results of item 21 indicate that deducing meaning from the structure is not used by 2 participants (out of 50 participants). Interestingly, the percentages of the teachers who said they always or rarely ask their students to deduce meaning from word structure is quite similar (always=16%; rarely=18%).Most of the teachers answered this item as usually or sometimes (usually=16; sometimes: f=15).The reason for such a finding might be due to the fact that deducing meaning from the structure can help students to learn the vocabulary better.

The aim of designing item 22 was to investigate whether the teachers encourage the students to benefit from relationships of cause and effect. The results indicated that a great amount of the teachers use cause and effect relationship frequently. Although the

percentage of the teachers who said they always encourage their students about cause and effect relationship is less than the teachers who said usually or sometimes (always: 22%; usually: 34%; sometimes: 32%), the percentage of the participants who said rarely or never is very low (10%, 2%).We might deduce that since learners identify the cause and effect relation, they can read and understand better.

The result of Item 23 which is about note-taking process, showed that every participant recommends their students the process of note-taking. Although the frequencies of the teachers who said they always recommend note-taking is not high (f=7), the ones who said they usually or sometimes recommend is quite higher than the teachers who said rarely (usually=17; sometimes: f=16).

The analysis for item 24 revealed that asking students to re-read for better understanding is one of the most frequently used strategy by the teachers during reading because more than half of the teachers ask their students to re-read for better understanding (f=28; 56%).Though 6 % of the teachers rarely ask their students to read the text again, every teacher used this strategy. On the other hand, the frequency of the participants who answered as always is lower than the ones who answered as sometimes (f=5; f=14).This finding might indicate that re-reading helps the learners to read faster and remember it better.

When we analyze the results for item 25, we see that all the teachers have students take notes, highlight or underline the important notes. The frequencies of the participants who said they always or usually do are more than the other choices (f=17, f=20).The percentage of the teachers who said sometimes is also higher than the choice of never (18%, 8%).

Item 26 which aimed to investigate whether the teachers give active role to the students, didn't display significant differences. The analysis reveals that most of the teachers give active roles to their students. Nearly half of the participants usually give active roles (f=22).The percentage of the participants who said they always do is higher than the ones who said sometimes (f=17; f=9).The percentage of the teachers who said never or rarely use this strategy are very few (f=1).

The last item in this group was designed to find out whether the teachers have their students focus on form at the expense of meaning. The results showed that 10 out of 50 participants never give much importance to the form. The frequency of the teachers who chose they sometimes have students focus on form at the expense of meaning is the highest (f=19).On the other hand the percentages of rarely and usually are very close to each other (16%,18%) and only 8 % of the participants chose always.

AN OVERVIEW

On the basis of the data, we can propose that every teacher uses while reading strategies. Moreover, most of the teachers allow their students to go on reading even if they are unsuccessful.(see figure 4.2) Additionally, we see that deducing the meaning from context and asking the students to analyze unknown words are the most frequently used while-reading strategies. This finding might stemmed from the fact that the students can remember unknown words better in this way.

When we compare the teachers' gender, degree, experience at the university, years at teaching reading to the strategies they use while reading, we observe that there isn't any statistically significant relationship among them.
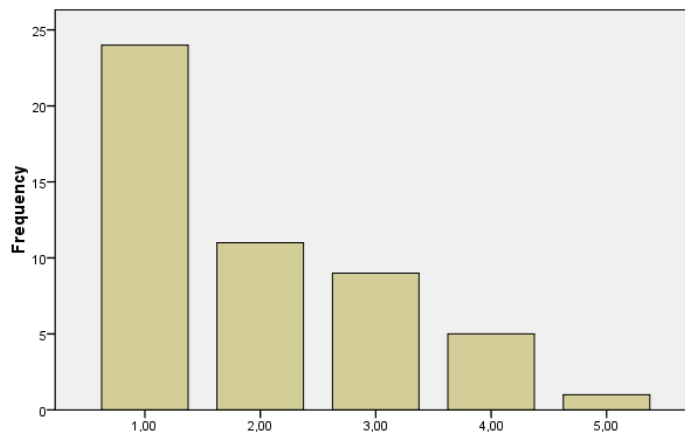
Figure 4.2Frequecny of while-reading strategies

Table 4.3 The Distribution of After-Reading Strategies

Items	1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I ask students to look back over a text and summarize it	6	12	14	28	17	34	13	26	-	-
I ask the students whether the text is relevant to their reading goals.	1	2	9	18	19	38	16	32	5	10
I have students go back to read the details of the passage to find the answers of the questions.	16	32	20	40	12	24	2	4	-	-
I monitor the students reading and the state of learning.	28	56	16	32	3	6	3	6	-	-
I ask comprehension questions about the text.	36	72	13	26	-	-	-	-	1	2
I give students a quiz about the text.	3	6	8	16	27	54	9	18	3	6
I give students follow-up activities related to the text.	18	36	20	40	8	16	4	8	-	-
I ask students to evaluate and criticize the text.	10	20	17	34	15	30	7	14	1	2
I ask students to discuss the text after reading.	16	32	20	40	12	24	1	2	1	2

1: Always   2: Usually   3: Sometimes   4: Rarely   5: Never

The results presented in Table 4.3 reveal the teachers' use of strategies after reading. The responses to the first item which investigated whether the teachers ask their students to summarize the text indicated that all the participants use this strategy but only six teachers ask their students to summarize what they read every time. On the other hand the percentages of rarely and usually are considerably similar (rarely: 26%; usually: 28%).

The second item aimed to find out whether teachers ask their students about their reading goals. The result showed that only one participant always ask their students whether the text is relevant to their reading goals.

 The results of the third item related with the reading comprehension questions displayed the importance of this strategy because more than half of the teachers have their students go back to read the details of the passage to find the answers of the questions (always=16; usually: f=20) Although only two out of 50 teachers rarely use this strategy, every teacher asks their students to read the text again to find the answers.

The responses to fourth item revealed that most of the teachers always or usually monitor their students' reading and state of learning (f=28; f=16). Though small number of the teachers sometimes or rarely uses this strategy; every teacher checks their students' state of learning. The following quotation from the interview of a participant presents the reasons for the strategy "monitoring students' state of learning":

I always monitor students' reading and the state of learning to meet the specific needs of students .I try to find out the parts that are not understood by the students.

The result of item five which aimed to explore the teachers' use of comprehension questions showed that this is the most frequent strategy they use because almost all teachers asked comprehension questions about the text(always:72%).The reason for such a finding might be that asking comprehension questions can help the teachers to test their students' comprehension.

The answers to the question about giving a quiz about the text revealed that every teacher gives a quiz except three participants (never: 6%). Additionally, more

than half of the participants sometimes give a quiz so this is another most frequent strategy the teachers use concerning after reading strategies (f=27).The reason why the participant used this strategy is as follows:

I need feedback. I want to learn what I have done is wrong or right. I also can get the feedback faster than the other strategies.

The sixth item eliciting the frequency of teachers' usage of follow-up activities made it clear that the participants give their students some activities about the text. The percentage of always or usually is higher than the less frequent options (f=18; 36%, f=20; 40%). Only small amount of the participants rarely give follow-up activities (f=4;8%).We might infer that using follow-up activities increase the learners' participation

When we compare the results of the item about evaluating and criticizing the text after reading, a fifth of the participants ask their students to evaluate and criticize the text. Thirty-two out of fifty participants usually or sometimes use this strategy .On the other hand, eight out of fifty participants rarely or never ask their students to do this activity.

The last item about discussing the text after reading indicated the importance of this strategy since it is used frequently by the participants. About seventy percent of the teachers always or usually discuss the text with their students. Nevertheless two participants rarely or never discuss the text after reading. As for the strategy "discussing the text after reading", the participant gives the following rationale:

After reading the text I want my students to comment on the subject and discuss because if they discuss, it means that production is occurred .First recognition and then production.

AN OVERVIEW

On the basis of the data, we can claim that every teacher uses after-reading strategies though the frequencies are variable. When we analyze the results, we see that a great number of the teachers give importance to comprehension questions (see figure 4.3).This may indicate that teachers want to test whether the text is understood. For this reason, most of the teachers monitor their students reading and state of learning. Additionally, teachers give the students follow-up activities related to the text. We might infer that using follow-up activities can also increase the students' participation to the lesson.

When we analyze the data statistically concerning the teachers' gender, degree, years of teaching at the university and teaching reading, we see that there aren't any relationships among them.
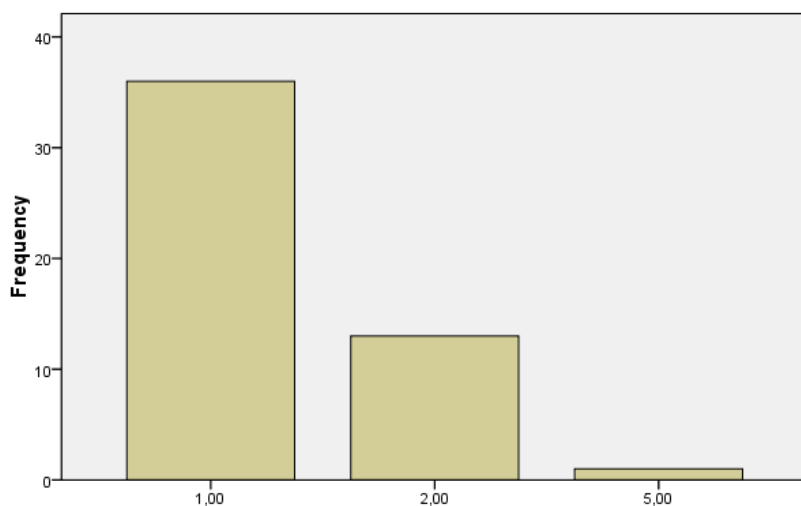
Figure 4.3 Frequency of After-reading strategies

Table 4.4.Q.1 Do you enjoy reading?

Answers	f	%
Not at all	-	-
A little	1	2
Quite a lot of	20	40
Very much	29	58

Item 1 in this group was designed to investigate whether the participants like reading in general. As shown in Table 4.4 above, most of the teachers enjoy reading very much or quite a lot (f=20, f=29).Although only one participant enjoy reading a little, every teacher likes reading. In other words, most teachers seem to have a positive attitude towards reading.

Table 4.5

How would you rate yourself as a reader in L1 and L2	L1		L2	
Answers	f	%	f	%
Poor	1	2	1	2
Average	2	4	3	6
Good	20	40	24	48
Very Good	27	54	22	44

When we compare the results of item 4 and 5 which aimed to elicit how participants perceive themselves as a reader in both L1 and L2 ,the percentage of the teachers who chose poor in both L1 and L2 are the lowest(f=1,2%).That is to say, teachers who are poor in reading L1,are also poor in L2.Also the percentage of the teachers who chose average in L1 is similar to the percentage of the teachers who chose average in L2.(L1:4%,L2:6%).Additionally, the percentage of the teachers who perceive themselves as a very good reader in L1 is higher than the percentage of the teachers in L2.On the other hand, the percentage of the teachers who perceive themselves as good reader in L2 is higher than the teachers who perceive themselves in L2.

Table 4.6 Q.6 What is your attitude to reading in general?

Answers	f	%
I really enjoy reading and I read a lot	24	48
I really enjoy reading when I do read, but do not have the time for it.	24	48
Reading is OK.I sometimes read a book or magazine	2	4
Reading is a problem for me and I don't enjoy reading at all.	-	-

When we analyze the data concerning teachers' attitudes towards reading in general, we observe that every teacher enjoys reading and almost half of the teachers enjoy reading but don't have any time for it. Moreover, nearly the other half of the teachers really enjoy reading and read a lot. A small number of teacher sometimes read a book or magazine (f=2).That is to say, teachers have reading habits though they don't have much time for reading.

Table 4.7 Q.7 How would you rate yourself as a reader, generally?

Answers	f	%
I am highly-skilled reader and have almost no problems understanding what I read	26	52
I am a good reader-I understand what I read	22	44
I am an average reader-I understand what I read if it is not so complex	2	4
I read quite slowly but usually have problems understanding what I read	-	-

The analysis of the results for item 7 revealed that more than half of the teachers see themselves as a highly-skilled reader (f=26, 52%).Nearly half of the teachers see themselves as good readers (f=22, 44%).Though 4 % of the participants see themselves as average readers, nobody has problems understanding what they read.

Table 4.8 Items 8-15

	Items	1		2		3		4		5	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
8	Reading for pleasure has had a significant effect on my proficiency in English	1	2	2	4	-	-	19	38	28	56
9	I don't think there is a connection between reading, proficiency and academic success.	33	66	13	26	-	-	-	-	4	8
10	I would rather read academic texts than novels during my leisure time.	3	6	17	34	14	28	9	18	7	14
11	One can be a good teacher though one is not a good reader.	8	16	16	32	15	30	9	18	2	4
12	I read because I believe reading has positive effect on my academic performance.	-	-	1	2	3	6	19	38	27	54
13	Reading academic texts even during one's leisure time is much more important than reading novels for fun.	3	6	16	32	15	30	8	16	8	16
14	The ability to read is all about recognizing and identifying words written on a page.	13	26	21	42	9	18	6	12	1	2

63

15	Second language learners can still develop proficiency through reading	-	-	2	4	1	2	30	60	17	34

The items presented in Table 4.11 generally aim to investigate the teachers' attitude towards the relationship between reading and proficiency in English. The results of item 8 indicate that more than half of the teachers strongly agree that reading for pleasure has had a significant effect on their proficiency in English(f=28;56).Also the percentage of the participants who agreed is more than that of the ones who strongly disagreed or disagreed (f=19;38%).

Item 9 which was designed to find out the teachers' attitudes to the connection between reading, proficiency and academic success revealed that most of the teachers believe that there is a connection among these. The percentage of the teachers who didn't agree that there is a connection between reading, proficiency and academic success is not high (f=4, 8%).

The analysis of result for item 10 indicate that the frequencies of the teachers who would rather read academic texts than novels during their free time is lower than those who wouldn't (SA: f=9; A: f=7).On the other hand, 28 percent of the teacher are not sure about it.

Item 11 aimed to find out the teachers' attitudes to the connection between being a good teacher and being a good reader. According to the results only 2 out of five participants strongly agree that one can be a good teacher though one is not a good reader. Interestingly, the percentages of teachers who agreed or strongly disagreed are very similar (SD: 16%; A: 18%).

The analysis of the results for item 12 confirms that majority of the teachers strongly agreed or agreed that reading has a positive effect on their academicperformance (f=27, f=19).However, 2 percent of the teachers disagreed about

it and 6 percent of the teachers are not sure. The reason for such a finding might be due to the fact that reading can help teachers to improve themselves academically.

The results for item 13 revealed out that the frequency of the teachers who disagreed that reading academic texts even during one's leisure time is much more important than reading novels for fun is higher than the teachers who strongly agreed (D: f=16; A: f=8).Few teachers strongly disagreed that reading academic texts is much more important than reading novels. The percentages of the participants who were not sure or disagreed are very similar (NS: 30%; DA: 32%).

As shown in Table 4.10 the results for item 14 indicate that nearly half of the teachers disagreed that the ability to read is all about recognizing and identifying words written on a page (f=21; 42%).The participants who strongly disagreed about it more than the ones who agreed or strongly disagreed (SD: f=13, A: f=6, SA: f=1).However, 9 out of 50 participants are not sure about it.

The last item in this group was designed to elicit teachers' attitudes to the second language learning and reading. The analysis of the item showed that nobody strongly disagreed that second language learners can still develop proficiency through reading a lot of novels in English. Although a small number of the teachers were not sure about the relationship between the proficiency and reading a lot of novels, more than half of the teachers agreed about it(A:f=30;NS: f=2).The percentage of the teachers who strongly agreed is higher than the percentage of the teachers who are not sure (34%; 2%).

AN OVERVIEW

Teachers' attitudes to reading may differ in regard to the emphasis on the background or personality of the teacher. These differences might stem from their previously formed school-life experience. When we analyze the data about the teachers' attitude we see that, most of the teachers have reading habit since they enjoy reading. Although they enjoy reading, they don't have enough time for it. On the other hand, almost every teacher is aware of the connection between reading, proficiency and academic success so they believe reading has positive effect on their academic performance.

When we compare the teachers' perception as a reader in L1 to L2, we can claim that teachers who perceive themselves as a good or very good reader in L1 are also good or very good in L2.

When we analyze the teachers' attitudes and their gender, degree and experiences at the university and in reading, there aren't any relationships among them statistically.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study investigated Turkish EFL teachers' beliefs regarding reading strategies. For data collection, a questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used. The participants of the present study were 50 foreign language teachers. As to elicit participants' views about reading strategies, a questionnaire was administered. Following the analysis of the responses to the questionnaire, 7 participants were chosen for the semi-structured interview. The aim of the interview was to develop a better understanding of the participants' beliefs about reading strategies.

5.2 Conclusions

RQ 1: What are the beliefs of Turkish EFL teachers regarding reading strategies?

The responses to the first question were analyzed under three groups: pre-reading strategies/while reading strategies/post-reading strategies. In response to the pre-reading strategies, the findings revealed that "asking warm-up questions and encouraging students to activate the background knowledge related to the content of the text" are the most frequently applied pre-reading strategies. On the other hand, "Using the same strategy for all texts is the least frequently applied for pre-reading strategies?

In response to the while-reading strategies, the findings revealed that while "Asking students to deduce the meaning from context" is the most frequently applied while-reading strategies, "Encouraging students to translate the text into l1" is the least frequently applied while-reading strategies.

In response to the post-reading strategies, the findings presented that "asking comprehension questions about the text" is the most frequently applied post-reading strategy. However, "Asking students whether the text is relevant to their reading goals" is the least frequently practiced after-reading strategies.

RQ2 Is there a significant difference between teachers' preferences of reading strategies and their gender?

Data analysis of the questionnaire revealed that there isn't a significant difference between teachers' preferences of reading strategies and their gender.

RQ3 Is there a significant difference between teachers' preferences of reading strategies and their experience in teaching?

There is only a significant relationship between teachers' experience in teaching at the university and pre-reading strategies.

RQ4 What are Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes to reading in general?

The data analysis about the teachers'' attitude revealed that most of the teachers enjoy reading and have reading habits but at the same time they complain about not having enough time for it. Most of the teachers believe the connection between reading, proficiency and academic success. Analysis presented that teachers who perceive themselves as a good reader in L1 are also good reader in L2.

The results that were obtained in the present study can be summarized as follows:

The most frequently practiced type of reading strategies are pre-reading strategies for the teachers.

"Asking warm-up questions" and "encouraging students to activate their background knowledge related to the content of the text" are the most frequently applied pre-reading strategies as 90% of teachers reported they "always"/"usually" apply these strategies.

Second most frequently practiced pre-reading strategy is asking students to identify the topic.

"Using the same strategy for all texts" is the least frequently applied for pre-reading?

"Asking students to deduce the meaning from context" is the most frequently applied while-reading strategies.

Second most frequently practiced while-reading strategy is "giving active role to the students."

"Encouraging students to translate the text into L1" is the least frequently applied while-reading strategy.

"Asking comprehension questions about the text'' is the most frequently applied post-reading strategy as 98% of teachers reported they "always/usually" ask comprehension questions about the text.

Second most frequently practiced post-reading strategy is "monitoring the students reading and the state of learning.

"Asking students whether the text is relevant to their reading goals" is the least frequently practiced after-reading strategy.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

The results of the study have several implications for the English language instructors. As in other skills in foreign language learning, strategies in reading play an important role since appropriate strategy use facilitates learning. For this reason, teachers should attend workshops or seminars on strategy instruction. The participants in the present study seemed to use pre-reading strategies more than while-reading after-reading. Therefore, some of the participants may be encouraged to take part in strategy training on how to use the mentioned strategies.

In addition, through in-service training teachers should be encouraged to take part in classroom observations, reflective activities on their beliefs regarding reading strategies.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

The present study was carried out with a limited number of participants. Thus, the findings of the study are also limited to the contexts where the participants work. That is, the findings can only be generalized to a limited number of the participants.

In addition, the study had some limitations in regard to use of data collection tools. Diaries kept by the teachers and classroom observations were not used.

5.5 Suggestion for Further Research

The number of participants was rather limited in the present study. A greater number of participants teaching at different universities could be involved in the study, which would yield more significant results. Secondly, the study might be carried out using more data collection tools such as observations.

Another suggestion for future research would be to compare teachers' beliefs and their actual behavior in regard to use of reading strategies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

ATTITUDES TO READING QUESTIONNAIRE

1)Do you enjoy reading?

a)Not at all   **b)** A little   **c)** Quite a lot of   **d)** Very much

2) What do you like reading most?

a)Newspapers **b)** Books   **c)** Internet (websites)   **d)** Magazines

3) Which books do you enjoy reading?

a) Biographies **b)** Romance fiction **c)** Science fiction **d)** Detective stories **e)** Non-fiction

4)How would you rate yourself as a reader in L1?

 a) Poor   **b)** Average **c)** Good   **d)** Very Good

5)How would you rate yourself as a reader in English?

a) Poor   **b)** Average **c)** Good   **d)** Very Good

6) What is your attitude to reading in general?

a) I really enjoy reading and I read a lot.

b) I really enjoy reading when I do read, but do not have the time for it.

c) Reading is OK. I sometimes read a book or magazine.

d) Reading is a problem for me and I don't enjoy reading at all.

7) How would you regard yourself as a reader, generally?

a) I am highly-skilled reader and have almost no problems understanding what

I read.

b) I am a good reader – I understand what I read.

c) I am an average reader – I understand what I read if it is not so complex.

d) I read quite slowly but usually have problems understanding what I read

8) Reading for pleasure has had a significant effect on my proficiency in English.

a) Strongly disagree **b)** Disagree **c)** Not sure **d)** Agree **e)**Strongly agree

9) I don't think there is a connection between reading, proficiency and academic

success.

a)Strongly disagree **b)**Disagree **c)** Not sure **d)**Agree **e)**Strongly agree

10)I would rather read academic texts than novels during my leisure time.

a)Strongly disagree **b)**Disagree **c)**Not sure **d)**Agree **e)**Strongly agree

11) One can be a good teacher though one is not a good reader.

a)Strongly disagree **b)** Disagree **c)** Not sure **d)** Agree **e)** Strongly agree

12) I read because I believe reading has a positive effect on my academic performance.

a)Strongly disagree **b)** Disagree **c)**Not sure **d)** Agree **e)** Strongly agree

13) Reading academic texts even during one's leisure time is much more

important than reading novels for fun.

a)Strongly disagree **b)** Disagree **c)**Not sure **d)** Agree **e)** Strongly agree

14) The ability to read is all about recognizing and identifying words written on a

page.

a) Strongly disagree **b)** Disagree **c)**Not sure **d)** Agree **e)** Strongly agree

15) Second language learners can still develop proficiency through reading a lot of novels in English

a) Strongly disagree **b)** Disagree **c)** Not sure **d)** Agree **e)** Strongly agree

Dear Colleagues,

I am an MA student at Istanbul Aydın University. I am writing my MA thesis and intending to investigate teachers' beliefs and actual practices regarding reading strategies. The purpose of the study is to explore the interplay between EFL teachers' beliefs and their practices on the role of reading strategies

As a part of this study I am conducting this survey to find out the perception of the reading strategies used by teachers in the actual classroom so your beliefs and practices are very valuable for me .Therefore I will be glad If you answer the questions as objectively as possible.

Though I need your personal background, I want to inform you that your personal information will be kept secretly and your information will never be used for another purpose. The findings will be reported as soon as analyzed.

Thank you very much for your attendance.

Serdil İlk

PART 1

The questions below are about your personal background. Please answer the questions and choose the proper answers for you.

1. Name and Surname:

2. Gender   a) Male   b) Female

3. Years of Teaching at University. a) 1-5 years   b) 5-10 c)11-20   d) more than 20

4. Years of teaching reading.   a) 1-3 years b)5-10 years c)more than 10 years

5. Degree of Education.   a) Bachelor b) Master c) PhD

Part II

Teachers' practices of reading strategies in the classroom

Please answer the questions according your practices while you are dealing with a reading text in the classroom. Please tick only one option for each question.

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

Pre-reading strategies

1. I ask students to look at the title and guess the subject of the text   **1 2 3 4 5**

2. I ask students to identify the topic (previewing)   **1 2 3 4 5**

3. I ask students to look at the pictures and predict how it relates   **1 2 3 4 5**

with the text.

4. I ask some warm-up questions before reading.   **1 2 3 4 5**

5. I ask students to read the text silently.   **1 2 3 4 5**

6. I ask students skim the text quickly before reading.   **1 2 3 4 5**

7. I ask the students' experience related with the topic.   **1 2 3 4 5**

8. I teach some important words before starting to read.   **1 2 3 4 5**

9. I encourage students to activate their background   **1 2 3 4 5**

knowledge related to the content of the text

10. I evaluate guesses and try new guesses if necessary.   **1 2 3 4 5**

11. I adjust strategies to the purpose for reading.   **1 2 3 4 5**

12. I ask students to establish the purpose in reading text.   **1 2 3 4 5**

13. I encourage students to increase the speed in silent reading.   **1 2 3 4 5**

14. I recommend my students the process of note-taking.   **1 2 3 4 5**

15. I use the same strategy for all texts.   **1 2 3 4 5**

While-reading strategies

16. I ask students to read the text only once.   1 2 3 4 5

17. I ask students to read the text aloud more than once.   1 2 3 4 5

18.I encourage the students to pay attention to the parts

 of sentences such as phrases and clauses.   1 2 3 4 5

19.I encourage students to pay attention to the

 sentence structure, such as subjects and objects.   1 2 3 4 5

20.I ask students to read clusters of words as a unit .   1 2 3 4 5

21.I encourage students avoid habits such as reading word-by word.   1 2 3 4 5

22. I encourage students to translate the text into L1.   1 2 3 4 5

23. I encourage students to use dictionary for the unknown words.   1 2 3 4 5

24.I encourage students to use context as parts of words   1 2 3 4 5

(prefixes,suffixes, and stems) to work out the meaning of unknown words

25.I read the text fully and then present it to the students.   1 2 3 4 5

26. I ask students to skim the text.   1 2 3 4 5

27. I comment on the significance of the content and question the   1 2 3 4 5

information in the text.

28.I help the students to visualize the information in the text.   1 2 3 4 5

29.I ask students to connect new information with

the previously stated context.   1 2 3 4 5

30.I ask students to guess the unfamiliar words in co-text.   1 2 3 4 5

31.I ask students to distinguish main idea from minor ideas.   1 2 3 4 5

32.I allow the students to go on reading even when unsuccessful. 1 2 3 4 5

33.I ask students to focus on meaning of the text not the form.   1 2 3 4 5

34.I encourage students disregard insignificant words.   1 2 3 4 5

35. I ask students to deduce meaning from the context.   1 2 3 4 5

36. I ask students to deduce meaning of the words from structures. 1 2 3 4 5

37. I encourage students to benefit from

 relationships of cause and effect in the text.   1 2 3 4 5

38. I recommend my students the process of note-taking.   1 2 3 4 5

39. I ask students to re-read for better understanding.   1 2 3 4 5

40. I ask students to take notes, highlight or underline

the important notes.   1 2 3 4 5

41. I give active role to the students.   1 2 3 4 5

42. I ask students to focus too much on form at the expense of meaning. 1 2 3 4 5

After reading

43. I ask students to look back over a text and summarize it   1 2 3 4 5

44. I ask students whether the text is relevant to my reading goals 1 2 3 4 5

45. I ask students to go back to read the details   of the passage

to find the answers of the questions.   1 2 3 4 5

46. I monitor the students reading and the state of learning.   1 2 3 4 5

47. I ask comprehension questions about the text.   1 2 3 4 5

48. I give students a quiz about the text.   1 2 3 4 5

49. I give students follow-up activities related to the text.   1 2 3 4 5

50. I ask students to evaluate and criticize the text.   1 2 3 4 5

51. I ask students to discuss the text after reading.   1 2 3 4 5

Chi Square Tests of gender and pre-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24,872[a]	20	,206
Likelihood Ratio	29,108	20	,086
Linear-by-Linear Association	,228	1	,633
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square value is 24,872 and p value is 0.206> 0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between gender and pre-reading strategy usage

Chi-square Tests of gender and while-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29,767[a]	27	,325
Likelihood Ratio	33,410	27	,184
Linear-by-Linear Association	,437	1	,509
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 29,767 and p value is 0.325>0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' gender and their while –reading strategy usage.

Chi-square Tests of gender and after-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17,791[a]	16	,336
Likelihood Ratio	20,710	16	,190
Linear-by-Linear Association	,399	1	,528
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 17.791 and p value is 0.336> 0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between teachers2 gender and their usage of after-reading strategies.

Chi-square Tests of gender and teachers' reading attitudes

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,688[a]	14	,905
Likelihood Ratio	10,560	14	,720
Linear-by-Linear Association	,782	1	,376
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 7.688 and p value is 0.905>0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between gender ad teachers' attitudes to reading.

Chi-square Tests of teachers' work experience at the university and pre-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	83,141[a]	60	,026
Likelihood Ratio	40,426	60	,975
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,211	1	,271
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 83.141 and p value is 0.026<0.05 so there is a relationship statistically.

Chi-square Tests of teachers' work experience and while-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	96,462[a]	81	,116
Likelihood Ratio	43,176	81	1,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,512	1	,061
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 96.462 and p value is 0.116>0.05, so there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' work experience at the university and their usage of while-reading strategies.

Chi-square Tests of teachers' work experience and after-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39,370[a]	48	,808
Likelihood Ratio	32,707	48	,955
Linear-by-Linear Association	,398	1	,528
N of Valid Cases	50		

As chi-square is 39.370 and p value is 0.808>0.05, there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' work experience and their usage of after-reading strategies statistically.

Chi-square Tests of teachers' work experience and reading attitudes

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40,132[a]	42	,553
Likelihood Ratio	23,578	42	,990
Linear-by-Linear Association	,272	1	,602
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 40.132 and p value is 0.553>0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' work experiences at the university and their reading attitudes.

Chi-square Tests of Teachers' years of teaching reading and pre-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39,644[a]	40	,486
Likelihood Ratio	38,244	40	,549
Linear-by-Linear Association	,151	1	,698
N of Valid Cases	50		

As chi-square is 39.644 and p value is 0.486>0.05, there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' years of teaching reading and their usage of pre-reading strategies.

Chi-square Tests of teachers' years of teaching reading and while-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	50,030[a]	54	,628
Likelihood Ratio	46,401	54	,759
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,025	1	,311
N of Valid Cases	50		

Since chi-square is 50.030 and p value is 0.628>0.05, there isn't a relationship statistically.

Chi-square tests of teachers' years of teaching reading and after-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,858[a]	32	,524
Likelihood Ratio	38,025	32	,214
Linear-by-Linear Association	,421	1	,516
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 30.858 and p value is 0,524>0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' years of teaching reading and their usage of after-reading strategies.

Chi-square tests of teachers' years of teaching reading and their reading attitudes

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31,004[a]	28	,317
Likelihood Ratio	29,888	28	,369
Linear-by-Linear Association	,984	1	,321
N of Valid Cases	50		

Since chi-square is 31.004 and p value is 0.317>0.05,there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' years of teaching reading and their attitudes to reading.

Chi-square tests of teachers' degree and pre-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27,939[a]	40	,925
Likelihood Ratio	27,061	40	,941
Linear-by-Linear Association	,441	1	,507
N of Valid Cases	50		

As chi-square is 27.939 and p value is 0.925>0.05, there isn't statistical relationship between teachers' degree and their usage of pre-reading strategies.

Chi-square tests of teachers' degree and while- reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	68,132[a]	54	,094
Likelihood Ratio	33,631	54	,987
Linear-by-Linear Association	,636	1	,425
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 68.132 and p value 0.094>0.05 so there isn't a significant relationship between teachers' degree and their usage of while-reading strategies.

Chi-square tests of teachers' degree and after-reading strategies

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22,792[a]	32	,885
Likelihood Ratio	24,324	32	,832
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,070	1	,301
N of Valid Cases	50		

Since chi-square is 22.792 and p value is 0.885>0.05, there isn't a statistical relationship between teachers' degree and after-reading strategies.

Chi-square tests of teachers' degree and attitudes to reading

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29,233[a]	28	,401
Likelihood Ratio	24,723	28	,643
Linear-by-Linear Association	,223	1	,637
N of Valid Cases	50		

Chi-square is 29.233 and p value is 0.401>0.05, therefore there isn't a relationship statistically.