

THE EFFECT OF READING STRATEGY TRAINING ON L2 AND L3
READING SCORES OF FRESHMEN STUDENTS



by
Mehmet Derviş Saltık

Submitted to Graduate School of Educational Sciences
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts
in
the Department of English Language Teaching

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

An important inquiry remaining unresolved is if the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction still exists and reading comprehension strategies can be transferred between diverse languages. The outcomes of such research could lead to fresh educational insights and influence the development of teaching resources. This study seeks to examine if reading strategies acquired during the L2 learning process can be applied to the L3 learning process for reading comprehension. Additionally, the effectiveness of strategy training in enhancing reading comprehension in both the L2 and L3 will be explored, as well as potential differences in the use of reading strategies between L2 and L3 learning. The research questions for the study are if strategy training create a significant improvement in the reading abilities of learners in their L2 (English) and L3 (German) and whether there is a difference between strategies used in L2 and L3. Through quantitative research method and experimental design, reading strategy instruction is conducted for totally 40 participants. A pre and a post-test are implemented before and after the instruction for L2 and L3 education. Also, five additional questions are asked during the post-tests to investigate the difference between the usage of reading comprehension strategy. The result of the analysis revealed that there is a significant effect of strategy instruction on L2 but not on L3. Also, it is revealed that there is not a significant difference between the usage of reading strategies by participants for L2 and L3. It could be concluded that reading strategy instruction is still a key for improving reading comprehension. Besides, further research is required to investigate the transferability of the reading strategies across L2 and L3. Finally, participants rely mainly on the similar reading strategies for both L2 and L3 learning.

Key words: reading, strategy instruction, L2 and L3, experimental research, reading comprehension



ÖZET

Çözümlememiş önemli bir soru, okuma stratejisi öğretiminin etkinliğinin hala var olup olmadığı ve okuma anlama stratejilerinin farklı dillere aktarılıp aktarılamayacağıdır. Bu tür bir araştırmanın sonuçları, yeni eğitimsel görüşlere yol açabilir ve öğretim kaynaklarının gelişimine etki edebilir. Bu çalışma, L2 öğrenme sürecinde edinilen okuma stratejilerinin L3 okuma anlama sürecinde kullanılıp kullanılamayacağını araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca, strateji eğitiminin L2 ve L3'deki okuma anlama becerilerini geliştirmedeki etkililiği de incelenecek ve L2 ve L3 öğrenmede okuma stratejilerinin kullanımındaki olası farklılıklar araştırılacaktır. Çalışma için araştırma soruları, strateji eğitiminin katılımcıların L2 (İngilizce) ve L3 (Almanca) okuma becerilerinde önemli bir gelişme yaratıp yaratmadığı ve katılımcıların L2 ve L3 için kullandığı stratejiler arasında bir fark olup olmadığıdır. Nicel araştırma yöntemi ve deneysel tasarım kullanılarak, toplam 40 katılımcıya okuma stratejisi eğitimi verilmektedir. L2 ve L3 eğitimi için talimat öncesinde ve sonrasında bir ön ve bir son test uygulanır. Ayrıca, son testler sırasında, okuma anlama stratejilerinin kullanımındaki farklılıkları araştırmak için beş ek soru sorulur. Analiz sonucunda, strateji eğitiminin L2 üzerinde önemli bir etkisi olduğu ancak L3 üzerinde etkisi olmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca, katılımcıların L2 ve L3 için okuma stratejilerini kullanımı arasında önemli bir fark olmadığı görülmüştür. Okuma anlama becerilerini geliştirmede okuma stratejisi öğretiminin hala önemli bir rol oynadığı sonucuna varılabilir. Bunun yanı sıra, L2 ve L3 arasındaki okuma stratejilerinin aktarılabilirliğini araştırmak için daha fazla çalışmaya ihtiyaç vardır. Son olarak, katılımcıların L2 ve L3 öğreniminde benzer okuma stratejilerine daha çok güvendikleri sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: okuma, strateji öğretimi, L2 ve L3, deneysel araştırma, okuma
anlama



TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
ABSTRACT.....	vi
ÖZET	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xv
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the Study.....	2
1.2. Problem Statement	4
1.3. Aim of the Thesis Study.....	5
1.4. Research Questions	5
1.5. Significance of the Study	6
1.6. Limitations	7
2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	8
2.1. What is Reading?	8
2.2. Reading Types.....	11
2.3. Reading Comprehension	13
2.4. Teaching Reading Skills.....	16
2.5. The Relationship Between L1 and L2 Reading Skill.....	20
2.5.1. Similarities between L1 and L2 reading skill	20
2.5.2. Reading in different languages	25
2.6. Strategy Use in EFL Teaching and Learning.....	27
2.7. Reading Strategies.....	29
2.7.1. Pre-reading strategies.....	31
2.7.2. While reading strategies.....	32
2.7.3. Post reading strategies.....	32
2.7.4. Teaching reading strategies.....	33

	xi
2.7.5. Models for teaching reading strategies	35
2.7.6. The problems in teaching reading strategies.....	37
2.7.7. The utilization of reading strategies to improve reading comprehension skills in L3	38
3. METHODOLOGY	44
3.1. Research Design.....	44
3.2. Participants	44
3.3. Data Collection Tools.....	45
3.4. Procedure.....	46
3.4.1. Setting	46
3.4.2. Reading strategies to be instructed	47
3.5. Data Analysis	48
3.6. Ethics.....	49
4. FINDINGS	50
4.1. Descriptive Analysis of the Tests.....	50
4.2. Research Question 1.....	58
4.3. Research Question 2.....	61
4.4. Research Question 3.....	64
4.5. Research Question 4.....	64
5. DISCUSSION.....	66
6. CONCLUSION	74
7. IMPLICATION	78
REFERENCES	79
APPENDIX A: READING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE.....	97
APPENDIX B: ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION PRE-POST-TEST	99
APPENDIX C: GERMAN READING COMPREHENSION PRE-POST-TEST	103
.....	109
.....	110
.....	111

.....	xii
.....	112
APPENDIX D: Ethics committee approval	113
APPENDIX E: A SAMPLE LESSON PLAN	114



LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Readability Scores of English and German Texts in the Tests.....	46
Table 2. Descriptive Analysis of the German Pre-test.....	50
Table 3. Descriptive Analysis of German Post-test.....	51
Table 4. Descriptive Analysis of English Pre-test.....	52
Table 5. Descriptive Analysis of English Post-test.....	53
Table 6. Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the German Pre- test.....	54
Table 7. Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the German Post- test.....	55
Table 8. Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the English Pre- test.....	56
Table 9. Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the English Post- test.....	57
Table 10. The Difference Between English Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Control Group Paired Sample T Test.....	58
Table 11. The Difference Between English Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Experiment Group Paired Sample Test	59
Table 12. The Difference Between English Pre-test Scores of Participants in Experiment and Control Groups Independent Sample T Test.....	60
Table 13. The Difference Between English Post-test Scores of Participants in Experiment and Control Groups Independent Samples T Test.....	60
Table 14. The Difference Between German Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Control Group Paired Sample Test	61

Table 15. The Difference Between German Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Experiment Group Paired Sample T Test	62
Table 16. The Difference Between German Pre-test Scores of Participants in Experiment and Control Groups Independent Sample T Test	63
Table 17. The Difference Between German Post-test Scores of Participants in Experiment and Control Groups Independent Sample T Test	64
Table 18. Reading Strategies Used by Students Most.....	65



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DIH : Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis

f : Frequency

TH : Threshold Hypothesis

L1 : Language 1 (Mother Tongue)

L2 : Language 2 (Second Foreign Language)

L3 : Language 3 (Third Foreign Language)

M : Mean

SD : Standard Deviation

1. INTRODUCTION

The complicated nature of learning with its numerous variables, has been a major challenge that education researchers and educators have been grappling with during the course of educational history. The study of foreign languages has become one of the most crucial areas of education globally as a result of globalization breaking down barriers and leading to a more diverse and multicultural society, which in turn has driven a demand for foreign language proficiency. English has been the widest and the most practical language used due to advancements in fields such as science, technology, economy, industry, and politics (Nunan, 2003). As a result, English has becoming increasingly important to people in order to communicate with each other across a range of life areas, including education, business, face-to-face conversations, and even social networks, among other reasons. In response to this growing demand for English language learning, educational systems are looking for ways to provide language learning opportunities that will lead to a more operational foreign language acquisition process. In this situation, foreign language education must keep pace with the needs of learners in a rapidly changing and globalizing world. Correspondingly, new applications, approaches, and design have been necessary both in the studying and instructing of languages.

Considering current requirements of students, the importance of strategies putting learners in middle of the education has increased, as they enable learners with better learning experiences throughout the procedure of learning a language. But, for some countries such as Türkiye in which students have narrowed opportunities to practice English in real-life situations, language learning is restricted to the classroom setting. As a result, the implementation of innovative techniques in the classroom has become crucial so

as to put old approaches to the test and give students an improved setting for education.

Reading is widely regarded as a key skill in language education and is considered to be a compelling means of internalizing foreign languages, particularly in places where students have limited openness to English (Lee & Heinz, 2016). It is clear that reading is the main focus of English settings in Türkiye. Therefore, to break away from conventional classroom practices and offer students more effective opportunities for language acquisition throughout reading skills education, teaching reading strategies has become a crucial aspect of language learning. Along with other proposed methods, the utilization of reading approaches has been evaluated as an effective method of enhancing language acquisition and maximizing advantages of reading in the intended language. This is thus imperative to carry out research to understand the relationship between reading strategies and its effect on learning.

1.1. Background of the Study

A significant question that still needs to be commented is whether reading strategy knowledge can be transferred across different languages. Transfer issue in both bilingual or multilingual context primarily focuses on the transfer of syntactic and grammatical (Slabakova & Garcia Mayo, 2013) structures. The transferability of abilities across other languages has been explored primarily in the context of reading (Grabe & Yamashita, 2022). Issue of determining the source of reading poorly in L2, either from deficient reading abilities in L1 or from low proficiency in L2, raises the problem of separating reading skills from language in reading abilities (Alderson, 1984).

Apparently, transfer concept is rooted through DIH (developmental interdependence hypothesis) and TH (threshold hypothesis). DIH posits that there are shared skills between a person's first and second language, and transfer can occur from first language to second language if the skills are automated and eloquent in L1. On the other hand, According to TH theory, transfer of skills can only happen after a particular degree of second language competency has been reached (Alderson, 1984).

Reading strategy awareness is linked to growth of comprehension of reading in language learners and therefore reading strategy knowledge is considered to be related with the reading proficiency. According to the DIH, if someone has proficient language skills above a certain level in one language, they will possess an array of abilities and strategies that will enable them to learn other languages more effectively, giving them a cognitive advantage for a multilingual mentality (Cummins, 1978). The theoretical analysis has mostly focused on bilingualism, using evidence from studies on second-language acquisition. It is possible to extend the premises of these ideas to settings where the effect of many languages is involved, though the frequency of L3 learning circumstances in education is increasing. Transfer could occur not only from language one to language two, but also in some other ways, including from L2 to L3. This is because acquiring a second language might enhance cognitive processes that are crucial for learning additional languages (Grabe & Yamashita, 2022).

The ability to apply or transfer knowledge from one setting to another is referred to as transfer of skills. In the context of reading, transfer of skills is an important consideration due to the sophisticated collection of cognitive processes involved in reading, including word recognition, decoding, comprehension, and interpretation (Grabe & Yamashita, 2022). According to research, abilities acquired in one language can be

transferred to another, particularly when two languages are closely related or share similarities in orthography or syntax (Koda & Zehler, 2008). For example, Tighe and Schatschneider (2014) examined that knowledge of English phonics can facilitate learning to read in Spanish or Italian, which have more consistent sound-symbol relationships.

In addition to transfer from language one to language two, transfer could also happen in some directions, such as from L2 to L3 (Grabe & Yamashita, 2022). For example, bilingual individuals have been shown to exhibit enhanced cognitive flexibility, attentional control, and working memory capacity, which can be beneficial for learning and processing new languages (Bialystok et al., 2008). However, the level of competency of each language, the amount of overlapping among the languages, and the setting where both languages are taught and used are just a few of the variables that may affect the direction and size of the transfer.

1.2. Problem Statement

The literature has paid relatively little attention to how well reading abilities acquired in a second language can be transferred to other languages. This is a critical gap for our understanding, particularly as many people today are attempting to learn multiple foreign languages, often concurrently or consecutively. Reading comprehension strategies are widely used to aid foreign language learning, but it is unclear whether such strategies can be effectively transferred across languages.

The objective of the present study is to fill this knowledge gap by investigating the transferability of reading techniques from L2 to a L3 context, specifically in the Turkish context where both additional languages are taught as foreign languages. This is an

important question because it has significant implications for learners, particularly students trying to learn multiple languages.

More specifically, the research problem we are addressing is whether reading comprehension strategies acquired in L2 are transferable to L3. This is especially important for adult students since they are more likely to use reading strategies while learning L3 because they may have already used them when studying an L2. Understanding the extent to which reading strategies can be transferred between languages can help to inform foreign language learning and instruction practices, and ultimately, support more effective language learning outcomes for learners.

1.3. Aim of the Thesis Study

In this research I aim to find out if reading skills strategies in the L2 learning process are transferable to the L3 learning process in reading comprehension context. Also, Ultimately, I want to know if there is a noticeable difference between L2 and L3 learning in terms of the usage of reading strategies. To do this, I want to find out if there is an apparent shift in the use of reading methods throughout L2 and L3 learning.

1.4. Research Questions

To fulfil the purpose of this study, the following research questions were developed:

1. Did strategy training create a significant improvement in the reading abilities of learners in their L2 English?

2. Did strategy training create a significant improvement in the reading abilities of learners in their L3 German?

3. Is there a difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their performances in L2 English and L3 German pre-test and post-test scores?

4. What are the reading strategies used by students most in English and German reading texts?

1.5. Significance of the Study

This research aims to seek effectiveness of using reading strategies through reading comprehension and transferability of reading strategies between L2 and L3 learning. Result of the research is expected to lighten up our way on the transferability of L2 reading skill strategies to L3 reading comprehension skills. If this investigation reveals that it is possible to transfer these strategies when learning L3, then it is expected for learners to utilize and undertake the overwhelming of learning L3 by transferring those strategies. The findings in the research might result in new educational implications and effect teaching materials. Also, there has not been research conducted in the Turkish context; therefore, this study is anticipated to close a knowledge gap in this field.

In addition to transferability of reading strategies, the influence of reading strategy instruction on comprehension is also anticipated to be determined. For many years this sort of research has been conducted and usefulness of reading strategy instruction has been demonstrated in many of them. But there has not been so much research over the transferability. Now, the participating students are totally from the z generation whose perceptions are totally different from the past generations and since they are university

students, reading skills are essential for them. Thus, establishing the effectiveness of reading strategy training is also assumed to be still an effective way of teaching foreign language.

1.6. Limitations

Background knowledge of L2 (English) and L3 (German) might impact of their language learning performance during the study year, and background knowledge of reading strategies could also affect their reading ability in L2 and L3. Additionally, some of the learners may have picked up on and applied those techniques when reading. This might also influence how they transfer those strategies across languages.

Another thing is that the scores that students have should not be attributed to reading strategy training solely. There might be other factors such as motivation, teaching methods and activities, peer influence etc. During the study that could affect the performance of students.

Finally, the duration and the total amount of lesson hours might not be enough for teaching strategies effectively. Students have four hours of English and four hours German lesson so it might not be possible in this number of lessons to internalise and transfer those reading strategies.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. What is Reading?

There are numerous ways to define reading as skill. Pressly (2002), one of the ones who made a definition, defines reading as a skill which is beyond decoding the printed text. He adds that reading comprehension includes not only decoding but also metacognitive thinking. EFL instructors should educate students metacognitive strategies to increase their awareness of these techniques and help them become more adept at learning new languages. (Yohannes, 2013: p. 57). In order to practice metacognitive thinking skills, readers are anticipated to create a communication with the article. Also, the active and reciprocal interaction between the reader, the context, and prior knowledge is included in the concept of reading. (Constance Ulmer, 2019).

Besides the definitions above, Bernhardt (1991) stated that the process of reading, which is a problem-solving task by oneself, happens in one's knowledge structures of the brain. Reading is an activity of capturing information within a text because Murphy (2005) defines reading as a method for comprehending a message from text that is constructed by the writer using symbols, and according to Nisa (2017), reading is a communicative activity in which readers and text content have a reciprocal relationship.

The term "reading" is another that must be defined for the sake of this study. A skill is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2010) as "a gained ability to carry out a task effectively, usually one that is formed up of a number of synchronised processes" (p. 532). This definition fits current thinking. The employment of various text genres and the use of the reading phases—pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading—which support learners with an interactive approach—maintain reading proficiency. Research has shown

the value of using reading strategies, and Mc Namara (2007) details how proficient readers are aware of when and how to apply the right methods. Additionally, it's important to make students aware of the need to match reading practises with reading objectives.

Campbell and Malicky (2002) made their definitions of reading that the reader communicates with article and this interaction is weaved as both from part to whole and whole to part. This kind of interaction theory on the reading process actually results from the criticism of the two theories that emerged at the very beginning of the 1970s that define reading as either a top-down process or a bottom-up process. Bottom-up relates to a method in which one attempts to understand an event, a text, or a unit's overall significance by focusing on each and every element. For instance, in a reading-based assignment, you can concentrate on the many word meanings to help you comprehend the entire text. Before mastering sophisticated skills like reading comprehension under the Bottom-up approach as a sequential process, learners ought to comprehend phonics and how to decipher words. (Tustin, 2019). Anderson (2014) defines that poor reading fluency is mostly caused by a lack of decoding skills, and L2 readers with excellent bottom-up skills can use their top-down reading skills to combine the two in order to understand text.

It is actually useless to debate whether procedure is more crucial than the other. Instead, equal attention should be paid to both of these processes, and in order to encourage comprehension, we need to understand how they operate (Kintsch, 2005).

Reading, rather than being a passive process, is the process of communicating that takes place actively where the readers are involved with specific aims in their minds. Reading comprehension skills help students develop vocabulary and narration skills when it comes to learning a language (Goldenberg and Coleman, 2010).

Reading comprehension is not an easy process as it is combined through different patterns such as mental, inner and practical processes and these are assumed to begin before reading activity and continue till the end of reading (Pekçabuk, 2019). Irwin (1991) describes these processes as five step processes which are interrelated with each other and they are micro, integrative, macro, elaborative and metacognitive processing. As Irwin (1991) defines micro processing refers to selecting fundamental parts of reading to get the all idea of article, integrative processing refers to drawing reason and result connections through the text, macro processing refers to identifying the text's major concepts from the article to summarize the whole text, elaborative processing refers to interpreting what is not explicitly said in the text by doing a little "decipher the context" and finally metacognitive processing refers to regulating the reading process through observing, evaluating and editing one's own knowledge.

Upon considering what reading is, it is also important to consider why reading is important and what it includes. Reading skill is essential in our daily lives. A teacher fulfils their duty by effectively teaching students language comprehension and usage. In addition, it is highlighted by Wyse and Johns (2001) that the aim of teaching reading skills is transforming the readers into autonomous readers. Also, Goldenberg and Coleman (2010) indicate that in terms of learning language, reading skills enable students to acquire vocabulary & skills of narration. Finally, as Wyse and Johns (2001) concluded that acquiring knowledge accounts for the basis of learning and most of it takes place through comprehension of reading texts.

The interactive reading process involves actively engaging with a text. According to Alexander (2000), interaction which is formed by background knowledge and personal interest about the topic has a good effect on the understanding of article. He elaborates that

through use of reading comprehension strategies, reader engagement with the material is encouraged; it also enhances interest of the reader. This is important because it requires a range of psychological, personal and practical patterns that are believed to start before the reading commences and continue throughout the reading (Pekçabuk, 2019), and students are guided through strategies for understanding to become active readers who can control their reading comprehension (Adler, 2019).

In this part, the issue of reading in general is tried to be explained. In doing so, the concept of reading is evaluated from every dimension, from earlier views and more contemporary views. In these views, what reading includes are explained and summarized. Therefore, point of views regarding to reading are aimed to be broadened. Now, in the upcoming part the types of reading we are engaged are going to be discussed. How we read a text is aimed to be explained.

2.2. Reading Types

There have been many classifications of reading types so far. Some of them are made in terms of the aim and some are made based on the process of reading. Thus, in this section those classifications are to be discussed.

Wyse and Johnson (2001) that reading types are classified in two and one of which is efferent and the other is aesthetic. In the former one, as Rosenblatt defines, readers focus on what knowledge they are going to retain after completion of the reading process and in the latter one reader is more interested in recreational purposes. Reading for pleasure purposes appear like living through what the characters live in a text.

Wyse and Johnson (2001) classify reading into three as independent, shared and guided. In their definition, independent reading refers to sensitive and critical independent

readers who make their own choices on reading and undertake the process of reading independently. In addition to independent reading, shared reading refers to whole class reading with the teacher as reading process includes doing the exercises cooperatively. Lastly, guided reading refers to reading activity context in which the teacher supports learners during the reading process in the classroom when necessary while those learners read the same books self-reliantly. Also, in this type of reading, different opinions could emerge during the reading process and it could spark the organization of a group work.

The purposes for reading also shapes our personal reading style. For example, as Haldfield and Haldfield (2008) states, when reading a newspaper, we usually have a quick look to find the main issues; however, when we read a guide, we try to understand every single word and detail in it. Therefore, it could be inferred that purposes of reading shapes how we read. While we obtain a different way of reading for acquiring a specific information, we obtain a different approach for understanding the fundamentals of a new phenomenon. This situation is even more complicated in L2 reading. According to Koda (2007), reading in L2 requires an ongoing negotiation between languages in terms of settling down the meaning; therefore, it is more complicated compared to L1 reading.

Other than the classification of Wyse and Johnson, Haycraft (1986) stated that reading types separate into two as intensive reading and extensive reading. He defines that during intensive reading, students are anticipated to read brief texts and fully understand each aspect. He elaborates that during intensive reading activity teachers' main target is to develop the learners' vocabulary and grammar usage. Besides, regarding the definition of intensive reading, Brown (2007) stated that readers decipher meaning across what is said in a sentence or throughout a text slowly and carefully. Lastly, Yamashita (2004) indicated

that learners read a small article and frequently perform translation exercises during intensive reading, particularly while speaking foreign language.

Further, extensive reading is sort of reading in which learners are waited to read and spot main idea of the text instead of each vocabulary item. Instead, then having to expound on their comprehension like they would in intensive reading, students are only expected to read as extensively as they can during an extended reading, which involves reading easier texts than they would during intensive reading (Ríos Olaya & Valcárcel Goyeneche, 2005; Yamashita, 2004). In addition, according to Richards and Schmidt (2010), the goal of extended reading is to gain a comprehensive understanding of what is read by reading a lot of books.

In conclusion, some of the types of reading are discussed above. The types elaborated above consisted of intensive, extensive, independent, shared, guided, efferent and aesthetic. Each of the reading type has its own unique and advantageous features. Classifications of reading types are not limited to those types above. Teachers can utilize those types of reading based on their learners' needs and aims of the curriculum.

2.3. Reading Comprehension

One of the most difficult yet necessary jobs people conduct on a daily basis is the capacity to comprehend written material. They encounter a wide range of texts such as advertisements, textbooks, newspapers, instructions, magazines through the day. The aim of reading is to comprehend and make sense of article, and it is known as comprehension. It requires active engagement while reading (Durkin, 1993). Eagleton and Dobler (2007) contend that when readers infer meaning from written or digital information, comprehension of text is a difficult process. This intricacy is especially evident when

reading literature that has been published in a foreign language, readers must navigate texts with a restricted vocabulary and grammatical structures (Ölmez, 2016). Additionally, reading comprehension is the activity of creating meaning from text while actively utilizing both intellectual and strategic abilities as well as participating in an interaction pattern with the text. It is a difficult procedure that requires the reader to consciously create a mental image of the text (van den Broek & Espin, 2012).

Without this ability, learners may experience reading difficulties and suffer in many subject areas. Reading comprehension is a skill that people should develop for academic achievement, and it is crucial in many areas of school courses (Baier, 2005). Every individual could benefit from improving their reading comprehension, especially in primary school (Sweet & Snow, 2003). The foundation for learning in schools is reading comprehension (Kirsch et al., 2002).

It is very important to achieve successful reading comprehension. A reader needs engage in a range of tasks for successful comprehension, such as decoding abilities (Shankweiler et al., 1999) and integration capabilities (Magliano et al., 2002). Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003) argue that readers need to have sufficient conceptual understanding and be adept at employing the right reading comprehension techniques in order to comprehend a text well. Hasibuan and Ansyari (2007) claim that reading is an active activity in which students integrate new information with their prior knowledge.

To comprehend written content, a person draws on prior knowledge of words, grammatical structures, meanings, and the outside world. To fully engage in this interactive process when reading, it is important to include both cognitive and metacognitive components (Afflerbach et al., 2008; Salmer'on, et al., 2010). According to Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), the relationship between the reader's past knowledge and the

text is also important for reading comprehension. Readers actively engage with the text as they read in order to deduce meaning from it in light of their prior knowledge, preferences, events, and cultural upbringing. They actively produce knowledge as opposed to passively extracting it.

It might occasionally be challenging for readers to comprehend whatever they are reading. When readers lack comprehension, they can try to justify or clarify their understanding through monitoring. Skilled readers may handle comprehension failures by rereading and making corrections. If readers do not engage in active monitoring, their reading comprehension may suffer (Perfetti et al., 2005). When reading literature written in a foreign language, where readers must traverse texts with a limited vocabulary and grammatical structures, this complexity is particularly obvious (Ölmez, 2016). According to Aarnoutse and Schellings (2013), in order for readers to comprehend a text well, they must have a solid conceptual grasp of the subject matter and be skilled at using the appropriate reading comprehension strategies.

Fortunately, there have been some instructional methods to develop reading comprehension. Teachers have access to research on printed text that has been conducted over the years, which helps define comprehension and identify effective instructional strategies. After receiving good reading strategy training, readers' comprehension skills advance and they are better prepared to support the advantageous learning process that moves beyond developing to read to reading for instructional reasons. This is an ultimate goal for reading (Yovanoff et al., 2005). Therefore, comprehension is closely tied to the effective use of strategic processes. As Karbalaei (2010) points out, Students will acquire a positive outlook and be able to handle the process independently when they are able to

easily understand the material, they are reading by employing a variety of strategies, which will result in academic success.

This is important for learners to focus on their reading, but they can sometimes become too focused on individual words or unnecessary details, which could trigger them to lose track of the text's intended meaning. Therefore, teachers should give students opportunity to interact with a variety of texts for various goals. Additionally, teachers should help learners to develop the necessary sub-skills to read effectively (Meltzer & Hamman, 2005). Reading comprehension is the process of extracting meaning from text while actively using both analytical and logical thinking skills and engaging in a pattern of interaction with the material. It is a challenging process that calls for the reader to consciously form an image of the text.

By include activities in their lessons that specifically highlight the use of methods in a situation when students are engaged in both reading and writing tasks, teachers can increase their students' reading comprehension. In addition, to aid students in the development of critical thinking abilities and offer feedback for each student, teachers ought to foster debates regarding books. (Meltzer & Hamman, 2005).

2.4. Teaching Reading Skills

Teaching reading skills is compelling for several reasons. First, a fundamental ability that is necessary for achievement in any language is reading. It serves as the basis for acquiring further skills including writing, speaking, and listening. Therefore, in order learners to be able converse effectively in English, reading instruction in EFL programs is crucial (Nation, 2013) and also it is necessary to meet the diverse requirements and

interests of their students, teachers must offer a variety of reading resources (Nation, 2013; Tompkins, 2016). Additionally, reading is an important tool for gaining knowledge and understanding of the world. By teaching reading skills, teachers can open a door to a vast amount of information and resources that are only available in English. Furthermore, teaching learners to read can enhance their ability to think critically and solve problems as well as introduce them to various cultures and viewpoints. (Krashen, 2004). Moreover, it can also help students to develop their vocabulary and grammar, which are essential for language proficiency. Therefore, teaching reading skills in EFL classes is a vital step in helping students to improve skills and increase the likelihood of success in a more globally connected society. (Fountas and Pinnell, 1996).

In EFL classes, students ought to take part in a range of literary pursuits that are suitable for their reading level and interests. Utilizing real texts that are pertinent to the requirements and passions of learners is one of the best strategies to teach reading skills (Kuo & Anderson, 2015). Authentic texts are materials that are written in English and are intended for native speakers, such as news articles, short stories, and novels. These articles introduce learners to a variety of vocabulary, syntax, and idiomatic expressions while giving them practical examples of the language. Additionally, students should also engage in guided reading activities, where they focus on specific vocabulary and grammar, and respond to questions and prompts that guide their understanding (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). This could assist learners develop reading skills and improve comprehension. Furthermore, students should also be exposed to different genres of literature, such as poetry, drama and non-fiction, as this will help them to develop a diverse reading experience. Therefore, it is vital for instructors to provide a balance of different reading materials to suit disparate students' needs and interests (Nation, 2013; Tompkins, 2016).

Students should develop a range of reading abilities for the purpose to grow into proficient English readers. Students who master these abilities can read and comprehend a wide range of English-language books, including fiction, non-fiction, poetry, and drama. They will be able to access and comprehend a wider variety of material and ideas, in addition to improving their language skills. First among these skills is the ability to comprehend the essential points and specifics of a book, as well as to draw conclusions and connections between other passages (Kuo & Anderson, 2015). Nation (2013), on the other hand, suggests that students ought to comprehend and be able to utilize new terms in context, as well as have a diverse vocabulary.

Besides, according to Tompkins (2016), students should be able to do a quick and smooth reading, with the proper expression and intonation. Also, through critical thinking skills, students had better be able to analyse and evaluate article, as well as form their own opinions and arguments (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Additionally, Krashen (2004) stated learners had better be able to quickly read through article to find clear-cut information through scanning and skimming. Of course, these are not the only skills to be attained by learners to develop reading comprehension. However, those skills are thought to be essential in fulfilling reading activities. According to Kuo and Anderson (2015), one of the best methods for teaching reading skills is to use authentic texts that are relevant to the needs and interests of learners.

There are several key principles behind teaching reading skills in EFL classes. One of the most important principles is the use of authentic texts. Authentic texts are materials that are written in English and intended for native speakers, such as news articles, short stories, and novels (Brown, 2007). According to Thompkins (2016) students are presented

with an extensive array of grammar, vocabulary, and idiomatic expressions in these works as well as real-world instances of the language and with the appropriate emotion and intonation, students ought to be able to read these authentic texts quickly and smoothly.

The use of scaffolding, which entails dividing the reading process into digestible parts and giving students the support and direction, they need to comprehend and analyse a text, is another crucial element. (Vygotsky, 1978). This can include pre-reading activities, such as vocabulary building, as well as post-reading activities, such as discussion and reflection. Additionally, the use of a variety of texts and genres is also crucial, as it helps students to develop a diverse reading experience and expose them to different cultures and perspectives (Gee, 1996). Furthermore, teachers should also be mindful of the different needs and proficiency levels of their students, and adjust their teaching methods and strategies accordingly. Also using real texts that are pertinent to the wants and desires of the students is one of the greatest ways to teach reading skills (Kuo and Anderson, 2015)

It is also very important to teach academic reading skills. Many of the students in their first grade at university have difficulties in coping with the academic texts. The complexity of the language, terminology and also the superficial approach to comprehend the academic texts are factors that impede learners from understanding the texts efficiently (Parsania & Padia, 2018). Moreover, instructors and also the authors of the academic text have the presupposition that students already know the concept about the subject matter (Erickson et al., 2006). Therefore, academic reading skills need to be taught in order to improve student performance in class. In her study, Hermida (2009) introduced academic reading strategies which are researching the author and audience of the text, identifying the author's main thesis, ideas and arguments, analysing the terminology and concepts in the text, to her students along with reading activities. Her study's findings showed that these

strategies and exercises encouraged her students to utilize higher-order cognitive skills to go through with the academic texts.

2.5. The Relationship Between L1 and L2 Reading Skill

Dual-language involvement refers to the ongoing interactions and adjustments necessary to accommodate the different demands imposed by two languages. L2 reading is consequently more sophisticated than L1 reading and involves cross-linguistic elements (Koda, 2007). The factors that facilitate L1-L2 transfer are different from the contributions of L2 component skills, which are primary sources of L2 reading development.

2.5.1. Similarities between L1 and L2 reading skill

Both in L1 and L2 situations, the diverse linguistic tools utilized for reading comprehension are comparable. Reading comprehension in L2 is frequently predicted by the same variables that influence reading comprehension in L1.

In bilingual and L2 acquisition research, the concepts of transferring literacy skills from L1 to L2 reading and the potential impact of an L1 linguistic threshold on this transfer have been discussed for a period of over forty years. Both theories were developed by Cummins (1991) to explain the relationship between L1 and L2 reading development in bilingual education settings in North America. The Interdependence Hypothesis suggests that academic language proficiency requires interdependent language skills that can be shared between two languages in educational contexts.

The theories of Interdependence Hypothesis and Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis have been discussed for over 40 years in bilingual acquisition and L2 research. The

Interdependence Hypothesis suggests that academic language proficiency requires underlying language skills that are interdependent and can be shared between two languages in educational settings, while the LTH (Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis) states that transfer across from the L1 to the L2 requires a specific level of ability in both languages. The relevance of L1-L2 transfer while learning English as a second language in academic settings has been highlighted by studies over the past thirty years that have revealed a correlation between the language and reading skills of children with L1 Spanish or French and their L2 English reading abilities. (Commeau et al., 1993; Durgunoğlu et al., 1999; Pasquarella et al., 2015; Hipfner-Boucher & Chen, 2016).

To help transfer L1 knowledge to L2, for both first- and second-language development, it is fundamental to cultivate metalinguistic awareness. At the word recognition level, in particular, metalinguistic awareness entails realizing that spoken language is composed of distinct sounds and that those sounds correlate to the language's written symbols.

Alderson et al. (2016) contrasted L2-English readers with varying degrees of competency and assessed the impact of L1 reading performance and distinct L2 constituent skills. The researchers looked at three groups of students from Finland who were in grades 4, 8, and higher secondary school (aged 17) and who had Finnish as their first language. The students underwent a variety of L1 and L2 skill tests, cognitive evaluations, and tests of their reading comprehension in L2.

There are some implications bearing the similarities in reading among languages. The difference between L1 and L2 reading, as well as the controversy surrounding L1 transfer and L2 development, highlight the significance of explicit instructions in L2

reading and the necessity of consistent practice with printed materials to promote L2 reading development.

To begin with, it is essential to teach many elements of L2 reading skills as they cannot be acquired automatically. Additionally, automatic L1 skills may create challenges for L2 reading. Ellis (2005, 2006) argues that automatic processing skills developed in L1 can result in interference, which the L2 learner must intentionally work on to read L2 input efficiently and override automatic L1 associations.

The second implication has to do with how much exposure to L2 reading information a student receives. Although L2 reading development is similar to L1 reading development, there are considerable differences between the two. L2 reading is more reliant on the growth of L2 language knowledge and broad exposure to L2 texts, even though L1 reading skills are still crucial. Therefore, it is crucial for L2 learners to have opportunities to practice reading and gain experience with L2 texts.

The role of L2 reading quantity is important and cannot be ignored. Additionally, L2 reading instruction should focus on ways to utilize reading skills for L1 to facilitate reading development for L2. This could involve developing metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness using resources from both languages. Cognates and morphological similarities should also be utilized, and teachers should note when socio cultural expectations about text organization and use are similar across languages.

L2 readers may not be aware of the social and cultural factors that affect how L2 texts are organized, used, and understood by proficient readers in the L2 culture. This lack of awareness can cause confusion and hinder L2 reading development. To address this issue, L2 reading instruction should explicitly teach concepts such as the structure of persuasive texts, critical interpretation of texts, and the use of text as a resource. This can

be accomplished through a variety of techniques, such as targeted assignments to analyse text structure, modelling of comprehension processes by teachers, and class discussions connecting text comprehension to the structure of L1 texts.

Research on language development and the impact of an individual's initial language (L1) and second language (L2) on the development of third language (L3) are the foundations of the study of how people acquire a third language (Cenoz, 2003). The concept of cross linguistic effect has led to various approaches in the study of acquisition of L3, and three models have been offered: the Second Language Status Factor Model (Bardel & Falk, 2007, 2010), Cumulative Enhancement Model (Flynn, et al., 2004), and Typological Primacy Model (Rothman & Cabrelli Amaro, 2010; Rothman et al., 2010). Models here attempt to understand how various languages interact in the multilingual mind as well as the potential roles that L1, L2 may play in L3 instruction. Studies in this area have concentrated on a range of L3 acquisition processes, including vocabulary learning (Schönpflug, 2000; Molnár, 2010; Ringbom, 2001), syntax (Carvalho & Silva, 2006), and the alliance between syntax and pragmatics (Slabakova & Garcia Mayo, 2013).

Several studies have shown that the acquisition of L3 could be affected by either L1, L2, or both, as noted by Flynn et al. (2004). For instance, Bruhn de Garavito and Perpiñán (2014) discovered that when studying L3 Spanish for the first time, people who communicate L1 French and L2 English lean on their L1 French grammar in some circumstances and their L2 English grammar in others.

These results show that L1 and L2 are both available and used whenever they aid in interpreting the input.

Between different languages, there is a transferable awareness of and application of reading skills, such as from L1 - L2, L2 - L3, and L2 - L1 (Talebi, 2013). This kind of

transfer appears to be unlimited, which falls under the linked languages model proposed by Cook (1991). When students with strategic reading skills encounter a new language, they do not start from scratch. They are proficient readers in their second language.

While reading strategically is essential for improving reading and comprehension, simply being aware of and using strategies does not make someone an effective reader. The effectiveness of strategy use is crucial, and it is not enough to merely use them to become a successful strategic reader. Language dominance matters because it might be challenging to transfer L1 reading techniques to L2 if L2 proficiency is inadequate, interfering with reading success. Advances in the reading process and outcome in L2 result in comparable gains in L3, regardless of the transfer direction and the students' competence level. (Hardin, 2001).

Lasagabaster's (2000) study on trilingual young people in an academic setting with a Spanish-Basque language context is regarded as an important study in this field. By applying the principles of the developmental interdependence hypothesis (DIH) to L3 learning. In grades 5 and 8, children who were bilingual and showed higher levels of competency in both their L1 and L2 outperformed those who were monolingual and had lesser degrees of competence in their L1 and L2.

Also in the study, Öztekin (2016) found that a common listening skill that can be used in all three languages can be developed in trilingual minds by giving learners explicit instruction on listening strategies and encouraging them to increase their awareness of L2 and L3 listening techniques. Explicitly teaching learners listening methods and pushing them to become more conscious of listening strategies in different languages, learners can acquire a common listening skill (Öztekin, 2016). This will allow them to benefit from the potential mediating influence of L2 listening skills. She argued that trilingual people may

use listening techniques they had learned in their second language, which they spoke more fluently, to their third language, which they spoke less fluently.

2.5.2. Reading in different languages

When it comes to learning to read in a second language (L2), It is important to take the difference between L1 and L2 in terms of language structure into account. Studying developmental reading skills in different languages can help determine whether there are general principles of reading development that apply across languages, and to what extent differences between L1 and L2 create unique challenges for learning and instruction. Differences in various aspects of language, such as pronunciation, spelling, word formation, sentence structure, vocabulary, and discourse features, result in numerous similarities and differences between any two languages.

The main differences between languages include their spelling systems, which visually represent the sounds and word structures of each language. This can vary greatly between languages, and researchers such as Comrie (2018), Crystal (2010), Helms-Park et al. (2016), and Verhoeven & Perfetti (2017) have studied this topic. In addition to differences in how phonemes are represented, languages can also differ in the structure of syllables. The vocabulary and grammar of each language can also be unique.

Although languages have different syntactic structures, there is limited research on how these differences affect readers with different L1s and L2s. Frost (2012) and Verhoeven and Perfetti (2017) have studied this topic, but more research is needed. According to Akamatsu (2006), research indicates that the word-processing skills or

strategies developed in a person's L1 have a significant impact on the cognitive processes involved in reading an L2.

Teachers should have a general understanding of their students' linguistic and literacy backgrounds. Taking into account the variations in how people learn to read in various L1s, teachers should assess the reading abilities of beginner-level students by having them read a set of common English words easily and also ensure that they can read a basic list of made-up English words without significant difficulty or failing to finish the task. If learners have trouble with reading sight words and made-up words, they can be taught to develop associations between letters and sounds over larger units than just individual letters and sounds.

Teaching this skill can involve providing students with a list of 100 examples of consistent rhyme patterns in English. These larger sets of letter and word part patterns in English create more consistent relationships between letters and sounds that can be strengthened through practice reading common sight words.

The varying patterns observed in the orthographies of different L1 languages, including their levels of orthographic depth and other features, stress the significance of precise and fluid word recognition in L2 learning. To achieve this, learners must develop automatic associations between letters and sounds specific to the orthography, phonology, and morphology of the L2 they are learning. It is crucial for students to have well-practiced word processing skills to recognize L2 words efficiently. One effective method for achieving this automaticity is by regularly incorporating extensive reading into the curriculum.

2.6. Strategy Use in EFL Teaching and Learning

Reading is regarded as a very complex activity requiring perceptual, verbal, and cognitive skills. Therefore, according to Bouvet (2000), because of readers' insufficient knowledge of L2 culture and linguistic, reading in another foreign language could even become more demanding. As a result, reading strategies have a key role in those kinds of situations.

In this respect it is better to consider the definitions of strategy in language learning. The term "strategy" has many different interpretations, with different aspects emphasized. Seliger (1991) defines it as the broad, abstract strategies that human mind employs to gather and arrange incoming information. Açıkgöz (1996) and Anderson (2002) both emphasize concept of "goal" in their definitions of strategy. Açıkgöz defines it as the method or plan used to achieve something, while according to Anderson, strategies are the deliberate acts that students use to accomplish particular objectives or aims. Grabe and Stoller (2002) describe strategies as the capacities that can be consciously considered and applied.

One way to enhance the learning process for learners is through the use of strategies-based instruction (SBI). This method focuses on improving language learning through the efficient application of suitable strategies. With this knowledge, the implementation of SBI started, and interest in it has grown over time as it has been seen as a way to move away from traditional teacher-led instruction and promote more effective language learning.

According to Oxford (1990), SBI is a tool that enables students to control their learning process utilizing techniques as they learn to become less dependent from instructors. Oxford's beliefs are backed up by Cohen (2011) who claims that, along with

many other advantages, SBI offers students numerous possibilities to develop their learning skills and become independent learners.

Grenfell and Harris (2002) argue that SBI had better be applied implicitly in ordinary classroom settings in order to foster student independence and capability. The literature tends to support the usage of explicit SBI when discussing whether SBI should be used implicitly or explicitly. (Oxford, 2002; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Pressley, 2000).

Learners can increase their learning and take charge of their education by using language learning techniques (LLS) (Oxford, 1990). According to Cohen (2014), LLS approaches include differentiating the material to be learnt, separating it from other content, reviewing the material, and formally exercising in order to help people memorize new information. These methods assist students in actively engaging in self-directed instruction, which is crucial for growing their capacity for effective communication. When strategies are employed correctly, they can lead to increased self-confidence and improved proficiency for students. Oxford (1990) places a vital emphasis on the utilization of LLS as a means of promoting communicative competence through self-directed activities and movement.

In a communicative classroom setting, learning techniques help language learners participate actively in real-world communication settings. In order to memorize new knowledge, Identifying the material to be learned, separating it from other content, revisiting the material, and formally exercising are all part of LLS methodologies. (Cohen, 2014).

There have been many classifications of language learning strategies. One of them is Stern's classification (1992) which is planning, management, interpersonal, communicative experiential, cognitive, and affective language learning strategies.

Furthermore, Oxford (1990) separates strategies into two categories; direct and indirect and then classifies direct strategies as memory, cognitive and compensation strategies; indirect strategies as metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Last but not the least, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) categorize LLS into three main section as metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies.

In conclusion, learning strategies are essential for language learners to actively engage in autonomous learning and develop communicative competence. Strategies, when used appropriately, can increase self-confidence and proficiency in students. There have been various classifications of language learning strategies, such as Rubin's social, communication and learning strategies, Stern's management and planning, cognitive, communicative-experiential, interpersonal and affective strategies, Oxford's direct and indirect strategies, and O'Malley and Chamot's metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies. The importance of addressing LLS in the communicative classroom has been emphasized by scholars such as Oxford, Lavine and Crookall, and Cohen.

2.7. Reading Strategies

According to Duke and Pearson (2002), good readers employ techniques to increase their understanding of literature, including organizing their past knowledge, linking new data with it, asking questions, drawing conclusions, focusing on the text's important concepts, and picturing what they have read. Good reading comprehension strategies are therefore the most important instruments for helping readers improve their understanding and learning from books. Exposure to explicit technique training improves students' reading comprehension.

According to Adler (2019) good readers use comprehension techniques, which are deliberate plans and sequences of actions, to interpret text. Recognizing "how to read materials written in a foreign language" is an effective step in teaching reading to students. This makes it easier for each reader to pinpoint sensible reading tactics based on text-specific characteristics. Notifying the readers of key text characteristics that may affect their ability to read in a foreign language is an essential part of this phase. (Toprak & Almacıoğlu, 2009, p. 22).

In the relevant literature, reading methods are defined in a variety of ways, however, despite slight differences, Erler and Finkbeiner provide a commonly accepted explanation. Reading strategies are defined as "intentional behaviours selected to promote reading at any stage of cognition" by Erler and Finkbeiner (2007). Therefore, the adoption of reading methods is generally considered to be advantageous for students because they are thought to help with understanding. According to Singhal (2001), students use reading strategies to speed up the reading process and increase their comprehension of the content. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2008) discovered that students who have high reading competence used reading strategies, whereas students with low proficiency relied more on trying to understand the material by reading it again. Tsai (2017) highlighted the variations in strategy use among learners, citing Zhang et al.

The primary objective of reading strategy instruction, according to Uzunçakmak (2005), is to develop students into strategic readers who are self-aware of utilising strategies when reading and comprehending a text. The short-term goal of strategy instruction is to help learners comprehend what they read.

According to a recent study (Alfassi, 2004; Salatacı & Akyel, 2002), strategy training had considerable effects on L2 students' evaluations in addition to their approach

use. According to Alfassi (2004), students who receive comprehensive training are more likely to comprehend what they read than students who receive traditional literacy instruction.

Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading are the three stages of the reading process that most typically correspond to different kinds of reading methods (Paris et al., 1991; Wallace, 1992).

2.7.1. Pre-reading strategies

Before reading article, certain preparatory techniques can be used by readers to enhance their understanding of the material. These techniques, known as pre-reading strategies, include using visuals, asking questions about themes, and brainstorming (Wallace, 1992). These strategies aid in active participation and activate prior knowledge to make connections and predictions (Farr et al., 2010). According to Williamson (1988, pp. 7-8 as referenced in Nisa, 2017, p.152), pre-reading activities can be carried out by posing questions to learners in both written and oral form, after which they will seek for the answers when reading. A student's own experiences linked to the subject may also be solicited or documented. Shema theory (Anderson & Pearson, 1998; Nunan, 1999) supports that the depth of the reader's comprehension of the text increases with their mental acuity. Making assumptions based on the title and scanning for the major themes are a few examples of pre-reading techniques. (Aurbach & Paxton, 1997), having a clear reading objective (Chamot et al., 1999), creating questions in advance (Wallace, 1992), employing headings and subheadings, visual resources, brief real-world stories, and reading the first and final sentence of the text (Farr, et al., 2010; Grabe & Stoller, 2002) are all strategies for improving reading comprehension. Additionally, these strategies can also

aid in improvement of critical thinking, and providing an opportunity for learners to preview material before reading, which can increase their comprehension and overall understanding of the text. Furthermore, pre-reading strategies not only prepare the reader for the text but also contribute to the development of autonomous learners (Beers, 2003), and help readers manage their own learning process and become independent from teachers (Oxford, 1990).

2.7.2. While reading strategies

While/during reading strategies are mental processes that take place while reading article and are intended to aid reader in understanding and retaining the information offered. These techniques include keeping an eye on understanding, employing visual organizers, asking questions, summarizing, drawing conclusions, and drawing links between the text and the reader's existing knowledge.

According to Farr et al. (2010), readers should regularly practice comprehension techniques because proficient readers are known to use techniques like linking relationships and observing understanding when reading. As a result, since readers employ these techniques to comprehend the text, they are perhaps the most widely used.

2.7.3. Post reading strategies

Post-reading strategies are activities & techniques that readers utilize after they have finished reading a text in order to deepen their understanding, consolidate their learning, and reflect on the material they have read. These strategies include summarizing, reflecting, analysing, synthesizing, and evaluating the text.

One example of this is provided by McWhorter (2014) who defines post-reading strategies as "activities that readers undertake after they have read article to extend or deepen their comprehension of it. These strategies can include summarizing, reflecting, analysing, synthesizing, and evaluating the text in various ways" (p. 52).

Summarizing is an efficient reading technique that can take many different forms, according to Babbitt (1996). Answering comprehension questions, placing events in chronological order according to their importance in the text, employing visual organizers, and comparing maps or charts completed during the previous reading process are a few proposed post-reading tasks.

2.7.4. Teaching reading strategies

Reading strategy instruction is characterized by two main approaches: direct explanation and scaffolding (Sinatra et al., 2001). According to the first method, teachers should openly explain the methods by using text to demonstrate how they should be used. To ensure that the stages of using an approach are as obvious as possible, teachers can employ strategies like read-aloud or think-aloud. Direct explanation is therefore regarded as the most prevalent element of explicit strategy training due to the variety of opportunities it provides for learners to become aware of the application of strategies. This approach can enhance learners' autonomy in the learning process (Paris, et al., 1991).

Furthermore, scaffolding shifts focus of reading strategy instruction from the teacher's responsibility to the student's (Dole et al., 1991; Paris et al., 1991). This method is thought to be a significant advantage of reading strategy training since it encourages learners to take charge of their own language learning.

Duffy (2002) suggests that when teaching strategies, educators should clearly explain the purpose and use of the strategies and ensure that they are connected to the reading of texts. Klinger et al. (2011) also proposed some steps for teaching strategies:

“1. Begin with reading material that is easy for the students to read. In the beginning, the point is to teach students how to use the strategy, so the text is a tool to that end.

2. Explain the target strategy step-by-step.

3. Activate background knowledge.

4. Provide information about students’ current performance levels and emphasize the potential benefits of using the strategy.

5. Model the strategy for the students, repeating the steps you explained to them in step 2 and using a think-aloud procedure.

6. Provide several opportunities to practice the strategy as a whole class, in small groups, or in pairs. Help by prompting students to complete steps they might have missed or by assisting them to complete steps. Reexplain steps of the strategy as needed.

7. Provide opportunities for students to practice the strategy independently, with feedback and support as needed. Gradually fade assistance, until students can apply the strategy on their own.

8. Help students generalize use of the strategy. Increase the difficulty level of the reading material students are using, and provide different types of reading materials. Remind students when it might be appropriate to use a strategy.

9. Provide students with a list or chart of the steps of the strategy, in case they need a reminder. Charts can be posted on the wall.

10. When students have used a strategy, they should self-evaluate how well it worked for them” (Klinger et al., 2011, pp. 222-223)

In EFL lessons, teaching reading strategies has produced effective outcomes. Swanson et al.'s meta-analysis study from 1999 revealed that direct training in techniques had the greatest effect on reading comprehension. Teaching reading skills to foreign language learners is clearly important since it fosters inner development in acquiring a language and offers a variety of options for progress in learning a novel language.

2.7.5. Models for teaching reading strategies

There are numerous instructional models proposed in the literature for providing effective strategy instruction, each with its own specific plan for implementation. The most frequently discussed instructional models in the literature include Transactional Strategies Instruction, Reciprocal Teaching, Direct Explanation, and Questioning the Author (Yetgin, 2003).

Palincsar and Brown (1989) stated that the Reciprocal Teaching instructional model stresses the utilization of some reading strategies: summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. In typical Reciprocal Teaching session, the instructor initially clarifies and shows these strategies. Then, with small groups, learners read a portion of a text silently, and then engage in a group discussion afterwards.

In a ground-breaking investigation by Palinscar and Brown (as cited in Corte et al., 2001), students trained using Reciprocal Teaching method showed improvement in their use of these strategies. Rosenshine and Meister (as cited in Vacca, 2002) report on yet another examination of the literature found Reciprocal Teaching method improved students' comprehension, both in comprehension tests designed by the researchers and in standardized tests of comprehension.

During mini-lessons, the teacher helps students use reading techniques when using transactional strategy instruction. During these classes, the teacher and learners read aloud and discuss strategies as they are used. Students are urged to employ techniques at all stages of the reading process while the advantages of utilizing them are underlined. When learners use the strategies, the teacher continuously offers encouragement. Students are also urged to aid and support one another in developing their strategic reading skills (Beckman, 2002). Numerous research has proven that Transactional Strategy Instruction is an effective educational paradigm (Corte et al., 2001).

In Direct Explanation model of instruction, Duffy (2002) stated that the educator first presents the current task to the students. Without starting the reading right away, the A clear description of the strategy that has to be learnt, as well as when and how it should be applied, is given by the educator. Following the lesson, the instructor offers students scaffolded practice while modelling how to use the approach. The teacher gradually lessens the amount of support provided to the learners as they become more skilled at applying the method. The questioning author's model includes a concluding stage in which the instructor and students consider what they have learned and assess the effectiveness of the strategy.

By having dialogues about texts and their meanings, the Questioning the Author method tries to assist students in internalizing reading skills. It emphasizes the importance of reading for understanding and also focuses on reading. Instead of teaching specific techniques, the teacher asks learners inquiries that help them make sense of the text and the point of view of the writer. The Questioning the Author method challenges readers to analyse the text's components as they read and refine their own comprehension. By posing

and responding to questions, the students interact with the text and the author, allowing them to actively participate in the learning process (Sinatra et al., 2001; Vacca, 2002).

2.7.6. The problems in teaching reading strategies

Understanding literature is a difficult process that involves more than just word interpretation (Duke & Pearson, 2002). This process involves utilizing various strategies in various situations to effectively understand article, thus, evaluating how learners understand article and creating tailored instruction program is a difficult task. Another problem is that individual differences significantly influence the effectiveness of strategy instruction, due to variations in reading endures, age, or competence level, an approach that works well for one group of learners may not work as well for another.

Additionally, there is not a consensus on the proper sequence or application of strategies in second language settings. While research has identified several effective strategies, there is a short of empirical proof to back the optimal number and types of strategies to teach (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Moreover, being a strategic reader doesn't mean using a single strategy for a particular task or using all instructed strategies simultaneously. It necessitates the capacity to coordinate the use of various methods in light of how texts, purposes, and goals change throughout time. (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Lastly, successful strategies can be used without always making a conscious choice. When asked to report, readers can be unable to identify their tactics since they "typically do not think intentionally of their strategic choices," according to research or the strategies have become automated through practice (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Last but not least, teachers and students need to set aside a lot of time for effective approach education. It takes time for learners to develop their reading strategies since they

need to practice them and assess their progress (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Pressley, 2002).

Teachers must put up consistent effort in helping students become strategic readers.

(Pressley, Goodchild, Fleet, Zajchowski & Evans, quoted in Sinatra et al., 2001).

2.7.7. The utilization of reading strategies to improve reading comprehension skills in L3

According to research, cognitive and metacognitive techniques are essential for L3 learning (Skehan, 1998; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003). Students may grow more cognizant of their own thought processes and employ the skills they have learned more effectively by using metacognitive techniques like monitoring, planning, and assessing (Swain, 2005).

Additionally, the research has extensively recognised the importance of motivation, attitude, and prior knowledge in L3 learning (Dekeyser, 2000). For example, higher motivation among students is associated with improved learning results in L3, and the transfer of L2 abilities to L3 can be facilitated by previous understanding of L1 and L2. (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003).

In order for learners to integrate their prior linguistic knowledge with the new language they are learning, language learning techniques play a critical role in the transfer of L1 and L2 skills to L3 learning. According to research, using LLS can help students become more strategic learners, better absorb and retain new knowledge, and govern their own learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Learning how to transfer knowledge and abilities from their L1 and L2 to their L3 can be facilitated by strategies including transfer, cross-linguistic impact, and code-switching, particularly in vocabulary acquisition and grammar usage (Swain, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Therefore, in order to assist with the application of L1 and L2 competencies to L3 learning, language

educators must give students clear teaching and opportunities to apply language learning techniques.

Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the impact of reading strategy teaching on L2 reading comprehension. The following research is offered.

Reading methods, notably metacognitive reading strategies, are successful in enhancing Second Language (L2) reading comprehension, according to Park's (2013) meta-analytic evaluation. The study summarized the connections among reading strategy and four areas of reading comprehension using the Weinstein and Mayer reading strategy model. According to the study, reading comprehension and other reading strategies were consistently linked. The strongest association of the four categories was found between monitoring approach and reading comprehension. In addition to this, Nergis (2013) found that the breadth of vocabulary knowledge is less predictive of reading success than syntactic and metacognitive awareness. Nergis (2013) used four tests to assess the reading comprehension, syntactic understanding, awareness of metacognitive reading strategies and lexical depth of 45 undergrad college learners who were reportedly proficient in L2. The findings show that awareness of metacognitive reading techniques is the best predictor of reading comprehension performance, whereas the depth of vocabulary knowledge is the worst. Reading comprehension is also strongly predicted by syntactic understanding. The findings may indicate that advanced L2 speakers rely more on metacognitive strategies than lexical and grammatical understanding when performing reading tasks in their native language.

Additionally, a study by Sparks et al. (2008) searched ESP reading comprehension among Iranian university students as a result of direct metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The study discovered that strategy education significantly improved ESP students' reading comprehension. Thus, it can be inferred from the research findings that

metacognitive reading strategies are successful in enhancing L2 reading comprehension. Reading comprehension in L2 can also benefit from explicit teaching of these techniques.

The findings of the study show that strategy-based education can enhance second language (L2) reading comprehension. For instance, an investigation by Macaro and Erler (2008) discovered that teaching reading strategy can enhance reading comprehension in young L2 beginners of French. Additionally, meta-analysis by Li et al (2022) found that constructivist-based direct reading strategy education proved successful at enhancing comprehension in reading of L2 learners. Moreover, the study by Kern found that the impact of strategy teaching on test passage readers' understanding was undeniably beneficial. The study also found that "language competence ceiling" hindering the use of efficient L1 reading techniques with L2 texts can be overcome by specific teaching and practice in employing reading strategies. Other studies have also found that different strategy instructions can be better in developing L2 reading comprehension. For example, Khonamri and Karimabadi (2015) found that collaborative strategic reading (CSR) can improve critical reading ability in intermediate Iranian learners. Therefore, on the research results, it could be concluded that strategy-based instruction, including explicit instruction and practice in using reading strategies and collaborative strategic reading, could have a confident impact on L2 reading comprehension.

The study's findings show that metacognitive reading techniques can improve readers' comprehension in second languages (L2). According to Jeon and Yamashita's (2014) meta-analysis, L2 reading comprehension has strong links to L2 decoding, L2 vocabulary, L2 grammar, and L1 reading comprehension. Additionally, CALLA metacognitive strategy education can enhance students' reading comprehension and reading awareness, according to a study by Tawarik et al. (2021).

Numerous research has examined the impact of teaching metacognitive reading strategies on L2 reading comprehension. For example, a study by Albazi and Shukri (2016) found that training in metacognitive strategies can increase learners' awareness of these strategies and enhance their reading comprehension. One another study by Ismail and Tawalbeh (2014) found that low-achieving EFL readers' reading comprehension was significantly improved by a metacognitive reading methods program.

It is also possible that strategy-based training, such as collaborative strategic reading and explicit instruction and practice in employing reading techniques, will improve L2 reading comprehension (Khonamri and Karimabadi, 2015). The research results provide evidence that scaffolded reading strategies can have a positive impact on second language (L2) reading comprehension. A study by Qanwal and Karim (2014) investigated the relationship between competence in text comprehension and teaching in reading strategies. The study found that strategies instruction had a significant positive correlation with L2 text comprehension proficiency.

Moreover, a study by Zhang and Zhang (2022) found that teaching CALLA metacognitive strategies to learners can help them become more adept readers. Learners in the study learned how to employ metacognitive techniques to increase their reading comprehension through the use of scaffolded reading strategies.

Furthermore, Proctor et al.'s (2005) study discovered that teaching reading strategies can enhance the reading comprehension of young students studying French as a second language. Students were taught how to employ reading methods to increase their reading comprehension in the subject through the implementation of scaffolded reading techniques. As a result, it is possible to draw the conclusion from the research findings that scaffolded reading strategies, such as teaching in reading strategy and metacognitive

strategy, can improve L2 reading comprehension. Utilizing scaffolded reading techniques can help L2 students read more comprehension and critically.

Reading comprehension in second languages (L2) has been demonstrated to benefit from strategic reading teaching. The influence of reading in the first language (L1) on reading in the second language (L2) is highlighted in a review paper by Brown (1998). The collaborative reading view and schema theory, two L1 reading theories, have reportedly had a considerable impact on L2 reading studies. In addition, research by Brisbois (1995) looked into the relationship between teaching reading methods and success with L2 text comprehension. The study discovered a substantial positive link between reading strategy instruction and L2 text comprehension ability.

Additionally, a study by Kern (1994) found that teaching CALLA metacognitive strategies to students will assist them become more adept readers. Students were taught how to employ metacognitive techniques in the study to enhance their reading comprehension through the use of scaffolded reading strategies. Therefore, based on the research results, it can be concluded that strategic reading instruction, including reading strategies instruction and metacognitive strategy instruction, can have a positive impact on L2 reading comprehension. Teaching L2 learners how to apply reading methods and enhance their reading comprehension can be accomplished through the use of scaffolded reading strategies.

As can be seen, there have been a body of research studies on the impact of reading strategy instruction on L2 reading comprehension. However, the impact of reading strategy has not been the subject of many studies teaching L3 reading techniques. In the literature, the lack of research about this issue is implied. One of those studies is by Cenoz (2003) stating that the study of acquiring a third language is a relatively recent field that has seen

significant growth in recent times, drawing attention to the distinction between getting a L2 versus L3 by adding that distinctions between SLA and Third Language Acquisition (TLA) has been observed in both SLA research and bilingualism research. In this respect, in this current thesis study, it is aimed to inspect the impact of strategy training on the reading comprehension in L3. By conducting this research, an important contribution to the literature is aimed at leading further studies.



3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

Quantitative research methodology in which, according to Creswell and Creswell (2018), variables and hypotheses are tested through numerical measurements or data by statistical analysis is adopted in this study or investigating the effect of reading strategy training, scores of students on reading comprehension tests are to be utilized.

In the study, I aim to inspect the effect of strategy training and transferability of strategies between L2 and L3 learning, therefore I adopt experimental design which is to determine whether a specific treatment has an impact on outcome in a study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It could be interpreted that through implication of specific treatment, the effectiveness of that treatment is tried to be observed or measured.

A sort of research methodology known as experimental research involves manipulating one or more independent factors and observing the impact on a dependent variable while accounting for other unimportant variables. The natural and social sciences frequently employ this style of research design to pinpoint the causes and effects of many variables. Due to its capacity to account for confounding factors and offer causality evidence, experimental research is regarded as a rigorous approach of inquiry (Shadish, et. al., 2002).

3.2. Participants

In the study, there are 40 participants whose ages range between 18 and 22 years old and who are university students. The students have English and German as a second and third foreign language learning education. They completed their English preparation

class, therefore all of them are at CEFR B1 level in English, and CEFR A2 level in German. All of the students are first graders and it is their second year at university. There are 19 male and 21 female students.

In prep schools' students receive foreign language education for one year. Aim of the prep school is to teach a foreign language at least B1 proficiency level. Prep schools also prepare the students for the upcoming courses during undergraduate years in which medium of teaching is supposed to be in target language. The reason why these students are selected as participant in the study is that they receive both L2 (English) and L3 (German) at the same time. Thus, inspecting the effect of reading strategy training and the transferability of reading strategies between L2 and L3 is available within this group of students.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

Data is collected via four tests through exams. The two EFL tests are developed by Cambridge University and they are obtained from the official website of the university. Pre-test contains 20 questions and is assessing B1 proficiency level and post-test contains 25 questions and it is B1 proficiency level. Last five questions of the post-test are asked to test the skimming ability of the students after they have completed strategy training instruction. The two GFL tests are developed by Gothe Institution. Pre-test contains 20 questions and is assessing A2 proficiency level and post-test contains 25 questions and it is A2 proficiency level. Last five questions of the post-test are asked to test the skimming ability of the students after they have completed strategy training instruction.

Table 1

Readability Scores of English and German Texts in the Tests

	Flesch Reading Ease Score Coleman Liau index scores Flesch Kincaid Grade level scores				Flesch Reading Ease Score Coleman Liau index scores Flesch Kincaid Grade level scores		
English Text 1	76.6	6.43	6.84	German Text 1	60.3	11.74	7.42
English Text 2	72.3	6.30	7.30	German Text 2	65.7	9.49	6.14
English Text 3	72.2	6.75	9.71	German Text 3	61.6	11.9	6.86
English Text 4	75.8	7.19	7.78	German Text 4	77.8	8.20	7.35

Flesch Reading Ease Score 70 - 80 (Fairly easy to read)
Coleman Liau index scores 5 - 8 (A text is considered ideal for average readers.)
Flesch Kincaid Grade level scores 6 - 9 (A text is considered ideal for average readers.)

3.4. Procedure

3.4.1. Setting

In the process of carrying out the research, student groups are selected. It is taken into account that students have not received a reading strategy instruction before, have the same proficiency level in both L2 (English) and L3 (German), and have the same population size in both experiment and control groups.

After deciding on the groups, the timing and duration of the reading strategy instruction is decided. In this respect, it is suitable to start the strategy instruction following week after midterm exams. Then, for five weeks and 20 lessons strategy instruction is decided to be carried out.

3.4.2. Reading strategies to be instructed

Reading strategy training phase is also planned. For this training, reading strategy inventory developed by Oxford et al. (2007) is utilized. During this instruction following 19 strategies are taught students:

- Using the title to help predict the content.
- Skimming it first, and reading for details afterwards.
- Paying attention to parts of sentences such as phrases and clauses.
- Paying attention to the beginning and the end of each paragraph.
- Focusing on the tense of a verb such as present tense and past tense.
- Paying attention to sentence structure such as subjects and objects.
- Linking the content with what already known,
- Trying to understand the meaning of an unknown word by dividing it into parts.
- Guessing the meaning using clues from the text.
- Checking what each pronoun refers to.
- Underlining important parts.
- Making a picture in my mind about what the text is saying.
- Trying to understand the meaning without translating the text into my native language.
- Going back to previous sentences in case of trouble.
- Skipping a sentence when it is not understood even if every word is known.
- Using slashes to divide a sentence grammatically.
- Predicting what will come next.
- Paying attention to linking words such as ‘however’ and ‘besides’.
- Trying to figure out the main idea of each paragraph.

Although there are some other reading strategies in the inventory, only the most necessary ones are selected. The ones which were not selected for are because those are either useless such as “I follow the lines with my finger when I read a text” or unnecessary such as “I read aloud the difficult parts of the text”. Details of a lesson plan regarding how a strategy is taught are provided in appendices.

After five weeks, students are to take a post-test. In the post-test, there are five additional questions to test students’ skimming abilities. For these five questions, students are given limited time so time is manipulated. Besides, the tests are conducted online and synchronously in order to save time.

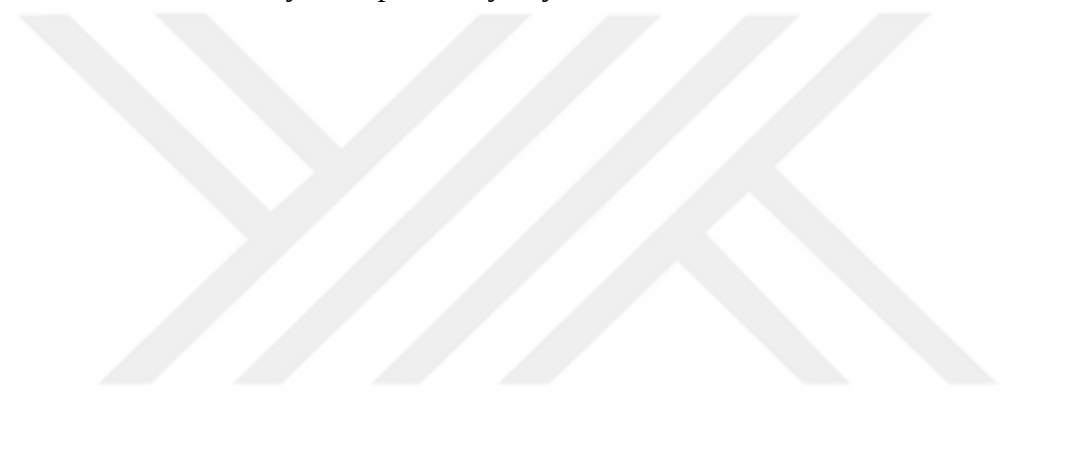
3.5. Data Analysis

In order to analyse the data, SPSS 26 package software is used. During the analysis of the raw data, I checked normality assumption, and based on the assumption, I used either Paired Sample T Test or Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for within group comparison, and either independent sample t test or Mann Whitney U Test for between group comparisons. For checking assumption, I inspected skewness and kurtosis values and as long as the values change between ± 2 , I decided that the data counted as normally distributed (George & Mallery, 2010).

Additionally, I investigated the scores in terms of reliability and item discrimination analysis in terms of validity. In this respect, I utilized descriptive analysis and Cronbach’s Alpha analysis.

3.6. Ethics

Students are informed about the reading strategy instruction and their consent is sought before the study begins. They signed a consent for which is provided in the appendices. After students agree to participate in the study voluntarily, it is also stated that they will not receive either additional points or any kind of gifts for participating the study. Finally, they are assured that their names and their grades are to remain confidential and will not be shared with any third parties by any means.



4. FINDINGS

4.1. Descriptive Analysis of the Tests

In this part, item analysis of the four tests including English pre-test, German pre-test, English post-test German post-test is conducted and the results of the analysis are shown in the table below. The analysis includes frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations of the answers given to the questions.

Table 2

Descriptive Analysis of the German Pre-test

German Pre-test Question Number	False		True		<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
1	8	20	32	80	4.00	2.03
2	13	32.5	27	67.5	3.37	2.37
3	26	65	14	35	1.75	2.42
4	26	65	14	35	1.75	2.42
5	18	45	22	55	2.75	2.52
6	17	42.5	23	57.5	2.87	2.50
7	19	47.5	21	52.5	2.63	2.53
8	26	65	14	35	1.75	2.42
9	19	47.5	21	52.5	2.62	2.53
10	22	55	18	45	2.25	2.52
11	25	62.5	15	37.5	1.87	2.45
12	21	52.5	19	47.5	2.38	2.53
13	20	50	20	50	2.50	2.53
14	20	50	20	50	2.50	2.53
15	12	30	28	70	3.50	2.32
16	9	22.5	31	77.5	3.87	2.12
17	20	50	20	50	2.50	2.53
18	10	25	30	75	3.75	2.19
19	23	57.5	17	42.5	2.13	2.50
20	14	35	26	65	3.25	2.42

f= Frequency *M*=Mean *Sd*=Standard Deviation

As can be seen from the table, most correctly answered questions are first, sixteenth and second questions sequentially with a mean score of 4, 3.87 and 3.37. On the contrary,

least correctly answered questions are third, fourth, eighth, eleventh and tenth questions, sequentially with a mean score of 1.75 for the third, fourth, eighth questions, 1.87 for the eleventh question and 2.25 for the tenth question.

Table 3

Descriptive Analysis of German Post-test

German Post-test Question Number	False		True		M	Sd
	f	%	f	%		
1	10	25	30	75	3.00	1.75
2	7	17.5	33	82.5	3.30	1.54
3	10	25	30	75	3.00	1.75
4	13	32.5	27	67.5	2.70	1.90
5	19	47.5	21	52.5	2.10	2.02
6	12	30	28	70	2.80	1.86
7	20	50	20	50	2.00	2.03
8	21	52.5	19	47.5	1.90	2.02
9	14	35	26	65	2.60	1.93
10	7	17.5	33	82.5	3.30	2.32
11	16	40	24	60	2.40	1.99
12	12	30	28	70	2.80	1.86
13	13	32.5	27	67.5	2.70	1.90
14	11	27.5	29	72.5	2.90	1.81
15	14	35	26	65	2.60	1.93
16	18	45	22	55	2.20	2.02
17	20	50	20	50	2.00	2.03
18	18	45	22	55	2.20	2.02
19	20	50	20	50	2.00	2.03
20	10	25	30	75	3.00	1.75
21	11	27.5	29	72.5	2.90	1.81
22	20	50	20	50	2.00	2.03
23	14	35	26	65	2.60	1.93
24	17	42.5	23	57.5	2.30	2.00
25	18	45	22	55	2.20	2.02

f= Frequency *M*=Mean *Sd*=Standard Deviation

As can be seen from the table, most correctly answered questions are second, tenth and twentieth questions sequentially with a mean score of 3.30, 3.30 and 3.00. On the contrary, least correctly answered questions are eighth, seventh, and nineteenth questions sequentially with a mean score of 1.90, 2.00 and 2.00 out of 4.

Table 4*Descriptive Analysis of English Pre-test*

English Pre-test Question Number	False		True		<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
1	12	30	28	70	3.50	2.32
2	13	32.5	27	67.5	3.38	2.37
3	9	22.5	31	77.5	3.87	2.12
4	13	32.5	27	67.5	3.37	2.37
5	9	22.5	31	77.5	3.87	2.12
6	11	27.5	29	72.5	3.62	2.26
7	9	22.5	31	77.5	3.87	2.12
8	16	40	24	60	3.00	2.48
9	9	22.5	31	77.5	3.88	2.12
10	14	35	26	65	3.25	2.42
11	12	30	28	70	3.50	2.32
12	12	30	28	70	3.50	2.32
13	12	30	28	70	3.50	2.32
14	15	37.5	25	62.5	3.12	2.45
15	11	27.5	29	72.5	3.63	2.26
16	11	27.5	29	72.5	3.63	2.26
17	14	35	26	65	3.25	2.42
18	12	30	28	70	3.50	2.32
19	15	37.5	25	62.5	3.12	2.45
20	9	22.5	31	77.5	3.87	2.12

f= Frequency *M*=Mean *Sd*=Standard Deviation

As can be seen from the table, most correctly answered questions are 20th, fifth and third questions whose mean scores are 3.87, and least correctly answered questions are eight, twelfth and nineteenth questions whose mean scores are 3.00 and 3.12.

Table 5*Descriptive Analysis of English Post-test*

English Post-test Question Number	False		True		<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
1	2	5	38	95	3.80	0.88
2	2	5	38	95	3.80	0.88
3	5	12.5	35	87.5	3.50	1.34
4	6	15	34	85	3.40	1.45
5	2	5	38	95	3.80	0.88
6	8	20	32	80	3.20	1.62
7	15	37.5	25	62.5	2.50	1.96
8	4	10	36	90	3.60	1.22
9	14	35	26	65	2.60	1.93
10	14	35	26	65	2.60	1.93
11	5	12.5	35	87.5	3.50	1.34
12	3	7.5	37	92.5	3.70	1.07
13	18	45	22	55	2.20	2.02
14	14	35	26	65	2.60	1.93
15	6	15	34	85	3.40	1.45
16	10	25	30	75	3.00	1.75
17	25	62.5	15	37.5	1.50	1.96
18	4	10	36	90	3.60	1.22
19	11	27.5	29	72.5	2.90	1.81
20	26	65	14	35	1.40	1.93
21	8	20	32	80	3.20	1.62
22	13	32.5	27	67.5	2.70	1.90
23	21	52.5	19	47.5	1.90	2.02
24	3	7.5	37	92.5	3.70	1.07
25	20	50	20	50	2.00	2.03

f= Frequency *M*=Mean *Sd*=Standard Deviation

As can be seen from the table, most correctly answered questions are first, second and fifth questions whose mean scores are 3.80 and least correctly answered questions are 20th, 17th and 23rd questions whose mean scores are 1.40, 1.50 and 1.90 sequentially.

Table 6*Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the German Pre-test*

German Pre-test Question Number	A		B		C		D	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1	32	80	2	5	2	5	4	10
2	4	10	27	67.5	4	10	5	12.5
3	8	20	9	22.5	14	35	9	22.5
4	9	22.5	8	20	14	35	9	22.5
5	22	55	6	15	5	12.5	7	17.5
6	5	12.5	6	15	6	15	23	57.5
7	6	15	21	52.5	7	17.5	6	15
8	9	22.5	9	22.5	8	20	14	35
9	6	15	7	17.5	6	15	21	52.5
10	18	45	7	17.5	6	15	7	17.5
11	15	37.5	8	20	7	17.5	10	25
12	7	17.5	19	47.5	7	17.5	7	17.5
13	6	15	7	17.5	20	50	7	17.5
14	7	17.5	7	17.5	20	50	6	15
15	28	70	4	10	3	7.5	5	12.5
16	3	7.5	2	5	4	10	31	77.5
17	6	15	6	15	8	20	20	50
18	30	75	3	7.5	3	7.5	4	10
19	7	17.5	17	42.5	6	15	10	25
20	5	12.5	5	12.5	26	65	4	10

f= Frequency

As can be seen from the table above, when the most correctly questions are inspected, for example for question one the correct option (A) is selected by 32 (%80) students and the other options are selected by 8(%10) students. Also, for the second most answered question correct answer (D) is selected by 31 (%77.5) of the students and the other options are selected by 9 (%22.5) of the students. On the other hand, upon looking at the least correctly answered questions for questions 3 and 4 correct option (C) is selected by 14 (%35) students while the other options are selected by 26 (%65) students.

Table 7*Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the German Post-test*

German Post-test Question Number	A		B		C		D	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1	3	7.5	30	75	3	7.5	4	10
2	3	7.5	3	7.5	33	82.5	1	2.5
3	30	75	2	5	2	5.0	6	15
4	4	10	5	12.5	4	10.0	27	67.5
5	7	17.5	6	15	21	52.5	6	15
6	4	10	4	10	4	10.0	28	70
7	20	50	5	12.5	5	12.5	10	25
8	7	17.5	19	47.5	6	15.0	8	20
9	4	10	26	65	4	10.0	6	15
10	2	5	2	5	33	82.5	3	7.5
11	24	60	4	10	4	10.0	8	20
12	4	10	4	10	4	10.0	28	70
13	4	10	4	10	5	12.5	27	67.5
14	3	7.5	2	5	29	72.5	6	15
15	26	65	6	15	6	15.0	2	5
16	6	15	22	55	6	15.0	6	15
17	20	50	5	12.5	5	12.5	10	25
18	6	15	6	15	22	55.0	6	15
19	5	12.5	4	10	11	27.5	20	50
20	2	5	30	75	2	5.0	6	15
21	4	10	4	10	29	72.5	3	7.5
22	5	12.5	5	12.5	10	25.0	20	50
23	6	15	26	65	5	12.5	3	7.5
24	23	57.5	6	15	6	15.0	5	12.5
25	5	12.5	5	12.5	8	20.0	22	55

f= Frequency

As can be seen from the table above, when the most correctly questions are inspected, for example for question ten the correct option (C) is selected by 33 (%82.5) students and the other options are selected by 8(%10) students. Also, for the second most answered question correct answer (C) is selected is selected by 33 (%82.5) students and the other options are selected by 8(%10) students. On the other hand, upon looking at the least correctly answered questions for example for question 8 the correct option (B) is selected

by 19 (%47.5) students and the other options are selected by 21 (%52.5) students. Also, for the second least answered question which is 7th question, correct answer (A) is selected is selected by 20 (%50) students and the other options are selected by 20 (%50) students.

Table 8

Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the English Pre-test

English Pre-test Question Number	A		B		C		D	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1	28	70	4	10	4	10	4	10
2	4	10	27	67.5	4	10	5	12.5
3	3	7.5	2	5	31	77.5	4	10
4	4	10	4	10	27	67.5	5	12.5
5	31	77.5	3	7.5	2	5	4	10
6	5	12.5	5	12.5	1	2.5	29	72.5
7	3	7.5	31	77.5	3	7.5	3	7.5
8	4	10	4	10	4	10	24	60
9	3	7.5	3	7.5	3	7.5	31	77.5
10	26	65	4	10	4	10	6	15
11	28	70	3	7.5	3	7.5	3	7.5
12	2	5	28	70	2	5	8	20
13	8	20	2	5	28	70	2	5
14	7	17.5	5	12.5	25	62.5	3	7.5
15	29	72.5	3	7.5	6	15	2	5
16	3	7.5	2	5	6	15	29	72.5
17	6	15	4	10	4	10	26	65
18	28	70	4	10	3	7.5	5	12.5
19	5	12.5	25	62.5	5	12.5	5	12.5
20	5	12.5	2	5	31	77.5	2	5

f= Frequency

As can be seen from the table above, when the most correctly questions are inspected, for example for question 20, 5 and three the correct option (C, A and C respectively) is selected by 31 (%77.5) students and the other options are selected by 9(%22.5) students. On the other hand, upon looking at the least correctly answered questions for questions 8, 19 and 10 correct option (D, B and A respectively) is selected by 24, 25 and 26 (%60, %62.5 and %65 respectively) students respectively while the other

options are selected by 16, 15 and 14 (%40, %47.5 and %35 respectively) students respectively.

Table 9

Descriptive Analysis of the Selection of the Options by Students in the English Post-test

English Post-test Question Number	A		B		C		D	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	2	5	38	95	0	0	0	0
2	1	2,5	1	2,5	38	95	0	0
3	35	87,5	1	2,5	1	2,5	2	5
4	2	5	2	5	2	5	34	85
5	1	2,5	1	2,5	38	95	0	0
6	2	5	2	5	4	10	32	80
7	25	62,5	5	12,5	5	12,5	5	12,5
8	2	5	36	90	1	2,5	1	2,5
9	4	10	26	65	4	10	6	15
10	6	15	4	10	26	65	4	10
11	35	87,5	2	5	2	5	1	2,5
12	1	2,5	0	0	2	5	37	92,5
13	6	15	6	15	6	15	22	55
14	5	12,5	4	10	26	65	6	15
15	34	85	3	7,5	1	2,5	2	5
16	2	5	22	55	4	10	5	12,5
17	15	37,5	10	25	8	20	7	17,5
18	1	2,5	1	2,5	36	90	2	5
19	6	15	3	7,5	2	5	29	72,5
20	8	20	14	35	8	20	10	25
21	2	5	2	5	32	80	4	10
22	5	12,5	4	10	4	10	27	67,5
23	7	17,5	19	47,5	7	17	7	17,5
24	37	92,5	0	0	1	2,5	2	5
25	5	12,5	5	12,5	10	25	20	50

f= Frequency

As can be seen from the table above, when the most correctly questions are inspected, for example for question 1, 2 and 5 the correct option (B, C and C respectively) is selected by 38 (%95) students and the other options are selected by 2(%5) students. On the other hand, upon looking at the least correctly answered questions for questions 20, 17

and 23 correct option (B, A and B respectively) is selected by 14, 15 and 19 (%35, %37.5 and %47.5 respectively) students respectively while the other options are selected by 26, 25 and 21 (%65, %62.5 and %52.5 respectively) students respectively.

4.2. Research Question 1

In the first research question if strategy training creates a significant improvement in the reading abilities of learners in their L2 English is to be investigated. In order to conduct the analysis, normality of the variables is investigated by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values in control group. Results of normality test revealed all of the dependent variables (pre-test English and post-test English) are normally distributed; skewness and kurtosis values are between ± 2 . Therefore, to investigate the research question paired sample t test is decided to be conducted. The result is depicted below.

Table 10

The Difference Between English Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Control Group
Paired Sample T Test (N=20)

	Pre-test		Post-test		<i>t</i> (19)	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>		
Control Group	68	29.85	64.95	24.97	1.39	.178

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the paired sample t test reveals that there is not a significant difference between English pre-test and English post-test scores of participants in control group, $p > .05$.

Then difference between pre-test and post-test scores of EFL students in experimental group is to be investigated. To investigate the research question, firstly the

normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of pre-test English and post-test English were between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question paired sample t test is decided to be conducted. The result is depicted below.

Table 11

The Difference Between English Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Experimental Group Paired Sample T Test (N=20)

	Pre-test		Post-test		<i>t</i> (19)	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>		
Experimental Group	59.30	18.17	84.35	10.78	7.19	.000

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the paired sample t test reveal that there is a significant difference between English pre-test and English post-test scores of participants, $t(19)=7.19$, $p<.001$. It could be observed that scores of English post-tests of participants are higher than scores of English pre-tests.

Then, difference between English pre-test scores of students in experimental and control group is to be investigated. To investigate the research question, firstly the normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of pre-test English scores of experimental and control group were between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question independent sample t test is decided to be conducted. The results are depicted below.

Table 12

The Difference Between English Pre-test Scores of Participants in Experimental and Control Groups Independent Sample T Test (N=40)

	Experimental		Control		t(38)	p
	M	Sd	M	Sd		
English Pre-test	59.30	18.17	68	29.84	1.11	.272

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the independent sample t test reveals that there is not a significant difference between participants in experiment and control groups in terms of English pre-test scores, $p > .05$.

Then, difference between English post-test scores of students in experimental and control group is to be investigated. To investigate the research question, firstly the normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of post-test English scores of experimental and control groups were between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question independent sample t test is decided to be conducted. The results are depicted below.

Table 13

The Difference Between English Post-test Scores of Participants in Experimental and Control Groups Independent Samples T Test (N=40)

	Experimental		Control		t(38)	p
	M	Sd	M	Sd		
English Post-test	84.35	10.78	64.95	24.97	3.19	.003

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the independent sample t test reveals that there is a significant difference between participants in experiment and control groups in terms of English post-test scores, $p=.003$. Post-test score of experiment group ($\bar{X}=84.35$, $Sd=10.78$) is significantly higher than control group ($\bar{X}=64.95$, $Sd=24.97$).

4.3. Research Question 2

In the second research question if strategy training creates a significant improvement in the reading abilities of learners in their L3 German is to be investigated. To investigate the research question, firstly the normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of pre-test German and post-test German of control group were between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question paired sample t test is decided to be conducted. The results are depicted below.

Table 14

The Difference Between German Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Control Group Paired Sample Test (N=20)

	Pre-test		Post-test		$t(19)$	p
	M	Sd	M	Sd		
Control Group	52.50	17.80	60.60	21.13	2.99	.007

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the paired sample t test reveal that there is a significant difference between German pre-test and German post-test scores of participants, $t(19)=2.99$, $p=.007$.

It could be observed that scores of German post-tests of participants are higher than scores of German pre-tests.

Then, difference between pre-test and post-test scores of GFL students in experimental group is to be investigated to investigate the research question, firstly the normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of pre-test German and post-test German of experimental group were between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question paired sample t test is decided to be conducted. The results are depicted below.

Table 15

The Difference Between German Pre and Post-test Scores of Participants in Experimental Group Paired Sample T Test (N=20)

	Pre-test		Post-test		<i>t</i> (19)	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>		
Experimental Group	55.50	34	59.20	26	1.59	.128

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the paired sample t test reveals that there is not a significant difference between German pre-test and German post-test scores of participants in experiment group, $p>.05$.

Then, difference between German pre-test scores of students in experimental and control group is to be investigated. To investigate the research question, firstly the normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of pre-test German of experimental and control group were

between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question independent sample t test is decided to be conducted. The results are depicted below.

Table 16

The Difference Between German Pre-test Scores of Participants in Experimental and Control Groups Independent Sample T Test (N=40)

	Experimental		Control		<i>t</i> (38)	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>		
German Pre-test	55.50	18.77	52.50	17.80	.519	.607

M=Mean, Sd=Standard Deviation

Results of the independent sample t test reveals that there is not a significant difference between participants in experiment and control groups in terms of German pre-test scores, $p > .05$.

Then, difference between German post-test scores of students in experiment and control group is to be investigated. To investigate the research question, firstly the normality assumption was checked by looking at the skewness and kurtosis values of the score distributions. It was observed that the normality assumption was met because the skewness and kurtosis values of post-test German of experimental and control group were between -2 and +2. Therefore, to investigate the research question independent sample t test is decided to be conducted. The results are depicted below.

Table 17

The Difference Between German Post-test Scores of Participants in Experimental and Control Groups Independent Sample T Test (N=40)

	Experimental		Control		<i>t</i> (38)	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>		
German Post-test	59.20	19.49	60.60	21.13	.21	.829

Results of the independent sample *t* test reveals that there is not a significant difference between participants in experiment and control groups in terms of German post-test scores, $p > .05$.

4.4. Research Question 3

In the third research question if there is a difference between experiment and control group in terms of their performances in L2 English and L3 German pre-test and post-test scores.

Upon looking at the results if the analysis both in research question one and research question two, it is observed that experimental group who received reading strategy training scored higher in second test than both their first test and post-test scores of control group. However, for German tests, experiment group did not outscore control group in second test.

4.5. Research Question 4

In the fourth research question what reading strategies used by students most in German and English reading texts is aimed to be inspected. Descriptive analysis is

conducted to detect which strategies are mostly used by students in both tests. Results of the descriptive analysis are shown below.

Table 18

Reading Strategies Used by Students Most

	GFL Post-test		EFL Post-test	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1) I underline important parts.	15	37.5	12	30
2) I try to figure out the main idea of each paragraph.	7	17.5	8	20
3) When I cannot understand a sentence even if I know every word, I skip that sentence.	4	10	6	15
4) I link the content with what I already know	4	10	5	12.5
5) I predict what will come next.	4	10	2	5
6) I try to understand the meaning of an unknown word by dividing it into parts.	4	10	3	7.5
7) I read the comprehension questions first and then read the text.	2	5	4	10
<i>f=frequency</i>				

Results of the descriptive analysis reveal that mostly used strategy is “I underline important parts” 15 times (%37.5) in German post-test and 12 times (%30) in English post-test. Therefore, it might be deduced that there is not any difference in terms of strategy usage between L2 and L3 the use of reading strategy.

5. DISCUSSION

The difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of EFL learners in the control group is initially examined in the first research question. This analysis's objective is to determine whether the post-test scores have improved since the pre-test. If post-test results show such a considerable improvement, it is believed that instruction without the use of reading methods was beneficial. With this in mind, results of the analysis revealed an insignificant change in the scores of EFL post-test compared to EFL pre-tests. There could be one reason for this. The significance of reading strategy teaching in language learning is covered by Grabe and Stoller (2002). They contend that making explicit reading comprehension tools available to students will encourage them to read more actively and strategically, which will enhance their language acquisition outcomes. Overall, the evidence that they state suggests that reading strategy instruction can play a crucial role in enhancing language learning outcomes, and the lack of such instruction could potentially negatively impact language proficiency. Therefore, control group in this study lacked the reading strategy instruction and for this reason they might have lacked a significant improvement in their post-tests compared to pre-tests.

The discrepancy between the experimental group's EFL learners' pre- and post-test results is then looked into. This analysis's objective is to determine whether the post-test scores have improved since the pre-test. If post-test results show such a considerable improvement, it is believed that the introduction of reading methods during instruction has been successful. In light of this, analytical findings showed a substantial difference between EFL post-test and EFL pre-test scores. There might be one possible reason for this. Research suggests that incorporating reading strategy instruction in language instruction can lead to more active and strategic readers, which can enhance language

learning outcomes (Grabe, 2009; Oxford, 1990). Similarly, in research studies (Kim & Anderson, 2011; Koda, 2005; Park, 2017) it is found that teaching reading strategies to EFL learners can improve their reading comprehension and enable them to read more effectively in their second language.

The pre-test results of EFL learners are then compared between the control and experimental groups. The results showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups' pre-test scores. The finding of the analysis highlights the importance of assessing the baseline level of proficiency of the participants in experimental design, which is a crucial aspect of ensuring the validity of the study. A study with unequal groups at the outset may be more susceptible to confounding variables that can skew the results. In addition, by ensuring that the groups are similar in their baseline level of proficiency, it becomes easier to attribute any subsequent changes in performance to the specific interventions that were implemented during the study (Shadish et al., 2002; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Therefore, the similar performance of the experimental and control groups on the English pre-test in this study increases the internal validity of the study and provides a strong foundation for the subsequent analyses of the effect of the intervention. However, it is important to note that this finding does not necessarily mean that the two groups were equivalent in all other relevant variables, such as motivation or learning styles, which may have an impact on their language learning.

The distinction between the experimental and control groups' post-test results for EFL learners is then looked at. According to the results, there was a substantial difference between the experimental and control group's post-test English scores, with the experimental group's scores being much higher. These findings are important because they provide evidence for the effectiveness of the intervention that was implemented in the

experiment group. Additionally, the results suggest that the specific teaching methods or materials used in the experimental group were more effective at promoting English reading skills as assessed by the testing tools than the methods used in the control group. The fact that the experiment group outperformed the control group on the English post-test indicates that the reading strategy teaching was successful in advancing English reading abilities as measured by the testing methods. This outcome would suggest that the reading strategy teaching improved the students' comprehension and analysis of English-language texts, which would explain their improved performance on the post-test. The relevant literature also supports the finding. For instance, the National Reading Panel report (2000) concluded that explicit instruction in reading strategies was effective in improving reading comprehension for students across grade levels and reading abilities.

Discussion of importance of teaching reading strategies to promote language learning is implied in a comprehensive overview of the research on reading in a second language (Grabe, 2009; Kim & Anderson, 2011; Oxford, 1990; Park, 2017). In addition to highlighting the significance of social and cultural contexts in cognitive development, Vygotsky (2012) contends that learners can apply a variety of methods across contexts and languages with the aid of outside tools and procedure. Also, Jimenez et al.'s study (1996) examined the use of reading strategies by bilingual and monolingual readers, and found that strategic reading was an effective approach for promoting reading comprehension in both languages. Finally, Pressley and Afflerbach's study (1995) used verbal protocols to examine the cognitive processes involved in strategic reading, and highlighted the importance of explicit instruction in teaching these processes to students. Overall, these references support the idea that reading strategy instruction can be effective in promoting language learning outcomes, and that it should be based on sound educational research.

The difference between the GFL learners' pre- and post-test scores in the control group is first looked into in the second study question. This analysis's objective is to determine whether the post-test scores have improved since the pre-test. If post-test results show such a considerable improvement, it is believed that instruction without the use of reading methods was beneficial. In light of this, analytical results showed a significantly higher score on the GFL post-test when compared to the GFL pre-tests.

There might be several possible reasons for this. The significant improvement observed in the GFL students' language proficiency could be attributed to various factors. It is possible that the instructional approach used in the study was effective in enhancing the students' language learning outcomes. Additionally, the participants in the study may have had prior knowledge or exposure to German language, which could have facilitated their language learning process. It is also possible that other factors, such as level of the language taught, motivation and engagement, played a role in the observed improvement in language proficiency.

Then, the distinction between the pre- and post-test results for GFL students in the experimental group is looked into. This analysis's objective is to determine whether the post-test scores have improved since the pre-test. The successful transfer of reading methods from L2 (English) to L3 (German), if there is such a considerable improvement in post-test results, is believed to be the case. With this in mind, results of the analysis revealed an insignificant change in the scores of GFL post-test compared to GFL pre-tests. There might be several possible reasons for this. This result suggests that the instructional approach used in the study, which included reading strategy instruction in addition to

traditional language instruction, did not significantly impact the German language proficiency of GFL students.

It is possible that the sample size of the experiment group was not large enough to detect significant differences, or that the duration of the intervention was not long enough (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) to lead to observable improvements. Additionally, it is important to note that language learning is a complex process and there may be a range of factors beyond reading strategy instruction that can impact language proficiency (Koda, 2005). One of those reasons could be the decrease in motivation (Dekeyser & Skehan, 2003). Another reason could be learner type differences could be an important factor to consider when examining the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction in the experiment and control groups. For instance, individual differences in cognitive ability, prior knowledge, and learning styles could impact how effective the instruction is for different learners. Through the end of the terms the students might have thought that EFL lessons would be more important for their academic lessons and for this purpose they might have lost their motivation in studying GFL lessons. Lastly, students might tend to use the strategies they learned in a lesson only in the test of that lesson.

The pre-test results of GFL learners are then compared between the control and experiment groups. According to the findings, there is no discernible change in pre-test German scores between the experimental and control groups. These results are significant because they imply that any disparities among the two groups that might emerge throughout the experiment are not the result of different levels of prior German proficiency.

Then the difference between control and experiment groups in post-test scores of GFL learners is investigated. The results indicate that there is no significant difference

between the experiment and control groups in terms of German post-test scores. The results of the analysis might be evaluated as since post test scores are so close, the significant difference between control and experimental group might stem from individual difference such as inner motivation. Therefore, this significant difference might have occurred by chance.

It was aimed in the study that a significantly more successful result in German post-test of experiment group than control group is supposed to indicate that students might be able to transfer their reading strategy knowledge from EFL lessons to GFL lesson. However, results revealed an insignificant result in terms of the difference between experiment and control groups in GFL post-test. There might be several possible explanations for why the reading strategy instruction had a significant effect on the English post-test scores but not on the German post-test scores. One possibility is that the students in the experiment group might have been more motivated to learn English than German, and thus put in more effort and attention during the reading sessions in EFL courses. Additionally, the students might have had more prior knowledge of English than German, which could have made it easier for them to apply the reading strategies in English. Another possibility is that the reading strategies taught in the instruction were more effective for improving English reading comprehension than German reading comprehension. Students might tend to use the strategies they learned in a lesson only in the test of that lesson. It is possible that the students in the experiment group were not able to transfer the reading strategies they learned in English to German, which could explain the lack of significant difference in the German post-test scores between the experiment and control groups.

As a final note, it is worth mentioning that in order to obtain more comparable results, it would be better if students had similar proficiency levels in German and English.

Transfer of learning is the process of applying knowledge or abilities acquired in one setting to another. It is influenced by a number of variables, including how comparable the contexts are, how well the underlying concepts are understood, and how well the initial learning has been mastered. As a result, it is probable that the reading strategies explained in the English reading strategy instruction failed to adapt well to the context of German reading, especially if the students didn't understand the underlying concepts or didn't get enough practice using the strategies in the German setting.

Moreover, a study by Brown and Day (1983) highlighted the importance of understanding the underlying concepts and principles of the initial learning for successful transfer. Therefore, it is possible that the lack of significant difference in the German post-test scores between the experiment and control groups could be due to the students' inability to transfer the reading strategies they learned in English to the German context, which may have been influenced by factors such as context dissimilarity, different level of understanding and mastery.

Regarding whether strategy use differ across languages being learned is aimed to be investigated. The finding presented that students utilize "I underline important parts" reading strategy dominantly in both EFL and GFL tests. This suggests that the strategy use does not differ from test in one language to test in another language for students, and that students are expected to employ the same strategies across languages. One possible explanation for why students use the same reading strategies across different foreign language tests is that they have developed a set of general cognitive and metacognitive skills that they apply to different contexts. For example, a student who has developed a

habit of underlining important parts of a text may find it useful regardless of the language being used. However, it should be noted that the strategies more frequently used by students in the research do not mean that they are more useful. The rate of comprehension while reading in English can be increased by including metacognitive reading strategies into regular foreign language classroom activities and tasks. (Tavakoli & Koosha, 2016).

Additionally, some students may use similar strategies across languages because they have learned to apply certain reading techniques that work for them, such as predicting what the text will be about or scanning for key information. This idea is supported by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) indicating that learners can use metacognitive strategies to monitor their own learning across different subjects and contexts. In addition, Flavell's work on metacognition suggests that learners can develop general cognitive monitoring skills that can be applied across different domains. Finally, Vygotsky (2012) emphasizes the importance of social and cultural contexts in cognitive development, and suggests that learners can use similar strategies across different contexts and languages with the help of external tools and processes.

6. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to find out how teaching reading strategies affected the language competence of GFL and EFL students. To investigate the variations in pre- and post-test results of EFL and GFL learners in the control and experiment groups, four research questions were developed. The findings of this research demonstrated that, compared to GFL learners, the inclusion of reading strategy teaching had a substantial influence on the language ability of EFL learners in the experiment group. Additionally, the results showed that the EFL and GFL pre-test scores for the control and experiment groups were comparable, supporting the internal validity of the study.

First, the difference between the pre- and post-test results of the control group's EFL students was looked into. The results revealed a negligible difference between the post-test and pre-test EFL scores. This implies that the control group did not get reading strategy instruction, which may explain why their post-test results did not significantly improve.

Second, the change in GFL learners' test scores between the pre- and post-test periods was looked at. The outcomes showed a negligible difference between the GFL post-test and GFL pre-test scores. The knowledge of the language taught, motivation, and engagement may have all contributed to the reported improvement in language proficiency, even if it is plausible that the instructional strategy used in the study was successful in improving the students' language learning results.

Thirdly the difference between pre and post-test scores of EFL learners in the experiment group was aimed to investigate. The results indicated a significant change in the scores of EFL post-test compared to EFL pre-tests. These findings suggest that

incorporating reading strategy instruction in language instruction can lead to more active and strategic readers, which can enhance language learning outcomes.

Then the difference between pre and post-test scores of GFL learners in the experiment group was examined. The results revealed an insignificant change in the scores of GFL post-test compared to GFL pre-tests. While it is possible that the sample size of the experiment group was not large enough to detect significant differences, or that the duration of the intervention was not long enough to lead to observable improvements, the findings suggest that the instructional approach used in the study did not significantly impact the German language proficiency of GFL students.

Then the difference between the control and experiment groups in pre-test scores of EFL and GFL learners was aimed to investigate respectively. The findings of both research questions highlighted the importance of assessing the baseline level of proficiency of participants in experimental design, which is crucial in ensuring the validity of the study. By ensuring that the groups are similar in their baseline level of proficiency, any subsequent changes in performance can be attributed to the specific interventions that were implemented during the study.

In conclusion, the present study suggests that incorporating reading strategy instruction can have a significant impact on the language proficiency of EFL learners, but not necessarily on GFL learners. The findings also highlight the importance of assessing the baseline level of proficiency of participants in experimental design, and the potential impact of other factors such as motivation and engagement on language learning. Future research could investigate the impact of different types of reading strategy instruction and instructional approaches on language learning outcomes in both EFL and GFL contexts.

The study also aimed to investigate the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction on the English and German language learning outcomes of EFL and GFL learners. The findings revealed that the experiment group had significantly higher English post-test scores than the control group, indicating that the reading strategy instruction was effective in promoting English language learning. However, there was no significant difference between the experiment and control groups in terms of German post-test scores, suggesting that the reading strategy instruction had no significant effect on the students' performance in German. One possible explanation for this finding is that the students in the experiment group might have been more motivated to learn English than German or that the reading strategies taught in the instruction were more effective for improving English reading comprehension than German reading comprehension.

The study also aimed to investigate whether strategy use differed across languages being learned. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference in the preference of strategy use in terms of the foreign language tests, indicating that students are expected to employ the same strategies across languages. This may be due to the development of general cognitive and metacognitive skills that are applied to different contexts, or the use of similar strategies that have been learned to be effective in promoting comprehension.

Overall, the study provides evidence for the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction in promoting language learning outcomes, particularly in the context of English language learning. However, it also highlights the need for further research to investigate the transfer of reading strategies across different languages and to identify the factors that may influence this transfer. It is important for language educators to be aware of the potential differences in language learning outcomes and to develop appropriate strategies

that take into account these differences. Additionally, educators should continue to incorporate evidence-based instructional methods in language learning classrooms to ensure that students receive the most effective and efficient instruction possible.



7. IMPLICATION

The results of this study have pedagogical implications since they show that teaching reading strategies may greatly improve language ability, particularly when it comes to acquiring an additional language like English. To help students become better strategic readers, language instructors should think about including explicit reading strategy training into their curricula. Giving students access to a variety of useful reading methods as well as opportunity to practice and use them can enhance reading comprehension and language acquisition results.

Strategy Training with Explicit Connections: Reading strategy instruction could be designed explicitly so that it highlights the similarities and differences between languages, focusing on how certain strategies can be applied across L2 and L3. For instance, learners could be provided with explicit instruction on how to use prediction strategies in English reading comprehension, and then guided in making connections and transferring this strategy to reading tasks in a different language, such as German. By emphasizing the transferability of strategies and providing practice opportunities, learners can develop a metacognitive awareness of strategy transfer and apply it effectively.

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APPENDIX A: READING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Reading Strategy Questionnaire (Oxford et al., 2004)

Name:

Department:

Gender:

Directions: Show how often you use the strategy when reading, by checking the appropriate box. 1 means "almost never" while 5 means "almost always".

Almost never				Almost always
1	2	3	4	5

It is important to answer in terms of how well each statement describes you, NOT in terms of what you think you should do, or what other people do. THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong responses to these statements. The score you obtain will not affect your grade.

Depending on your language learning experience and needs, you may be using different types of strategies. The learning strategies presented here are general. Not everyone needs the same kind of strategies. A "low" score does not mean you are a bad learner.

Before I read a text,

1. I use the title to help predict the contents.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I consider what type of text it is, such as a newspaper article, a scientific paper, or a novel.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I skim it first, and later I read for details.	1	2	3	4	5

While I am reading a text,

4. I pay attention to parts of sentences such as phrases and clauses.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I pay attention to the beginning and the end of each paragraph.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I focus on the tense of a verb, such as present tense and past tense.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I try to understand the meaning of every word in a text.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I translate each sentence into my native language.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I start reading from the first paragraph and read all the way through the last paragraph.	1	2	3	4	5

10. I pay attention to sentence structure, such as subjects and objects.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I continue reading even if I have difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I change reading speed depending on the difficulty of a text.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I read aloud the difficult parts of a text.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I skip unknown words.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I link the content with what I already know.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I try to understand the meaning of an unknown word by dividing it into parts.	1	2	3	4	5
17. If I don't understand something such as word or phrase, I guess its meaning using clues from the text.	1	2	3	4	5
18. If I don't understand something such as word or phrase, I guess its meaning using information I know about the topic.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I check what each pronoun refers to.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I underline important parts.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I mark important parts, using colored pens or drawing stars.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I go over difficult parts several times.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I read aloud the entire text.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I make a picture in my mind about what the text is saying.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I try to understand the meaning without translating the text into my native language.	1	2	3	4	5
26. If I'm having trouble, I go back to previous sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I follow the line I am reading with my finger or my pen.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I use slashes to divide a sentence grammatically.	1	2	3	4	5
29. When I can not understand a sentence even if I know every word, I skip that sentence.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I predict what will come next.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I pay attention to linking words such as "however" and "besides" so that I can understand the structure.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I write down key words.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I try to figure out the main idea of each paragraph.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I read the comprehension questions first and then read the text.	1	2	3	4	5

After I read a text,

35. I summarize it in my own words.	1	2	3	4	5
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Thank You.

APPENDIX B: ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION PRE-POST-TEST

There must be few occasions when it would be really rude to refuse an invitation to head-butt someone you've just met! But I'm in one of those right now. I'm in a rehearsal room in a theatre with a group of actors, facing up to stage fighting director Kate Waters. I've already dragged her around the room and slapped her on the arm. Now she wants me to head-butt her. But fear not, this is all strictly pretend!

'Imagine there's a tin can on my shoulder,' she says. 'Now try to knock it off.' I lower my head as instructed, then lift it sharply, aiming for the imaginary can, hoping desperately that I don't miscalculate the angle and end up doing damage to her face. To my amazement, I get it right. 'That was good,' says Waters. 'Now maybe try it again without smiling.'

Waters, known in the industry as Kombat Kate, is showing me how actors fight each other without getting hurt, and that includes sword-fighting. (She inspires fierce devotion: when I tweet that I'm meeting Waters, one actress friend responds: 'She's amazing. She taught me how to be a secret service agent in two days.')

Perhaps the most famous play Kate has worked on recently was called *Noises Off*. She taught the cast how to fall down stairs without breaking any bones. One of the fight scenes is fairly close, Kate tells me, to the one we're trying out now. 'I've just slowed it down a bit,' she says tactfully, before inviting me to throw her against the wall. I obey, making sure I let go of her quickly, so she can control her own movement. Push your opponent too hard, and they will hit the wall for real. I watch her hit the wall before falling to the ground. She's fine, of course. 'That's my party trick,' she says with a grin. 'Works every time.'

Once the lesson is over Kate tells me how she became one of only two women on the official register of stage fight directors. Already a keen martial arts expert from childhood, Kate did drama at university, and one module of her course introduced her to stage combat. When she made enquiries about the possibility of teaching it as a career, she was told about the register and the qualifications she'd need to be accepted onto it.
line 22 It was no small order: as well as a certificate in advanced stage combat, she would need a black belt in karate and proficiency in fencing, a sport she'd never tried before.

But she rose to the challenge and taught the subject for several years at a drama college before going freelance and becoming a fight advisor for the theatrical world. The play she's working on is Shakespeare's *Richard III*. This involves a famous sword fight. With no instructions left by the great playwright other than – Enter Richard and Richmond: they fight, Richard dies – the style and sequence of the fight is down to Kate and the actors.

'I try to get as much information as possible about what a fight would have been like in a particular period,'
line 30 Kate explains. 'But because what I'm eventually doing is telling a dramatic story, not all of it is useful. The scene has to be exciting and do something for the audience.'

Ultimately, of course, a stage fight is all smoke and mirrors. In our lesson, Kate shows me how an actor will stand with his or her back to the audience ahead of a choreographed slap or punch. When the slap comes it makes contact not with skin but with air: the actor whacks his chest or leg to make the sound of the slap.

In the rehearsal room, I can't resist asking Kate how she thinks she would fare in a real fight. Would she give her attacker a hard time? She laughs, 'Oh, I'd be awful,' she says. 'I only know how to fake it.' I can't help thinking, however, that she's just being rather modest.

- 1 In the first paragraph, the writer is aware of
 - A a critical attitude from Kate.
 - B the concern of the other actors.
 - C the need to reassure his readers.
 - D having been in a similar situation before.

- 2 How does the writer feel when Kate mentions the tin can?
 - A worried about hurting Kate
 - B relieved that Kate is just pretending
 - C concerned that it may injure his head
 - D convinced that he won't take it seriously enough

- 3 When Kate and the writer repeat the fight scene from *Noises Off*, we learn that
 - A the writer isn't sure of his instructions.
 - B Kate has adapted it slightly for the writer to try.
 - C the writer is initially unwilling to do it.
 - D Kate has to react quickly to a mistake the writer makes.

- 4 What does the phrase 'no small order' (line 22) tell us about stage combat?
 - A Kate knew she would love learning about it.
 - B It is something very few people ever perfect.
 - C Studying it required a lot of obedience and respect.
 - D Qualifying to teach it would be a long and difficult process.

- 5 What does the writer tell us about the sword fight in the play *Richard III*?
 - A Its details need to be made up.
 - B It's a particularly challenging scene to do.
 - C Its action is conveyed through spoken words.
 - D It is widely agreed to be the most exciting of its kind.

- 6 What does 'it' refer to in line 30?
 - A information
 - B a fight
 - C a particular period
 - D a dramatic story

How the recycling symbol was created

Gary Anderson designed a symbol which we see everywhere nowadays.



I studied engineering at the University of Southern California at a time when there was a lot of emphasis in the United States on training young people to be engineers. That said, I eventually switched to architecture. I just couldn't get a grasp on electronics and architecture seemed more concrete to me.

It was around that time that I saw a poster advertising a design competition being run by the Container Corporation of America. The idea was to create a symbol to represent recycled paper. One of my college requirements had been a graphic design course so I thought I'd give it a go. It didn't take me long to come up with my design: only a day or two. **7** But I already had arrows and angles in my mind because on my course I'd done a presentation on recycling waste water. I'd come up with a graphic that described this process very simply.

The problem with the design I'd done earlier was that it seemed flat, two-dimensional. So when I sat down to enter the competition, I thought back to a field trip in elementary school to a newspaper office where we'd been shown how paper was fed over rollers as it was printed. **8** The three arrows in it look like strips of folded-over paper. I drew them in pencil, and then traced over everything in black ink. These days, with computer graphics packages, it's rare that designs are quite so plain.

I think I found out I'd won the competition in a letter. Was I excited? Well, yes of course – but not that excited. **9** So it just seemed like, of course I would win! There was a monetary prize, though for the life of me I can't remember how much it was... about \$2,000?

When I finished my studies, I decided to go into urban planning and I moved to Los Angeles. It seems funny, but I really played down the fact that I'd won this competition. I was afraid it would make me look as though I was interested in graphics, rather than urban planning. **10** I remember seeing it once on a leaflet which had been produced on recycled paper, but then it disappeared.

A while after graduating, I flew to Amsterdam for a holiday. I'll never forget: when I walked off the plane, I saw my symbol. It was on a big recycling bin. And it was bigger than a beach ball! **11** I was really taken aback. That was quite a long time ago though. Since then, I've got more qualifications and worked for quite a few different firms, some more environmentally aware than others.

I feel much prouder of the recycling symbol now than I used to, probably because it's so widely seen. Maybe this design has been more important to me than I'd thought. **12** There's more to me than the recycling symbol.

- | | |
|---|--|
| A Still, I'd hate to think that my life's work is defined by it. | E I realise that seems ridiculous for something that's been so successful. |
| B I used what I'd seen to create the image. | F Also, nothing much happened to the symbol for a while. |
| C I'm no expert on recycling but I can certainly see its value. | G I guess at that point in my life I had an exaggerated sense of my own importance. |
| D I hadn't thought about it for years and there it was right in my face. | |

You are going to read part of the autobiography of a surfing instructor. For questions **13-20**, choose from the sections (**A – E**). The sections may be chosen more than once.

Mark your answers **on the separate answer sheet**.

In which section does the writer mention

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| feeling satisfaction that her determination resulted in better performance? | 13 <input type="text"/> |
| the problem of having to wait for conditions to be favourable for surfing? | 14 <input type="text"/> |
| a change which helped her to pursue her hobby? | 15 <input type="text"/> |
| continuing to surf even when the conditions were unfavourable? | 16 <input type="text"/> |
| the pleasure she gets from seeing others succeed? | 17 <input type="text"/> |
| being aware that it would take time for her abilities to be recognised? | 18 <input type="text"/> |
| her enthusiasm for the sea being recognised by someone else? | 19 <input type="text"/> |
| an admission that she doesn't think about what she is doing when surfing? | 20 <input type="text"/> |

<https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/Images/178516-b2-first-sample-paper-2.zip>

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APPENDIX C: GERMAN READING COMPREHENSION PRE-POST-TEST

Text - Teil 1

Der TV-Koch Stefan Berger

“Ich versuche immer wieder etwas Neues.”

Bei Stefan Berger gibt es Gerichte, von denen man vorher noch nie gehört hat. Er hat dauernd neue Ideen. Den Gästen gefällt das. Man muss unbedingt vorher anrufen und einen der wenigen Tische bestellen, wenn man in seinem Restaurant “Bremer Lokal” essen möchte. Er hat viele Gäste, will aber kein zweites Lokal aufmachen. “Klar, ich könnte vielleicht reich damit werden, aber ich habe mich bewusst dagegen entschieden. Ich mag es einfach, wie wir hier arbeiten.”

Stefan Berger wurde 1968 im Rheinland geboren, war auf der Realschule und lernte dann in einem großen Hotel kochen.

Nach der Berufsausbildung brauchte er erstmal eine zweijährige Pause. Er fuhr durch die Welt, hatte verschiedene Jobs und lernte viel Neues kennen. Wegen einer Frau kam er dann nach Bremen. Das “Bremer Lokal” in seiner Nachbarschaft suchte einen Koch, Berger nahm die Stelle an, und drei Jahre später kaufte er das Restaurant.

Die meisten kennen ihn aber erst durch seine Fernsehshow “Berger kocht”. In der beliebten Sendung besuchen ihn Sänger und Schauspieler und kochen mit ihm ihre Lieblingsrezepte.

Bei Stefan Berger können Gäste...

- ☐ a bekannte Gerichte essen.
- ☐ b interessante Getränke bestellen.
- ☒ c neue Speisen probieren.

Die Gäste im “Bremer Lokal”...

- ☒ a finden immer einen Tisch.
- ☐ b müssen anrufen und Essen bestellen.
- ☐ c sollen Plätze reservieren.

Stefan Berger möchte...

- ☐ a ein neues Restaurant eröffnen.
- ☐ b mit seinem Restaurant mehr Geld verdienen.
- ☒ c nur ein Restaurant haben.

Sofort nach der Ausbildung...

- ☐ a arbeitete er in einem großen Hotel.
- ☐ b kaufte er ein Restaurant.
- ☒ c machte er eine lange Reise.

Stefan Berger ist bekannt durch...

- ☒ a eine Fernsehsendung.
- ☐ b Lieder und Filme.
- ☐ c sein Restaurant.

Dieser Text informiert über...

- ☒ a den Berufsweg eines Kochs.
- ☐ b einen Koch in einem Hotel.
- ☐ c eine neue Berufsausbildung.

Text - Teil 3

Liebe Sonja,

ich bin jetzt schon vier Wochen in Hamburg und bin noch dabei, mich hier einzuleben. An der Universität ist vieles ganz anders organisiert als zu Hause. Und auch im täglichen Leben musste ich erst einmal lernen, wie einige Dinge hier gemacht werden. Zum Beispiel, wie ich ein Zimmer finde und wo ich was einkaufen kann.

In der ersten Woche haben ein paar Studenten eine Willkommensführung für uns ausländische Studierende gemacht. Sie haben uns die Uni gezeigt: die Bibliothek, die Cafeteria und die Multimedia-Räume. Hamburg hab ich dann alleine mit dem Stadtplan kennengelernt.

Ich wohne mit drei anderen Studenten aus Italien, Japan und Mexiko zusammen. Immer freitags kocht einer von uns etwas aus seinem Land und wir essen zusammen, obwohl wir nur eine winzig kleine Küche haben! Ich finde das super, du weißt ja, wie gerne ich koche!

Wir sprechen in der Wohnung nicht nur Deutsch, sondern oft auch Englisch miteinander. Manchmal ist das einfacher, aber mich stört das ein bisschen. Ich möchte dieses Jahr möglichst viel Deutsch lernen. Und weißt du, was mir am meisten Spaß macht? Der Literaturkurs. Der Dozent, Herr Hahn, ist ein total witziger Typ. Den müsstest du mal erleben. :-)

Ich freue mich auf deinen Besuch im März. Dann zeige ich dir die Stadt und an einem Nachmittag fahren wir an die Ostsee. Da ist es total schön. Du kannst dann bei Mario schlafen. Das ist der Italiener, der neben mir wohnt. Er ist einverstanden, denn er fährt in den Ferien nach Hause, nach Genua.

Schreib mir bald!

Bis dann

Gülcan

Gülcan sagt über ihr Leben in Hamburg, dass...

- ☐ a das Studium wie in ihrem Heimatland ist.
- ☐ b im Alltag einiges wie zu Hause ist.
- ☒ c im Moment vieles neu für sie ist.

Die Studentengruppe hat...

- ☒ a den Neuen die Hochschule gezeigt.
- ☐ b für neue Studenten eine Stadtführung gemacht.

- ☐ c Gülcan anderen ausländischen Studenten vorgestellt.

In der Wohnung...

- ☐ a kochen alle zusammen.
☐ b kocht Gülcan immer für alle.
☒ c kocht jeder einmal für die anderen.

Gülcan ist es wichtig...

- ☐ a auch Englisch zu üben.
☒ b Deutsch zu sprechen.
☐ c Herrn Hahn kennenzulernen.

Im März...

- ☐ a besuchen sie Mario zu Hause.
☐ b machen Sonja und Gülcan Urlaub am Meer.
☒ c übernachtet Sonja in Marios Zimmer.

<https://lingua.com/de/deutsch/lesen/flughafen/>

Am Flughafen

Familie Müller plant ihren Urlaub. Sie geht in ein Reisebüro und lässt sich von einem Angestellten beraten. Als Reiseziel wählt sie Mallorca aus. Familie Müller bucht einen Flug auf die Mittelmeerinsel. Sie bucht außerdem zwei Zimmer in einem großen Hotel direkt am Strand. Familie Müller badet gerne im Meer.

Am Abflugtag fahren Herr und Frau Müller mit ihren beiden Kindern im Taxi zum Flughafen. Dort warten schon viele Urlauber. Alle wollen nach Mallorca fliegen. Familie Müller hat viel Gepäck dabei: drei große Koffer und zwei Taschen. Die Taschen sind Handgepäck. Familie Müller nimmt sie mit in das Flugzeug. Am Flugschalter checkt die Familie ein und erhält ihre Bordkarten. Die Angestellte am Flugschalter erklärt Herrn Müller den Weg zum Flugsteig. Es ist nicht mehr viel Zeit bis zum Abflug. Familie Müller geht durch die Sicherheitskontrolle. Als alle das richtige Gate erreichen, setzen sie sich in den Wartebereich. Kurz darauf wird ihre Flugnummer aufgerufen und Familie Müller steigt mit vielen anderen Passagieren in das Flugzeug nach Mallorca. Beim Starten fühlt sich Herr Müller nicht wohl. Ihm wird ein wenig übel. Nach zwei Stunden landet das Flugzeug. Am Gepäckband warten alle Passagiere noch auf ihr fehlendes Gepäck. Danach kann endlich der Urlaub beginnen.

Wo lässt sich Familie Müller beraten?

- ☒ a im Internet
- ☐ b im Hotel
- ☐ c zu Hause
- ☐ d im Reisebüro

Wie lautet das Reiseziel der Familie Müller?

- ☐ a Ibiza
- ☐ b Menorca
- ☒ c Mallorca
- ☐ d Korsika

Wieviel Gepäck hat Familie Müller dabei?

- ☐ a drei Taschen
- ☐ b einen Koffer und zwei Taschen
- ☒ c drei Koffer und zwei Taschen
- ☐ d vier Koffer

Wie fühlt sich Herr Müller beim Starten des Flugzeugs?

- ☐ a er ist durstig
- ☐ b er ist hungrig
- ☐ c er fühlt sich schläfrig
- ☒ d er fühlt sich nicht wohl

Wo holen die Passagiere nach der Landung ihr Gepäck ab?

- ☒ a im Wartebereich
- ☐ b auf der Rollbahn
- ☐ c im Hotel
- ☐ d am Gepäckband

<https://lingua.com/de/deutsch/lesen/schule/>

In der Schule

Ich gehe gerne in die Schule. In der Klasse sind 30 Schüler. Es sind Mädchen und Jungen. Die meisten Lehrer sind nett und der Schuldirektor auch. Neben mir in der Schulbank sitzt mein bester Freund Klaus. Florian ist ein Klassenkamerad. Er ist auch ein Freund. Im Rucksack habe ich ein Buch, Papier zum Schreiben, zwei Kugelschreiber, Buntstifte, Bleistifte und einen Radiergummi. Das Lineal brauche ich für Mathematik. Da bin ich nicht gut. Ich verstehe die Aufgaben nicht richtig.

In der Pause ist es immer lustig. Wir essen und trinken etwas. In einer großen Pause gehen wir in den Hof und spielen Fußball. Diese Pause ist immer zu kurz.

Ich mag nicht alle Schulfächer gleich gerne. Sport ist mein Lieblingsfach. Sport könnte jeden Tag sein. Deutsch ist eine schwere Sprache. Ich muss viele Übungen machen. Dann kann ich es bald besser. Englisch spreche ich gut. Ich mache nur wenige Fehler. Auch Biologie und Kunst habe ich gerne. Biologie ist interessant. Ich mag Tiere. Auch Geschichte interessiert mich sehr.

Vor den Ferien schreiben wir noch zwei Schularbeiten. Eine in Deutsch und eine in Englisch. Ich hoffe, ich bekomme eine gute Note.

Wieviele Schüler sind in der Klasse?

- ☐ a weniger als zwanzig Schüler
- ☐ b mehr als dreißig Schüler
- ☒ c genau dreißig Schüler
- ☐ d etwa zwanzig Schüler

Wie heißt der Klassenkamerad?

- ☐ a Peter
- ☐ b Ahmed
- ☒ c Florian
- ☐ d Michael

Was ist das Lieblingsfach?

- ☐ a Mathematik
- ☐ b Geschichte
- ☒ c Sport
- ☐ d Deutsch

Was ist im Rucksack?

- ☐ a ein Brot
- ☒ b ein Buch
- ☐ c eine Jacke
- ☐ d ein Ball

https://bfu.goethe.de/a2_mod_2MX5/lesen.php?#ueberblick

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ENGLISH POST TEST (ADDITIONAL 5 QUESTIONS)

- 1 We live on the island of Hale. It's about four kilometres long and two kilometres wide at its broadest point, and it's joined to the mainland by a causeway called the Stand - a narrow road built across the mouth of the river which separates us from the rest of the country. Most of the time you wouldn't know we're on an island because the river mouth between us and the mainland is just a vast stretch of tall grasses and brown mud. But when there's a high tide and the water rises a half a metre or so above the road and nothing can pass until the tide goes out again a few hours later, then you know it's an island.
- 2 We were on our way back from the mainland. My older brother, Dominic, had just finished his first year at university in a town 150 km away. Dominic's train was due in at five and he'd asked for a lift back from the station. Now, Dad normally hates being disturbed when he's writing (which is just about all the time), and he also hates having to go *anywhere*, but despite the typical sighs and moans – why can't he get a taxi? what's wrong with the bus? – I could tell by the sparkle in his eyes that he was really looking forward to seeing Dominic.
- 3 So, anyway, Dad and I had driven to the mainland and picked up Dominic from the station. He had been talking non-stop from the moment he'd slung his rucksack in the boot and got in the car. University this, university that, writers, books, parties, people, money, gigs.... And when I say talking, I don't mean talking as in having a conversation, I mean talking as in jabbering like a mad thing. I didn't like it the way he spoke and waved his hands around as if he was some kind of intellectual or something. It was embarrassing. It made me feel uncomfortable – that kind of discomfort you feel when someone you like, someone close to you, suddenly starts acting like a complete idiot. And I didn't like the way he was ignoring me, either. For all the attention I was getting I might as well not have been there. I felt a stranger in my own car.
- 4 As we approached the island on that Friday afternoon, the tide was low and the Stand welcomed us home, stretched out before us, clear and dry, beautifully hazy in the heat – a raised strip of grey concrete bound by white railings and a low footpath on either side, with rough cobbled banks leading down to the water. Beyond the railings, the water was glinting with that wonderful silver light we sometimes get here in the late afternoon which lazes through to the early evening.

- 5 We were about halfway across when I saw the boy. My first thought was how odd it was to see someone walking on the Stand. You don't often see people walking around here. Between Hale and Moulton (the nearest town about thirty kilometres away on the mainland), there's nothing but small cottages, farmland, heathland and a couple of hills. So islanders don't walk because of that. If they're going to Moulton they tend to take the bus. So the only pedestrians you're likely to see around here are walkers or bird-watchers. But even from a distance I could tell that the figure ahead didn't fit into either of these categories. I wasn't sure how I knew, I just did.
- 6 As we drew closer, he became clearer. He was actually a young man rather than a boy. Although he was on the small side, he wasn't as slight as I'd first thought. He wasn't exactly muscular, but he wasn't weedy-looking either. It's hard to explain. There was a sense of strength about him, a graceful strength that showed in his balance, the way he held himself, the way he walked....

21 What height does the water reach during a high tide?

- A A half a meter
- B Only a half meter
- C A meter
- D Two meters

22 How far away from the town is Dominic's university?

- A Quite close to the town
- B Only 150 kilometers
- C Four kilometers.
- D Only 15 minutes away.

23 Who does NOT enjoy having to travel?

- A Writer
- B Writer's Dad
- C Dominic
- D The young man

24 How does Caitlin describe the island?

- A The tide was high during the visit
- B It was a bit foggy and wets
- C The water was shimmering with silver light
- D The island was quite chill

25 What is this text mainly about?

- A The hard life conditions characters have
- B Peacefulness of living on an island
- C Description of the day main character meets his brother
- D The importance of being a university student

GERMAN POST TEST (ADDITIONAL 5 QUESTIONS)

Liebe Rosa,

ich habe dir ja erzählt, dass ich umziehe. Letzte Woche war der Termin. Zuerst habe ich gedacht, dass ich das falsche Auto gemietet habe und es für meine Sachen zu klein ist. Mein Tisch ist doch so groß! Aber am Umzugstag hat alles gut geklappt, denn viele meiner Freunde haben mitgeholfen. Zum Glück! Von hier aus bin ich viel schneller bei der Arbeit. Früher musste ich ja immer mit zwei verschiedenen Straßenbahnen fahren oder den Bus nehmen, der immer so langsam war.

Mein neues Büro ist viel näher und ich bin mit meinem Fahrrad in zehn Minuten dort. Wie praktisch! Vor allem das viele Umsteigen vermisse ich gar nicht.

Nebenan gibt es eine Katze. Das ist toll. Ich habe ihr ein bisschen Wurst gegeben und jetzt kommt sie oft zu mir. Zum Glück sind die neuen Nachbarn nett und haben kein Problem damit. Ich wollte ja auch immer eine eigene Katze, aber in der alten Wohnung hat der Vermieter das leider nicht erlaubt. Ich mache bald ein Fest in der neuen Wohnung. Vielleicht hast du auch Zeit zu kommen? Ich habe jetzt ein Gästezimmer. Dann musst du nicht mehr wie sonst im Hotel übernachten. Auch meine Eltern und Geschwister würden dich gern wiedersehen!

Wie geht es dir denn in Paris? Mein Bruder war letztes Jahr dort zum Französischlernen. Eine tolle Stadt, sagt er. Und ich finde auch, Französisch ist eine so schöne Sprache. :-)) Du kannst mir dann ja alles zeigen, wenn ich dich dort besuche. Ich freue mich schon so!

Liebe Grüße aus München
Marta

21 **11** Marta hatte beim Umzug ...

- a. das falsche Auto.
- b. keine Probleme.
- c. nicht genug Leute zum Helfen.

22 **Auf dem Weg zur** Arbeit kann Marta jetzt...

- a. den schnellen Bus nehmen.
- b. mit verschiedenen Straßenbahnen fahren.
mehr Zeit sparen als früher.

- 23 Marta hat in der neuen Wohnung...
- a. eine eigene Katze.
 - b. freundliche Nachbarn.
 - c. Probleme mit dem Vermieter.
- 24 Rosa kann während ihres Besuchs ...
- a. bei Martas Familie wohnen.
 - b. in einem Hotel übernachten.
 - c. in Martas Wohnung schlafen.
25. Marta möchte bald ...
- a. ihren Bruder besuchen.
 - b. Französisch lernen.
 - c. Paris kennenlernen.

APPENDIX D: ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL



T.C.
YEDİTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ

04.03.2023

Sayı : E.50532705-302.14.01-1503
Konu : Mehmet Derviş Saltık Kurul Onayı

İLGİLİ MAKAMA

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi Mehmet Derviş Saltık'ın, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yavuz Kurt danışmanlığında gerçekleştireceği "Okuma Stratejisi Eğitiminin Birinci Sınıf Öğrencilerinin İkinci ve Üçüncü Dilde Okuma Puanlarına Etkisi" başlıklı araştırmasının Beşeri Bilimler etik standartlarına uygunluğuna ilişkin Yeditepe Üniversitesi Beşeri ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu Onayı ekte sunulmuştur.

Gerekli iznin verilmesi hususunu bilgilerinize arz ve rica ederim.

İmza
Prof. Dr. Fatma Yeşim EKİNCİ
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: Etik Kurul Onayı.pdf

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APPENDIX E: A SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN #1

Before Reading: Before starting the reading activity, I started my session by asking students about if they have strategies for better comprehension of a text, and elicit the answers. Mostly the answers were based on ‘guessing the word they do not know’. After, I asked how they use their strategies for general idea of a text without reading it completely. I did not get any answers from the students here. Later, I projected the images of a text on the smart board and encouraged the students to tell any words or phrases associated with the pictures. At this step, I just wanted them to use their background knowledge. For the next step, I motivated them to make connection with background knowledge to guess the meaning of unknown word(s) in the title. I made them use the title to predict the contents at this step. I told them to write down what they knew about the content in the title and read the text very quickly afterwards. After skimming, I asked them to write their prediction about the theme of the text. The participants wrote their prediction about what the text was about and shared their predictions with their desk mates and then with the classroom. I introduced and highlighted the importance of the strategy “I use the title to help predict the contents.”.

During Reading: During the reading activity, I projected the text on the board and delivered printed form to them. Then I started reading it aloud and paused after some unknown words to encourage learners to predict the meaning of these words by using clues from the text and to make a brainstorm about what it could mean. Also, while I was reading the text aloud, they were at the same time trying to mark important parts using colored pens. Then, I encouraged students to share their notes with their desk mates and then with the rest of the classroom. While students were sharing their ideas, I wrote the main ideas from the text on the board. Then, to see the similarities or differences, students made a group-work to reorganize the main ideas, and they matched their predictions and the content of the text. This helped them gain awareness of how strategy application was useful to comprehend the text.

After Reading: After reading, I got students match the words with the contextual sentences implying the meaning of the words in the worksheet I handed beforehand. Then, students wrote the summary of the text (individual work) with using the information that they had written on the notebook.

