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DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM
DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

THE IMPACT OF GENRE-BASED READING INSTRUCTION
ON ADULT EFL LEARNERS' CRITICAL LITERACY SKILLS

HAVVA KURT TAŞPINAR

İzmir
2020

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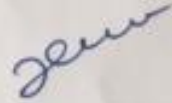
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ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

Doktora tezi olarak sunduğum "The Impact of Genre-Based Reading Instruction on Adult EFL Learners' Critical Literacy Skills" adlı çalışmanın içerdiği fikri izinsiz başka bir yerden almadığımı; çalışmamın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu olmak üzere tüm aşamalarında ve bölümlerinin yazımında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı, tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada kullanılan her türlü kaynağa eksiksiz atıf yaptığımı ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi, ayrıca bu çalışmanın Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan bilimsel intihal tespit programıyla tarandığını ve *intihal içermediğini* beyan ederim. Herhangi bir zamanda aksinin ortaya çıkması durumunda her türlü yasal sonuca razı olduğumu bildiririm.

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Havva KURT TAŞPINAR

TEZ ÇALIŞMASI ORJİNALLİK RAPORU



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ÖZET

TÜR ODAKLI OKUMA ÖĞRETİMİNİN İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN YETİŞKİMLERİN ELEŞTİREL OKURYAZARLIK BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ

Bu çalışma tür odaklı okuma öğretiminin yükseköğretim kademesinde İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yetişkin öğrenenlerin eleştirel okuryazarlıklarına olan etkisini ortaya koymayı amaçlamıştır. Çalışmada açılımlı sıralı desen kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın katılımcılarını bir devlet üniversitesinin Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda öğrenim gören 26 tekrar sınıfı öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma iki aşamadan oluşmuştur. Çalışmanın ilk aşaması, okuma becerileri testi (Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Sınavı'nın okuma bölümü) ve çevrim içi (uygulama temelli) bir eleştirel düşünme testi (Kaliforniya Eleştirel Düşünme Becerileri Testi (KEDBT)) ile denk olmayan (ön test-son test) kontrol gruplu desen ile yapılandırılmış yarı deneysel uygulama sürecini (Creswell, 2014) kapsamıştır. İkinci aşamada katılımcıların eleştirel okuryazarlık ile ilgili algılarını araştırmak amacıyla odak grup görüşmeleri yapılmıştır. Eleştirel okuryazarlık ve geleneksel okuryazarlık öğretimi uygulanacak gruplar, üç grup (Eleştirel Okuryazarlık Grubu (EOG), Geleneksel Okuryazarlık Grubu (GOG), Web Tabanlı Öğrenme Grubu (WTÖG)) arasından seçkisiz atama yoluyla belirlenmiştir.

Ön testlerin uygulanmasından sonra dört haftalık bir tür odaklı okuma öğretimi programı gerçekleştirilmiştir. Belirlenmiş olan metin türlerinin öğretimi için 24 adet ders planı (8 adet ders planının EOG, GOG ve WTÖG için farklı versiyonları) hazırlanmıştır. GOG ders planlarından farklı olarak, EOG ve WTÖG grupları için hazırlanan ders planlarına “kod çözme, metne katılma ve metni kullanma” etkinliklerinin yanı sıra “metin eleştirme” aktiviteleri de dahil edilmiştir. Metin seçim sürecinde metin türleri, “kültür” olarak belirlenmiş olan kavramsal öge, katılımcıların dil yeterlik düzeyleri, yaşları, ilgi alanları, bölümleri ve ihtiyaçlarını içeren bir çok parametre göz önünde bulundurulmuştur. EOG ve GOG, seçilmiş olan metin türleri ve metinlere yönelik 720 dakikalık bir eğitim almıştır. Ödev olarak verilecek olan ders materyalleri ve etkinliklerin WTÖG ile paylaşılması için eğitsel bir sosyal medya sitesi olan (Canady, Martin, & Scott, 2018, p. 108) *Edmodo* kullanılmıştır. Öğretim sürecinin bitiminde son testler uygulanmıştır. Son olarak, EOG'dan 8 katılımcıyla odak grup görüşmeleri yapılmıştır. Nicel veri analizi için Sosyal Bilimler İçin İstatistik Paketi (22. Sürüm) kullanılmıştır. Nitel veri analizinde tematik kodlama yapılmıştır.

Sonuçlar, farklı odak noktalarıyla tasarlanmış olan dört haftalık tür odaklı okuma öğretim programının çalışma gruplarının okuma ve eleştirel düşünme son test skorlarında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir değişime neden olmadığını göstermiştir. Okuma ve KEDBT son test skorları karşılaştırıldığında çalışma gruplarının skorları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Katılımcıların okuma ve eleştirel düşünme becerileri skorları arasındaki ilişkiyle ilgili olarak sonuçlar katılımcıların okuma ve eleştirel düşünme son test skorları arasında çok zayıf bir ilişki olduğunu ya da neredeyse ilişki olmadığını göstermiştir. Son olarak, hiç bir çalışma grubunda kadın ve erkek katılımcıların eleştirel okuryazarlık becerileri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark çıkmamıştır. Nitel veri analizi, katılımcıların eleştirel okuryazarlık becerilerinin öğretimi ile ilgili algılarının olumlu olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Sonuç olarak, günümüz dijital toplumunda okuma değişime uğramıştır ve “artık sadece bilgiyi edinmekle ilgili değildir; bilgiyi yapılandırmak, eleştirel düşünmek ve iyi temellendirilmiş yargılara varmakla ilgilidir” (Schleicher, 2018). Bu nedenle “eleştirel düşünme kolay kazanılabilir bir beceri olmadığından” (Batı & Kaplan, 2015, p. 53), eleştirel okuryazarlık 21. yüzyıl dil öğretim müfredatının ana ögesi olmalı ve “öğretimsel” bir yaklaşımla değil, “programın bir parçası olarak” öğretilmelidir.

Eleştirel okuma becerileri birbirine bağlı farklı beceriler içerdiğinden (Lestari, 2015), daha açık ve kesin sonuçlara ulaşmak için daha fazla katılımcıyla, daha uzun bir süreci kapsayan eğitsel müdahale ve sürekli öğretim sürecini kapsayan daha fazla araştırma yapılmalıdır. Daha büyük bir katılımcı grubuyla, daha yüksek motivasyonlu ve İngilizce’de daha yetkin olan katılımcılarla benzer çalışmalar gerçekleştirilmelidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Eleştirel okuryazarlık, eleştirel düşünme, (tür odaklı) okuma öğretimi.

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF GENRE-BASED READING INSTRUCTION ON ADULT EFL LEARNERS' CRITICAL LITERACY SKILLS

This study aimed to reveal the impact of genre-based reading instruction on adult English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' critical literacy skills at tertiary level. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design was adopted in the study. The participants (N = 26) were repeat students studying in the School of Foreign Languages (SFL), at a state university. The research involved two phases. The first phase of the study involved a reading comprehension test (the reading section of the Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) test) and an online (app-based) critical thinking test (the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST)) followed by a quasi-experimental treatment process, with a nonequivalent (pretest and posttest) control group design (Creswell, 2014). In the second phase, focus group interviews were conducted to explore participants' perceptions of critical literacy. The groups (i.e., Critical Literacy Group (CLG), Conventional Literacy Group (CoLG), and Web-Based Group (WBG)) that would be instructed critical literacy skills and conventional literacy skills were assigned randomly.

After the administration of pretests, a four-week genre-based reading instruction program was implemented. To teach the selected genres (i.e., narrative, descriptive, argumentative, comparison and contrast), twenty-four lesson plans (eight lesson plans with three variations (i.e., CLG, CoLG, and WBG versions) were prepared. Different from the CoLG lesson plans, "text critiquing" activities were also incorporated into instruction in addition to "code breaking, text participating, and text using" activities in the CLG and WBG lesson plans. In the text selection process, a number of parameters, including genres, the conceptual unit (i.e., culture), and participants' language proficiency levels, age, interests, departments, and needs, were taken into account. CLG and CoLG received a 720-minute training on the selected genres and texts. To share the course materials/tasks to be assigned with WBG, *Edmodo*, "an educational social media site" (Canady, Martin, & Scott, 2018, p. 108) was used. Following the instruction process, posttests were administered. Lastly, focus group interviews were conducted with the CLG participants (N = 8). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 22, was used to analyze the quantitative data. Thematic coding was employed to analyze the qualitative data.

The results revealed that a four-week genre-based reading instruction program designed with different foci did not result in a statistically significant change in the reading and critical thinking posttest scores of the study groups. The comparison of the reading and CCTST posttest scores showed that there was no statistically significant difference among the study groups' posttest scores. With regard to the relationship between participants' reading and critical thinking posttest scores, the results displayed that there was a very weak correlation or almost no association between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores. Lastly, there was no statistically significant difference between female and male participants' critical literacy skills in any of the study groups. The analysis of the qualitative data revealed positive learner perceptions regarding the instruction of critical literacy skills.

To conclude, reading has evolved in today's digital society and "is no longer mainly about extracting information; it is about constructing knowledge, thinking critically and making well-founded judgements" (Schleicher, 2018). Thus, critical literacy should be a core component of the 21st century language teaching curriculum and should be taught with a "programmatic" approach rather than an "instructional" approach (Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011) as "critical thinking is not an easily attainable skill" (Batı & Kaplan, 2015, p. 53). Further research with a more ample sampling, an extended educational intervention and a continual instruction period is required to reach clearer and more definite conclusions, for critical reading skills involve interconnected skills (Lestari, 2015). Similar studies should be conducted with a larger sample size and with a highly motivated group of participants who are more proficient in English.

Keywords: Critical literacy, critical thinking, (genre-based) reading instruction.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter firstly presents a brief description of the background of the study followed by the statement of the problem and the purpose and significance of the study. Next, it introduces the research questions, limitations and assumptions of the study, and definitions of terms. Finally, an explanation regarding the organization of the dissertation is provided.

1.2. Background of the Study

Due to the rapid innovative changes in today's global world and new information systems, individuals are bombarded with an overload of information in different forms. Hence, rather than the accumulation of data and the rote transmission of facts, individuals of the 21st century need to have the critical capacities, which involve knowledge processing, manipulation, and transmission. In order to be able to challenge the information presented through media and other developed technologies and explore multiple perspectives and meanings, individuals of the 21st century, as multi-literates, are obliged to take a more critical stance while deconstructing and reconstructing the texts that are presented. All written, verbal, visual, and multi-media texts are created to influence the thinking ways of individuals and societies. Therefore, individuals should learn how to read not only the word but also the world (Freire, 1972). Today, "critical literacies and critical media literacies are being recognized as key pieces in the adult education puzzle around the globe" (Waterhouse, 2012, p. 132). In this sense, education plays an important role in giving meaning to written, verbal, visual or multi-media texts. 21st century education requires instructors to prepare learners as active agents for a world which is saturated with information (Dionne, 2010) and have "critical literacy as a way of thinking" on their teaching agenda (Ko, 2013a, p. 94). Thus, the digital age and emerging technologies make being critically literate an essential ingredient of higher institution teaching and learning.

Traditional educational approaches encourage students to be passive and conform to authorities, namely instructors (Abednia & Izadinia, 2013). In critical approaches like critical literacy, on the other hand, the emphasis is on improving learners' critical consciousness and self-seeking processes rather than seeking for meaning (Callison, 2006). In critical approaches, by gaining critical language awareness, learners deconstruct and reconstruct texts in ways which are more consistent with their personal experiences (Cervetti, Pardales, & Damico,

2001). In critical literacy, critical readers firstly analyze the meanings of what they read. Secondly, they question these meanings. In the last phase, they reflect on them. The underlying purpose of the critical literacy applications carried out in educational practices is to help learners interrogate what they have read, seen and heard, see the different meanings of what they have been presented, develop different viewpoints, and structure the meaning on their own. In this respect, critically-literate learners have the opportunity to evaluate what they have read in line with their own experiences, values, and thoughts and question the author's real purpose.

Critical literacy plays a major role in preparing learners for this constantly evolving new world as active actors by helping learners gain an understanding of how texts are constructed and how their understanding of the world could be influenced by authors. The purpose of critical literacy instruction is to raise individuals who challenge, come up with new and alternative ideas, care about the concepts of justice and equality, and take action for social life. "Critical literacy may be defined as a lens, or overlay, for viewing texts that becomes a regular part of classroom practice" (Dionne, 2010, p. 3). Through this process, readers discover that texts, indeed, are not neutral and objective. To identify the power relationships, injustices, and inequities presented in texts, learners are obliged to take the social, political, and economic conditions in which texts are produced into account. The teacher's role in a critical literacy process, then, is to encourage learners to read analytically and take an inquiring approach to reading. Teachers encourage learners to go beyond the literal meaning and determine what has been said and what has been left unsaid to analyze and evaluate the author's intent.

For teaching critical literacy in a classroom setting, Helen Lenski (2008) proposes some guiding principles:

- Take into consideration the purpose of the text and the author's intentions.
- Examine the representation of various groups in the text.
- Understand that texts offer a particular view of the world.
- Analyze the methods used to transmit the message.
- Take into consideration the power of the language used by the author.
- Read the text from different perspectives.
- Encourage students to take a stand on the author's statements.
- Provide students with the opportunity to consider and clarify their own points of view.
- Provide students with the opportunity to take social action. (as cited in Dionne, 2010, p. 3)

In addition to its strong ties to critical literacy, the 21st century syllabus also needs to be designed using andragogy-inspired insights (Knowles, 1977; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson,

2005, as cited in Dean & Fornaciari, 2014). In andragogy, there are six core assumptions or principles to be considered:

1. Adults need to know why they need to learn something before learning it.
2. The self-concept of adults is heavily dependent upon a move toward self-direction.
3. Prior experiences of the learner provide a rich resource for learning.
4. Adults typically become ready to learn when they experience a need to cope with a life situation or perform a task.
5. Adults' orientation to learning is life-centered, and they see education as a process of developing increased competency levels to achieve their full potential.
6. The motivation for adult learners is internal rather than external. (Knowles et al., 1998, as cited in Holton, Swanson, & Naquin, 2001, p. 120)

Andragogy has been criticized by some scholars (see Pratt, 1993) for not endorsing a critical paradigm of adult learning (Holton, Swanson, & Naquin, 2001). However, it has also been suggested that one could undertake adult learning for social change (see Critical Theory) and have an andragogical approach to adult learning. The strength of andragogy is derived from its involving a set of core principles which are related to adult learning, and which can be applied to all adult learning situations. An andragogic approach to education not only promotes individual and institutional growth but also societal growth. In Freire's (1993) work, societal goals and purposes which could be associated with the learning experience are illustrated. According to the Brazilian educator, the goal of adult education is societal transformation. In this sense, education, the major aim of which is to help participants put knowledge into practice, is a consciousness-raising process. That is to say, the outcome of education is societal transformation.

With regard to the English language teaching (ELT) curriculum, the most important course in which learners can acquire critical literacy skills is the reading course. To develop critical literacy in the ELT curriculum, initially, instructors need to understand that there are seven contexts of text (i.e., "The situation", "The text form", "The author/s", "The voice", "Genre", "Rhetorical strategies", and "World view") (Lohrey, 1998, p. 10) since learners can learn to question through these contexts. As one of these contexts, the notion of genre, particularly in language teaching and learning, has received increasing attention in the last decade due to the changing views of discourse (Hyland, 2007). As Hyland states, classroom applications of genre emerged in the 1970s as an outcome of communicative approaches to language teaching. In the genre-based approach, the role language plays in helping learners attain particular purposes in context is highlighted. Learners' effective participation in the world outside the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom is also deemed significant.

As a result, in today's language classrooms, while learning to read and write, the emphasis is on understanding of how social purposes are achieved through the use of language in specific contexts.

In light of the above, the purpose of this dissertation is to explore the impact of genre-based instruction on adult learners' reading comprehension and critical literacy skills in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Education plays a central role in the advancement of countries. Hence, as the last stage of formal education, higher education is of paramount importance for the future of a country. Through higher education, individuals can have an increased understanding of the community and the world they live in. Higher education, as the last phase of the education process, enables individuals to enhance their knowledge and skills and to improve their skills in speech and in writing. In today's information-driven global economy, individuals are obliged to be equipped with the required skills of the 21st century provided through higher education to be active participants of the community. Today's globalized work environments require individuals to possess critical skills (i.e., critical literacy and critical/creative thinking) (Kaur, 2013). As a result of this need, critical skills are reinforced across the curriculum as core skills in a number of countries, including Australia, Canada, the UK, and New Zealand. Critical literacy has recently gained attention in countries, such as Brazil, China, Iran, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, and Vietnam, as part of the ELT curriculum (see e.g., Abednia & Izadinia, 2013; Cho, 2015; Cox & Assis-Peterson, 1999; Huang, 2011a; Huh, 2016; Kumagai & Iwasaki, 2011; Kuo, 2009, 2014). However, studies conducted on the critical literacy practices in the ELT context are limited (Kuo, 2014), and there is a need for empirical studies to be carried out to explore the critical literacy practices in the tertiary EFL context, in Turkey.

To conclude, the focus of this study is to develop EFL learners' critical literacy as well as conventional literacy skills with a genre-based approach at a state university, where the medium of instruction is English. It is hoped that the instruction of a variety of genres will help learners become more literate critically and figure out what kind of classroom instruction enables students to become more critical and increase their critical language awareness.

1.4. Purpose and Significance of the Study

Critical literacy is an inevitable component of the 21st century education as the world is changing rapidly, and the learners are constantly being exposed to instant and complex flow of information via the Internet and computer technologies. Hence, learners need to develop

their critical literacy skills, namely the exploration of multiple perspectives, high-order thinking skills, and problem solving skills (Fajardo, 2015). According to Janks (2013), “critical literacy is mainly about enabling young people to read both the word and the world in relation to power, identity, difference, and access to knowledge, skills, tools and resources. It is also about writing and rewriting the world: it is about design and re-design” (p. 227).

In this sense, critical literacy involves the exploration of multiple perspectives, which is of utmost importance in this century (Clarke & Whitney, 2009; Fajardo, 2015). Plus, when equipped with critical literacy skills, competent learners are more likely to challenge texts and question the message conveyed in the text either overtly or covertly with a critical approach. That is to say, critical literacy skills require high-order thinking skills, problem solving, and multiple perspectives (Shor, 1999). Critically literate readers “not only read the words but also worlds” (Freire, 1993). Learners as critical readers and text challengers can build a bridge with real life. Thanks to critical literacy, learners can deconstruct and reconstruct multiple meanings of texts. Moreover, discussing controversial issues enables learners to improve “the skills of information-processing, reasoning, enquiry, creative thinking, and evaluation” (Oxfam Development Education, 2006, p. 5). Thus, they can “view an issue through different lenses, be more sympathetic to others in different situations, and enrich their reasoning abilities” (Morgan & York, 2009, as cited in Fajardo, 2015, p. 32).

One of the most significant missions higher education holds is to equip adult learners with knowledge and skills that they can utilize in real life. In this sense, reading courses in the adult ELT curriculum provide the language instructors with the opportunity and privilege to guide learners to become more active readers as critical analysts by applying the knowledge and skills they have gained throughout the educational processes.

In recent empirical studies conducted on critical literacy, multi-modal texts have been used (Fajardo, 2015). These multimodal texts include picture books (Serafini, 2010), political cartoons (El Refaie & Horschelmann, 2010), graphic novels (Thomas, 2011), reality television shows (Miller, 2011), advertisements (Cuff & Statz, 2010), range of digital texts (Bowen & Whithaus, 2013), speech, gestures, clothing (Johnson & Vasudevan, 2012), or popular culture (Morrell, 2011). Today, there is an expanded definition of texts to accommodate the multimodal literacy practices (Mills, 2010; Walsh, 2011, as cited in Fajardo, 2015).

Many scholars (e.g., Champman, 1993; Knobel & Healy, 1998; Lankshear, 1997; McConnell, 1992) state that the concept of critical literacy has grasped attention recently as a result of new research in language learning theory and cognitive psychology in the past decade, and “the ways of implementing it at practice stages may require further research and

development” (as cited in Zhang, 2015, p. 1318). Ko (2013a) asserts that critical literacy studies were mostly conducted in ESL classrooms (e.g., Morgan, 2004; Wallace, 2003); there are only a few studies conducted in EFL settings (e.g., Kuo, 2009; Petek, 2018). Namely, “a critical literacy approach to EFL teaching is still under-explored” (Ko, 2013a, p. 92). The critical component is one of the essential ingredients of 21st century language education, which requires language instructors to equip learners with the language skills of critical literacy (Bacon, 2017). Hence, to fill this gap, this study will explore the impact of genre-based instruction on adult learners’ reading comprehension and critical literacy skills in an EFL context and reveal learners’ perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills at a state university, in which the medium of instruction is English. It is the first doctoral dissertation in Turkey investigating critical literacy in combination with a genre-based approach in ELT at the tertiary level.

1.5. Research Questions

The main focus of the study is whether genre-based instruction has any impact on preparatory year learners’ reading comprehension and critical literacy skills or not. The other research questions that will be addressed in the study are as follows:

1. Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
2. Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
3. Does a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
4. Is there a significant difference among the reading posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group?
5. Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ critical literacy skills?
6. Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ critical literacy skills?
7. Does a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners’ critical literacy skills?
8. Is there a significant difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group?

9. Is there a relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores?
10. Does gender play a role in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?
11. What are the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language?

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The study is limited to the preparatory year students studying English at the School of Foreign Languages, at a state university. The participants of the study include 26 students. Therefore, the results of this quasi-experimental study cannot be generalized to all EFL learning contexts. Plus, due to the strict curriculum and time constraints, the treatment is limited to only four weeks, excluding the pretests and posttests.

1.7. Assumptions of the Study

1. The participants studying at the School of Foreign Languages were native Turkish students and were all eager to take part in the study.
2. The researcher made use of convenience sampling where the participants were the students of the researcher.
3. It was assumed that the participants answered the questions in the pretests and posttests honestly.
4. Participants faithfully and sincerely answered the semi-structured questions in the focus group interviews.
5. The researcher assumed that the participants represented the total number of the repeat students studying in the preparatory school in the year the study was conducted.
6. It was assumed that learners who participated in the study did not change their behaviors and attitudes since they participated in a research study.
7. It was assumed that the findings of this study would reflect the real perceptions of the participants regarding the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language.

1.8. Definitions of Terms

Critical literacy: According to Janks (2013),

critical literacy is mainly about enabling young people to read both the word and the world in relation to power, identity, difference, and access to knowledge, skills, tools and resources. It is also about writing and rewriting the world: it is about design and re-design. (p. 227)

Van Sluys (2005) states that critical literacy is not an instructional strategy but a philosophical belief embodied in literacy education and that “students are language users, not language recipients,” and they learn through language to co-construct their worlds with others (p. 2, as cited in Lee, 2011).

Genre: Freedman and Medway (1994, p. 1) assert that genres are defined “as written texts that are (a) primarily literary, (b) entirely defined by textual regularities in form and content, (c) fixed and immutable, and (d) classifiable into neat and mutually exclusive categories and subcategories” (as cited in Johns, 2002a, p. 3). With a different perspective, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) point to the socio-cognitive nature of genres and list the following characteristics of genres:

- *Dynamism*: “they change over time in response to their users’ cognitive needs”;
- *Situatedness*: “our knowledge of genre is derived from and embedded in our participation in the communicative activities of daily and professional life. As such, genre knowledge is a form of ‘situated cognition’”;
- *Form and content*: “genre knowledge embraces both form and content, including a sense of what content is appropriate to a particular purpose in a particular situation at a particular point in time”;
- *Duality of structure*: “we constitute social structures (in professional, institutional and organizational contexts) and simultaneously reproduce these structures”;
- *Community ownership*: “genre conventions signal a discourse community’s norms, epistemology, ideology, and social ontology. (p. 4, as cited in Toledo, 2005, pp. 1065-1066)

According to Hyland (2018), “genre, most simply, is a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations” (p. 2359).

1.9. Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter One presents some essential literature as the background of the study. Next, the chapter presents the statement of the problem and the purpose and significance of the study. Research questions, limitations and assumptions of the study, and definitions of terms are then stated. Finally, the organization of the dissertation is outlined.

Chapter Two firstly reviews reading, significance of reading, components of the reading process, purposes for reading, and reading skills. It then outlines critical reading, critical reading skills, the instruction of critical reading skills, models of reading, and teaching reading. The chapter continues with a literature review about critical literacy and some sample

studies on critical literacy. Then the concept of genre, Genre Theory and Genre Pedagogy, schools of Genre Pedagogy, and genre-based reading instruction are presented in this chapter. Finally, the chapter presents some sample studies on genre-based reading instruction.

Chapter Three provides information on the methodological processes carried out throughout the study. First, the research questions are presented. Then the research design is elaborated. Next, the chapter presents information about the research setting and participants, data collection procedures and tools, and data analysis. The validity and reliability of the study and role of the researcher are then explained.

Chapter Four presents the data analysis. The findings are presented in line with the research questions.

Chapter Five presents the summary and discussion of results and draws conclusions based on the findings. Lastly, pedagogical implications, limitations, conclusions, and suggestions for further research are presented.

1.10. Chapter Summary

Throughout this chapter, background of the study was presented. Statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, definitions of terms, significance, limitations, and assumptions of the study were also explained in this chapter. The chapter ended with the outline of the organization of the dissertation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

This chapter starts with a brief overview of reading and its significance in education. Next, it explains the components of the reading process, purposes for reading, reading skills, critical reading, critical reading skills, the instruction of critical reading skills, and models of reading from a pedagogical perspective. Then it describes critical literacy, conceptualization, significance, and instruction of critical literacy, and models in critical literacy. Following the explanations regarding critical literacy in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, Genre Theory, Genre Pedagogy, and genre-based reading instruction are elaborated. The chapter ends with the chapter summary.

2.2. Reading

Reading has long been defined as “the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately” (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 3). However, this definition has been regarded insufficient recently since it does not reflect the complex nature of reading. Grabe and Stoller (2011) propose five reasons for the inadequacy of this definition. First, different purposes for reading, which require the use and combination of different skills and strategies, have not been referred to in the definition given. Plus, the definition does not explain fluent reading and the interaction among skills, processes, and knowledge that leads to reading comprehension. Another reason that makes the definition insufficient is that it does not explain reading as a cognitive process and does not elaborate on how reading takes place under time constraints, which are crucial in understanding reading comprehension. The definition does not explain how the abilities in reading and interpreting a text vary in L2 reading, and how L2 proficiency affects these abilities as well. Lastly, the social context and the reasons for different uses and interpretations of reading texts have not been addressed. Overall, a more complete understanding of reading is needed as it is one of the core skills in language teaching.

According to Urquhart and Weir (1998), reading is “the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print” (p. 22). Grabe and Stoller (2001) define reading as “reader’s drawing information from the text that is being read and combining it with their background information, which results in comprehension (p.

188). Koda (2007) states that reading is “converting print into language and then to the message intended by the author” (p. 1). Although the definitions all emphasize the essential aspects of reading, they reflect different views of and approaches to reading. These approaches comprise linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic approaches (Hudson, 2007). In linguistic views, the linguistic aspects of reading, such as lexicon, syntax, and phoneme-grapheme correspondence are emphasized. In psycholinguistic views, the focus is on cognitive processes. That is to say, these views emphasize strategy and skill activation in the construction of meaning. Lastly, sociocultural views of literacy highlight social practice, ideology, and power. Despite these differences in emphasis, “the ultimate goal of reading is to construct text meaning based on visually encoded information” (Koda, 2007, p. 1).

Hudson (2007) states that reading is an astounding human ability. It is regarded as the most vital basic skill since it is a significant vehicle which contributes to growth in language and thinking (Calfee & Drum, 1978). As “a complex and multifaceted construct” (Koda, 2007, p. 1), reading is comprised of a series of literacy events (Hudson, 2007). Thus, research on literacy and reading has its roots in a variety of disciplines, including cognitive psychology, developmental psychology, and education (Treiman, 2001). Literacy is multidimensional, and reading requires a simultaneous control over the linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural aspects of language. To sum up, to be able to understand reading, a wide range of factors have to be explored due to its critical importance in (language) education.

2.2.1. Significance of reading

“Explaining how the world and our relationships within it and to it are constructed” is possible “through reading and writing” (Goatly, 2000, p.1). In this sense, reading has been deemed as the most essential skill in the higher academic pursuit among all language skills (Al-Noursi, 2014; Bharuthram, 2012; Grabe & Stoller, 2001; Jordan, 1997; Mikulecky, 2008) since students, compared to the past, are exposed to more printed information today (Grabe, 2009a). Reading is the core skill in education because “literacy in academic settings exists within the context of a massive amount of print information” (Grabe, 1991, p. 389).

According to Levine, Ferenz, and Revez (2000), reading is one of the most essential skills that EFL and English as a Second Language (ESL) learners at the tertiary level are obliged to acquire because reading skills have impact upon learners’ academic literacy and success. In a similar vein, Adelnia and Salehi (2016) state that “improved reading comprehension skills can positively impact many facets of students’ academic performance” (p. 28). Reading enables learners to reach “new information and gain access to alternative explanations and interpretations” (Grabe & Stoller, 2001, p. 187). Furthermore, reading is

crucial in developing the necessary skills for synthesis and critical evaluation and independent learning. In other words, reading and comprehending enable learners to analyze, critique, evaluate, and synthesize (Bharuthram, 2012). Ferrer and Staley (2016) advocate that reading also plays a key role in learning a foreign language, for it allows learners “to access knowledge, expand their views of the world, and develop their critical thinking skills” (p. 79). Hence, not being able to develop effective reading skills may negatively affect students’ overall educational performance. In a nutshell, learners that are equipped with effective reading skills can achieve more in their academic lives.

Thus, effective reading can be regarded as the foundation academic skill. Anderson (2012) and Bharuthram (2012) state that competent readers are equipped with the fundamental skills that help them to have a higher level of comprehension while listening to someone giving a speech on a topic that they have read about. In addition, good readers can also attain higher success in speaking tasks when they experience adequate exposure and input about the topic through reading. Plus, avid and effective readers are academically more successful individuals. Regarded as the core skill of language learning, reading has a critical place on the language instructor’s agenda (Anderson, 2012; Grabe & Stoller, 2001). That is why reading instruction constitutes a central component of every second-language curriculum (De Debat, 2006; Mikulecky, 2008). Briefly, reading plays a significant role in learners’ academic success. It not only impacts success in language learning but also success in academic learning leading to higher levels of academic achievement.

2.2.2. Components of the reading process

Studying the components of reading, which is a complex process involving various skills and subskills, sheds light on how skilled readers comprehend texts (Grabe, 1999). These components are listed as “orthographic processing, phonological coding, word recognition (lexical access), working memory activation, sentence parsing, propositional integration, propositional text-structure formation, comprehension strategy use, inference making, and text model reinterpretation as a situation model (or mental model)” (Grabe, 1999, p. 13). More recently, Grabe and Stoller (2011) have suggested that skilled reading involves lower-level and higher-level processes. In the former processes, more automatic linguistic processes are represented. That is, the lower-level skills are linked to word attack skills (Hudson, 2007). In the latter processes, comprehension processes in which reader’s background knowledge and inferencing abilities play a crucial role are represented (Hudson, 2007). However, lower-level processes should not be assumed to be easier than higher-level processes. Both processes are

vital aspects of working memory processing while reading. Table 1 presents working memory processes for reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 14).

Table 1

Working memory processes for reading

Lower-level processes	Higher-level processes
• Lexical access • Syntactic parsing • Semantic proposition formation	• Text model of comprehension • Situation model of reader interpretation • Background knowledge use and inferencing • Executive control processes

Grabe and Stoller (2011) define working memory as “the network of information and related processes that are being used at a given moment” (p. 14). For reading comprehension to take place, working memory keeps the words accessed and the information cued grammatically. Moreover, it keeps the emerging meanings of words, the formation of a text model of comprehension, inferencing, and executive control processes active. This activation process typically takes one or two seconds. In higher-level processing, on the other hand, as readers keep reading and reflect on the information provided in the text, main ideas are continually reactivated. These processes require the integration of new information so that readers can form an accurate update of meaning and rapidly combine the newly-presented information. For this reason, new information is kept active in the working memory for one to two seconds, and that is why rapid processing is essential. If active information is not processed quickly enough, the information may not be accessible any more as it fades from memory. Thus, slow processing results in reactivation, which takes more resources and leads to an inefficient reading process. Lower-level processes are comprised of lexical access, syntactic parsing, and semantic proposition formation.

a. Lower-level processes

Fluent reading comprehension requires rapid and automatic word recognition, which is also referred to as lexical access (Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Koda, 2005). Rapid and automatic word recognition means being able to recognize 98-100 per cent of all words in a text at basic meaning level. Fluent readers can recognize four to five words per second. In other words, lexical access is a fast and an unconscious process (Pressley, 2006). Readers can gain automaticity in word recognition through extensive exposure to print and reading practice.

Besides word recognition, fluent reading also requires readers to take in and store words together to extract grammatical information, which is called syntactic parsing. Readers are able to understand texts by recognizing phrasal groupings, information regarding word ordering, and the relations among clauses. In this way, readers may cope with polysemy and activate the most relevant meanings of the words based on the given context. Hence, syntactic parsing is central to reading comprehension.

The final basic process in lower-level processing is semantic proposition formation. In simpler terms, it is “the process of combining word meanings and structural information into basic clause-level meaning units” (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 18). Readers could integrate new information to previously-presented information once words are recognized and then text is parsed syntactically. In this automatic lower-level process, readers connect the meaning elements of the text which have been introduced. The more they are presented and reactivated, the more active and central these elements become in memory.

Overall, lexical access or word recognition, syntactic parsing, and semantic proposition formation are the lower-level processes that are required for fluent reading. If all these processes do not function fluently and cooperatively, the reading comprehension process slows down and comprehension of the text may be difficult for readers to maintain (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). Table 2 displays lower-level processes.

Table 2

Lower-level processes

Lower-level processes
▪ Lexical access ○ Rapid and automatic word recognition ▪ Syntactic parsing ○ Storage of words for the extraction of grammatical information. ▪ Semantic proposition formation ○ Combination of word meanings and structural information

b. Higher-level processes

Different from lower-level processes, higher-level comprehension processes represent reading comprehension. More elaborate processes take place in higher-level processes. To illustrate, skilled readers form a summary model of the meanings conveyed in the text they have read. While reading, in addition to comprehending and interpreting, readers identify purposes for reading, utilize different reading strategies, infer meaning, activate their

background knowledge, monitor their comprehension, form attitudes about the text and author, change their goals accordingly, and evaluate the information presented in the text critically (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

Forming a text model of reading comprehension is a crucial process in higher-level comprehension (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005, as cited in Grabe & Stoller, 2011). This model represents the main points and supporting ideas of the target text. Following the lower-level processes of syntactic parsing and semantic proposition formation, readers form clause-level meaning units. As they pursue reading, they add new information and ideas to the already existing and growing network of information and ideas from the text. Repeated ideas and the ideas that form usable linkages become more active and are processed as main ideas in the text. As a result, they become more active in the network. The ideas that do not facilitate the connection of new information become inactive since they quickly fade from the network. To put it simply, the ideas readers view as more useful and important remain active in the network.

The text model of comprehension is formed by the set of main ideas that readers form throughout the reading process. Readers are able to understand the text and make inferences as long as their language-proficiency level does not have an impeding impact on their comprehension, and as long as their background knowledge helps them cope with ambiguity and navigate in the text making use of discourse organization.

While building the text model of comprehension, readers also determine the direction of reading which is influenced by their background knowledge, inferences, goals, motivation, and attitudes toward the text, task, and author as well as text difficulty and task. That is to say, readers' goals, feelings, and background expectations affect their interpretations. In Grabe and Stoller's (2011) terms, in "the situation model of reader interpretation", readers create a situation model differently, that is, based on the text type, they interpret the text differently (p. 21). Fluent readers who do not experience problems in comprehending the text aim at developing situation model of reader interpretation for reading comprehension. Being experts in reading, they can efficiently and appropriately integrate text information and their background information.

The situation model of reader interpretation involves both the text model and the situation model. Thus, readers comprehend the message conveyed by the author in the text (text model) and have a personal interpretation of the text for their purposes (situation model). As a result of this dual understanding, readers are able to provide a summary of the text and offer a critique of the text's position. This provides an explanation for how readers can read particular genres. Different genres require different ways of reading; namely, readers may read

to emphasize what the author most likely means, as in a technical manual, or what they want the text to mean, as in a poem; that is why different genres exist.

In addition to these two higher-level processes, background knowledge and inferencing also play an important role in reading. They are crucial in the transformation of the information from clause-level meaning units to the text model of comprehension and, finally, to the elaborated situation model of reader interpretation. At this phase, having wrong or insufficient background knowledge or drawing wrong inferences may mislead readers.

In text-model and situation-model construction, readers need to display abilities, including monitoring, comprehension, using the required strategies, reassessment and re-establishment of reading goals, and overcoming comprehension problems (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). In other words, while reading, an attentional monitor as an aspect of executive control processing in working memory operates cognitively, and this attentional processing is crucial. Readers can exert selective attention through an executive control processor/monitor while comprehending, assessing their understanding, and evaluating their success. Table 3 summarizes higher-level processes.

Table 3

Higher-level processes

Higher-level processes
▪ Text model of comprehension ○ Representation of the main points and supporting ideas ○ Determination of the direction of reading ▪ Situation model of reader interpretation ○ Comprehension of the message conveyed in the text (e.g., summarizing the text) ○ Interpreting the text personally for specific purposes (e.g., offering a critique of the text's position) ▪ Background knowledge use and inferencing ○ Transformation of the information from clause-level meaning units to the text model of comprehension ○ Transformation of the information from clause-level meaning units to the elaborated situation model of reader interpretation. ▪ Executive control processes ○ Operation of an attentional monitor (e.g., exertion of selective attention)

In a nutshell, lower-level processes and higher-level processes, which form the cognitive processing resources, enable readers to read for different purposes (Grabe, 2009a). When readers read to locate simple information, for instance, lower-level processes such as word recognition operate. Reading for general comprehension, in contrast, requires the use of a balanced combination of text-model comprehension and situation-model interpretation

(Grabe & Stoller, 2011). Lastly, when readers read to learn, they first need to build an accurate text model of comprehension and then form an interpretive situation model integrating the existing or revised background knowledge.

To conclude, reading comprehension processes reveal the complex nature of reading. Numerous operations are involved in reading comprehension. In order for reading comprehension to take place, readers need to balance and coordinate a number of complex and automatic set of processes that operate fast and efficiently, which enables them to become a skilled and a fluent reader (Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Hudson, 2007) while reading for different purposes.

2.2.3. Purposes for reading

Readers' initial decisions, namely their purposes, have impact upon the processes involved in reading. Hence, purposes for reading should be analyzed to better understand how reading operates. Figure 1 presents the different purposes suggested for reading.

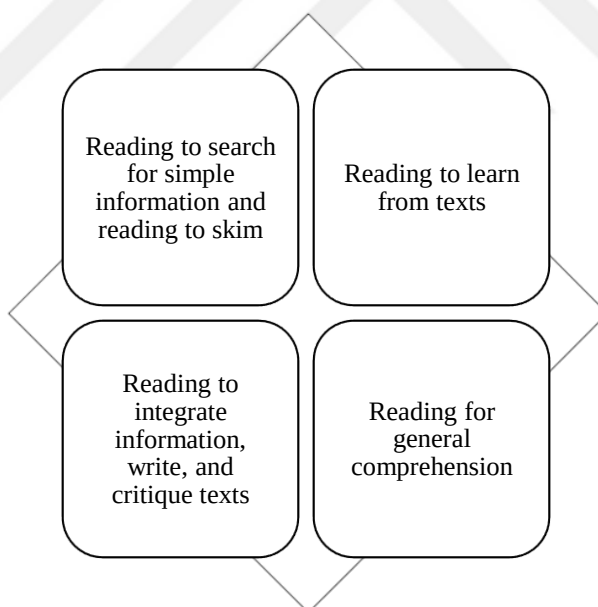


Figure 1. The classification of purposes for reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 7).

Scanning and skimming are used while reading to search for information. In scanning, readers search for a specific piece of information (e.g., a word/phrase). To exemplify, readers scan for key information when using a telephone directory. Likewise, readers skim “to sample segments of the text for a general understanding” (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 8). Through

skimming, readers aim at locating important information in a text. Then they use basic comprehension skills to grasp the general idea of the related segments.

Readers in academic and professional contexts read in order to learn from texts. While reading to learn, readers need to be able to identify and get the main ideas and the details that support the main ideas, recognize the rhetorical frames of the text, and link the text to their own knowledge base (Grabe & Stoller, 2011) as all these require rereading and the use of reflection strategies to remember information. When they read to learn, readers tend to read at a relatively slower rate compared to reading for general comprehension. Plus, to connect the information provided in the text with their background knowledge, learners need to make stronger inferences.

Readers critically evaluate the information presented in the text when they read to integrate information. In this way, they, based on their reading goal(s), are able to determine what information will be used to integrate, and how it will be integrated. Reading to write and reading to critique texts are among academic reading tasks that require readers to integrate information by selecting, critiquing, and composing information from a text.

Reading for general comprehension, which is more complex than assumed, is the most basic purpose for reading because it supports other reading purposes. Reading for general comprehension requires rapid and automatic processing, a quick meaning representation of main ideas, and coordination among different processes despite time constraints (Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Hudson, 2007). Fluent readers are able to use these skills automatically. However, compared to reading to learn, it may be more challenging for L2 readers to read for general comprehension while reading longer texts due to time constraints as high efficiency in processing is required.

In sum, reading is not merely decoding the written words in a text, it is a more complex process (Hellekjær, 2009; Hudson, 2007). “It is the active creation of meaning in an interactive process between information in a text and the knowledge of the reader” (Bråten, 1997, as cited in Hellekjær, 2009, p. 199). Therefore, an extended definition of reading requires elaboration on the reading process, description of the features of this process and reading skills (Grabe, 1991; Grabe, 1999).

2.2.4. Reading skills

The skills involved in the reading process are categorized as “word attack skills”, “comprehension skills”, “fluency skills”, and “critical reading skills” (Hudson, 2007, p. 79). Word attack skills, which are also called decoding skills, represent the skills required to decode units of language, including phonemes, syllables, and words. Decoding skills involve

recognizing syllable patterns, word boundaries, upper- and lower-level case letters. Comprehension skills are mainly about constructing meaning from what is read by using context and prior knowledge. Examples of comprehension skills include grammatical competence, knowledge of morphology, syntax, mechanics, using context to grasp meaning, using schemata, using metacognitive knowledge, and recognizing text structure. Fluency skills allow readers to read more quickly as sentences and phrases are perceived as a whole (Koda, 2005). In order to be able to read fluently, readers need to have certain abilities, including word recognition, rapid reading, recognizing high-frequency letter clusters, and possessing extensive vocabulary. Lastly, critical reading involves skills to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate what is read. Critical reading skills, which involve to identify the cause-and-effect relationships in the text and compare and contrast the texts that have been read, enable readers to adopt a critical stance while reading (Hudson, 2007).

Rosenshine (1980, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 80) proposes three different types of reading skills, which are “locating details”, “simple inferential skills”, and “complex inferential skills”, in an examination of reading skills of five authoritative educational sources (i.e., Science Research Associates (Shub et al., 1973)), skills tested in National Assessment of Educational Progress (1973), the scope and sequence chart for Scott Foresman’s reading series (Aaron et al., 1976), textbooks by Harris and Smith (1976), and the reading program developed by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center (Otto & Askov, 1974). Rosenshine states that locating details, as the easiest of the reading skills, involves skills, such as recognition, paraphrasing, and matching. The second skill group comprises understanding words in context, identifying the order of events, and recognizing cause and effect relationships. Finally, complex inferential skills involve recognizing the main idea, drawing conclusions, and predicting outcomes and require working with longer texts than in the second type of skills. Rosenshine also proposes seven subskills across these general reading categories. Based on Rosenshine (1980, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 80-81), Figure 2 presents the general reading categories and the subskills.

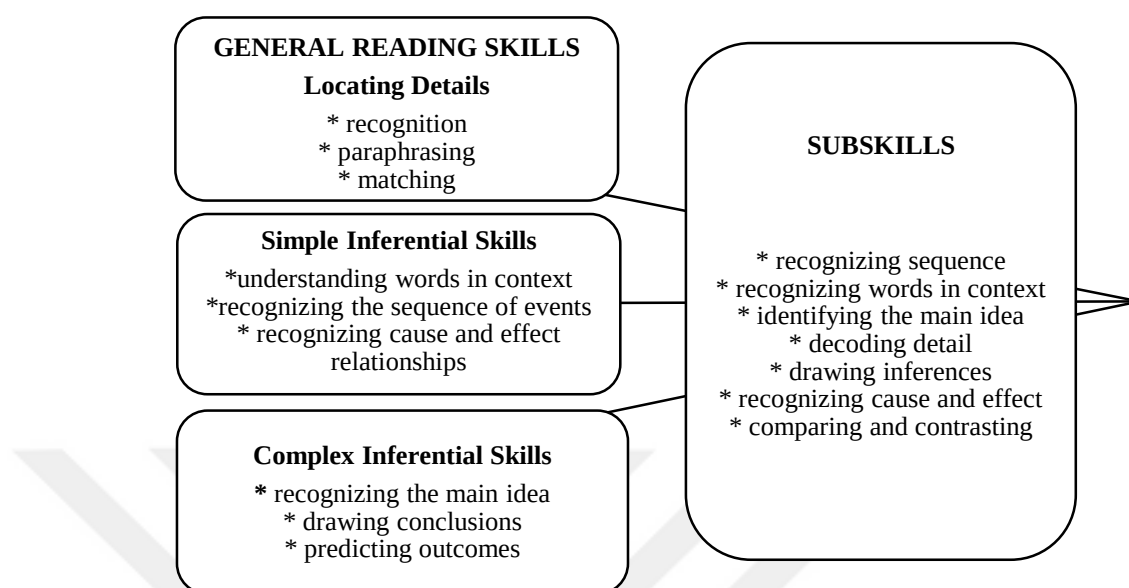


Figure 2. General reading skills and subskills.

As the figure illustrates, reading involves various skills, which operate automatically in fluent reading.

2.2.5. Critical reading

Critical reading is defined as “recognizing biased writing” from a narrow perspective; in broader sense, it is viewed as “the process of comprehending in its highest form” (Schnell, 1978, p. 34). Recent definitions have placed the emphasis on the role context plays in meaning. That is to say, reading a text critically means being able to perceive the relationship between text and context (Freire & Macedo, 1987). From the language learning perspective, “central to the idea of critical reading is an awareness of the role language plays in conveying not just a propositional message but an ideological one. Critical analysis, thus, involves some explicit understanding of language as a formal system” (Wallace, 1992, p. 69, as cited in Brown, 1999).

For critical reading is a critical concept in education, it has long been on the agenda of literacy research. Thus, numerous definitions of critical reading have been proposed. Huijie (2010, pp. 42-43) proposes a comprehensive and chronological summary of definitions of critical reading in Table 4 (emphasis added).

Table 4

Summary of definitions of critical reading

Author(s)	Main points of the definition	Year
Poulson & Wallace	It asks for keeping an open mind , retaining a conditional willingness to be convinced , etc.	2004
Schwegler	Critical reading is active reading. It involves some activity on the reader's part.	2004
Pirozzi	It is high-level comprehension of written material requiring interpretation and evaluation skills.	2003
Bean et al.	Critical reading, like writing, is an active process of composing .	2002
Garrigus	It requires to explain figurative language and to identify basic logical fallacies and emotional appeals .	2002
Milan	It requires to maintain objectivity and not to allow expectations, biases, or personal prejudices to interfere with understanding.	1995
Adams	It is more than the ability to understand the explicit meaning of the passage . It involves application, analysis, evaluation and imagination .	1992
Clegg	It refers to distinguishing fact from opinion, recognizing intent, attitude, and tone; recognizing inferences and drawing conclusions .	1989
Hancock	It distinguishes between truth and distortion, information and propaganda, public policy and personal prejudice.	1988
Maker & Lenier	It requires to question, compare, and evaluate , to detect faulty logic and information.... and then to determine to accept or reject the information .	1987
Wassman & Paye	Critical reading enables to size up the author's arguments and to evaluate how well he supports them. A reader must think beyond what is stated and decide what the author is trying to imply .	1986
Phillips & Sotiriou	Critical readers evaluate the writer's information and draw conclusions of their own.	1985
Raygor & Raygor	It requires readers to distinguish among humor, satire, sarcasm, irony, and straightforward writing; to recognize implicit assumptions or inferences the author is making , etc.	1985
Spache & Berg	It is the ability to read with analysis and judgment .	1984
Hafner	It is a thinking process that is improved by way of using language more constructively and clarifying concepts through discussion and questioning .	1974

As the table displays, various critical thinking skills have been highlighted in these definitions. However, in more recent definitions, the emphasis is on readers' being active and employing specific critical reading skills. "The current proliferation of electronically transmitted text in today's world" requires readers who critique and challenge texts to identify their author and source and the accuracy of information they convey (Brown, 1999, p. 19). As a result, readers, today, need to compose, interpret, and evaluate with an open mind. In Luke's (1992) terms, they need to "crack the code", know "how to construct meaning from text",

“how to use reading to achieve specific social purposes in particular social contexts”, and “how to use reading to critically appraise texts, ideologies and the world around them” in order not to be literally-defenseless (p. 18). Table 5 shows the ways in which critical reading is different from reading.

Table 5

Differences between reading and critical reading

	Reading	Critical Reading
Purpose	To get a basic grasp of the text	To form judgements about HOW a text works
Activity	Absorbing/understanding What a text SAYS	Analyzing/interpreting/evaluating What a text DOES and MEANS
Focus questions	What is the text saying? What information can I get out of it?	How does the text work? How is it argued? What are the choices made? The patterns that result? What kinds of reasoning and evidence are used? What are the underlying assumptions? What does the text mean?
Direction	WITH the text (taking for granted it is right)	AGAINST the text (questioning its assumptions and argument, interpreting meaning in context)
Response	Restatement, summary	Description, Interpretation, Evaluation

Note. Retrieved from
<https://www.utsc.utoronto.ca/twc/sites/utsc.utoronto.ca/twc/files/resourcefiles/CriticalReading.pdf>

According to Goodwyn and Stables (2004, p. 7), in order to become a critical reader, readers need to:

- consider the author’s purpose in writing the account,
- seek to identify the main claims the authors make in putting forward their argument,
- adopt a skeptical stance towards the author’ claims, checking whether they support convincingly what they assert,
- question whether the author has sufficient backing for the generalizations that they are making consider whether and how any values guiding the author’s work may affect what they claim. (as cited in Kaur, 2013, pp. 24-25)

In other words, the critical reader has to think critically and needs to be “an individualist, a reflective skeptic, a questioner, a doubter, an arguer, and an observing bystander” (Crismore, 2000, p. 6). Thus, developing, acquiring, and implementing a wide range of reading skills is vital.

a. Critical reading skills

Enhancing learners’ critical reading ability is a key component of reading instruction, that is why it is important to provide opportunities for students to read critically. However, the critical reading instruction is a complex process, for “thoughts about critical reading skills bring to mind an amorphous collection of sub skills ranging from classifying information to detecting propaganda” (Flynn, 1989, p. 664). Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy serves as a tangible instructional tool for educators since it comprises a set of lower and higher order skills, including interpreting, identifying logical fallacies, analyzing cause and effect, synthesizing claims, making inferences and predictions, evaluating, and problem solving. Hence, the Taxonomy has widely been used, particularly in the teaching of academic reading and writing with the aim of developing critical thinking and critical reading skills. Table 6 presents Surjosuseno and Watts’ (1999) comparison of critical reading skills with Bloom’s Taxonomy.

Table 6

Critical reading compared to Bloom’s Taxonomy

Critical Reading	Bloom’s Taxonomy
Assumption	Synthesis
Fact	Knowledge
Conclusion	Analysis
Supporting statement	Analysis
Premise	Analysis
Evidence	Analysis
Relevant and irrelevant	Evaluation
Consistent & inconsistent	Evaluation
Implication	Application
Argument	Evaluation
Point of view/interpretation	Comprehension

Note. Retrieved from <http://www.iier.org.au/qjer/qjer15/surjosuseno.html>

As the table indicates, critical reading mainly requires the use of higher-order thinking skills (Flynn, 1989). Wilson (2016) states that critical readers analyze, interpret, synthesize, evaluate ideas, and react, which suggests that they identify assumptions, detect bias, compare and contrast texts, and check the details regarding the text (i.e., the author and date of the text)

as they are reading. More specifically, critical readers are able to distinguish facts from opinions, identify the author's purpose or intent, recognize the author's tone, detect bias and propaganda, evaluate data and evidence, understand connotative language, and interpret figurative language (McWhorter, 2005).

Axelrod and Cooper (2013, p. 521) have recently offered a list of strategies (see Table 7) that readers can implement to develop these critical reading skills.

Table 7

Critical reading strategies

Critical Reading Strategies
Annotating: Recording your reactions to, interpretations of, and questions about a text as you read it
Taking inventory: Listing and grouping your annotations and other notes to find meaningful patterns
Outlining: Listing the text's main ideas to reveal how it is organized
Paraphrasing: Restating what you have read to clarify or refer to it
Summarizing: Distilling the main ideas or gist of a text
Synthesizing: Integrating into your own writing ideas and information gleaned from different sources
Contextualizing: Placing a text in its historical and cultural context
Exploring the significance of figurative language: Examining how metaphors, similes, and symbols are used in a text to convey meaning and evoke feelings
Looking for patterns of opposition: Inferring the values and assumptions embodied in the language of a text
Reflecting on challenges to your beliefs and values: Examining the bases of your personal responses to a text
Evaluating the logic of an argument: Determining whether an argument is well reasoned and adequately supported
Recognizing emotional manipulation: Identifying texts that unfairly and inappropriately use emotional appeals based on false or exaggerated claims
Judging the writer's credibility: Considering whether writers represent different points of view fairly and know what they are writing about

Through an explicit critical reading-focused instruction, learners can be trained on the use of these strategies and become critical readers.

b. Instruction of critical reading skills

Teaching critical reading skills is critical for higher education due to the new demands and challenges of technology and workplaces and the rapidly growing trends in international student mobility (Vdovina & Gaibisso, 2013); therefore, instruction designed to aid learners in thinking and reading critically is now widely deemed vital and applicable in different educational contexts (Halpern, 1999). Critical thinking, as one of the four Cs of the 21st century skills (i.e., communication, collaboration, critical thinking and problem solving, creativity)

(Riegel & Kozen, 2016), can be taught and learned through systematic instruction (Çubukçu, 2011a; Debela & Fang, 2008; Halpern, 1997; Halpern, 1999; Halpern, 2001; Patching, Kameenui, Carnine, Gersten, & Colvin, 1983; Schnell, 1978). Hence, critical thinking skills should be taught explicitly through critical thinking-focused instruction (Elder & Paul, 2010).

Instruction with a focus on critical thinking requires identification of specific critical reading and/or critical thinking skills, development of materials for teaching these skills, and measurement of learner achievement through specially designed instruments (Patching et al., 1983). Halpern (1997) points out that there is “a considerable body of evidence that thinking skills courses have positive effects that are transferable to a wide variety of situations” (p. 7). She advocates that “there are clearly identifiable and definable thinking skills that students can be taught to recognize and apply appropriately and if recognized and applied, students will be more effective thinkers” (p. 17). Similar to other skills, intellectual skills can be taught in different contexts through specific instruction with extensive practice, sufficient feedback, and adequate time to develop.

According to Halpern (2001), critical thinking is regarded as a process comprising many skills (e.g., synthesizing and analyzing information, identifying main ideas, citing evidence in support of a conclusion, and using probabilities), and skills can be improved with practice (Brookfield, 1987, as cited in Debela & Fang, 2008; Halpern, 2001; Halpern & Riggio, 2003; Willingham, 2008). Empirical evidence shows that explicit teaching of critical thinking/critical reading skills and strategies may enhance learners’ critical thinking/critical reading skills (e.g., Çubukçu, 2011b; Lestari, 2015; Nasrollahi, Krishnasamy, & Noor, 2015; Rajabi & Tabatabaee, 2015; Talebi & Talebi, 2015; Tengberg & Olin-Scheller, 2016; Yıldırım & Söylemez, 2018) and develop their reading comprehension abilities (Albeckay, 2014). To put it simply, critical thinking skills are classifiable, and they can be taught and learnt (Halpern, 1999; Halpern, 2001). Learners’ thinking skills are enhanced when they are taught how to apply critical thinking skills appropriately (Correia, 2006).

Duron, Limbach, and Waugh (2006) propose a five-step critical thinking framework that can be utilized to design instruction with a focus on critical thinking skills in any discipline. The first step in the framework, which is based on Bloom’s Taxonomy, is to determine the learning objectives and targeted learner behaviors that are appropriate for the chosen level (i.e., Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, Evaluation) of the taxonomy. The second step is to teach through questioning. Through the use of appropriate questions and appropriate questioning techniques (i.e., the use of convergent questions for Bloom’s lower levels of Knowledge, Comprehension, and Application, and the

use of divergent questions which apply to Bloom's higher levels of Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation), learners are challenged to think critically and take part in discussions.

The third step is to provide students with sufficient practice before assessing their performances. That is, all components of active learning, which are Information and Ideas, Experience, and Reflective Dialog, should be incorporated into the learning process. Information and Ideas involve all kinds sources learners access in or outside class. Experience includes activities that require doing, observing, and simulations. Finally, reflective dialog includes papers, journaling, and portfolios. The next step is to review, refine, and improve instructional strategies in order to ensure that instruction helps learners enhance their critical thinking skills. The last step is to provide learners with feedback and assessment of their learning to improve the quality of their learning and performance so that they can self-assess their future performances.

Willingham (2008) states that context and domain knowledge play a crucial role in the acquisition of critical thinking skills, and teaching metacognitive strategies help learners improve their critical thinking skills and think and read more scientifically. Teaching how to read critically involves teaching how to analyze and evaluate the arguments presented in text (Patching et al., 1983). Thus, active learning has a central place in the instruction of critical thinking skills since learners are required to be effectively engaged in critical thinking (Debela & Fang, 2008; Vdovina & Gaibisso, 2013). Learners are not passive recipients; on the contrary, they are active constructors of meaning.

Halpern's (1998) four-part model of instruction for critical thinking involves the instruction of the skills and dispositions for critical thinking, structure training, and metacognitive monitoring. Critical thinking not only requires using the right skill successfully and appropriately but also involves an attitude/disposition to determine when a specific skill is needed as well as the willingness to exert the required mental effort to apply the related skill. Structure training, as the third component of the model, involves training on cues for retrieval and aims to help learners recognize when a specific thinking skill is required both in familiar and unfamiliar contexts. Metacognition is defined as "what we know about what we know," (Halpern, 1999, p. 73). Thus, metacognitive monitoring enables learners to understand how they can use the knowledge about what they know to guide and enhance their thinking and learning processes. By modelling their own thinking process, that is, by making the thinking process visible, instructors may help their learners improve metacognitive monitoring skills.

In a more recent article, Halpern (2001, p. 272) provides a list of subskills which can be developed through critical thinking instruction. Table 8 shows these critical thinking skills.

Table 8

An example of a thinking skills list

An example of a thinking skills list
▪ reading with a high level of comprehension ▪ providing support for a conclusion ▪ understanding principles of likelihood and uncertainty ▪ using analogies ▪ reasoning about ratios ▪ recognizing the difference between correlation and cause ▪ combinatorial reasoning ▪ isolating and controlling variables ▪ evaluating evidence (often with emphasis on avoiding fallacies) ▪ planning a course of action ▪ modelling ▪ generating hypotheses ▪ using retention (memory) strategies ▪ making spatial representations ▪ restructuring problems ▪ using problem-solving heuristics ▪ seeking patterns ▪ incorporating anomalous data into a coherent framework ▪ recognizing regression to the mean

Instruction with a focus on critical thinking aims at developing these subskills of critical thinking. Thus, inductive and deductive reasoning, argument analysis, decision making, problem solving, likelihood and uncertainty, and hypothesis testing can be listed among the topics of critical thinking instruction (Halpern, 2001). Specific techniques that are used to teach these critical thinking skills include discussion, problem-based tasks, and the use of small groups (Brookfield, 1987, as cited in Debela & Fang, 2008). King (1994) proposes training learners on critical thinking by asking thought-provoking questions so that they are able to apply, predict, hypothesize, analyze, infer, use their prior knowledge, identify cause-effect relationships, compare and contrast, evaluate, refute arguments, take other perspectives, and synthesize ideas (as cited in Debela & Fang, 2008). According to Paul, Elder, and Bartell (1997), the most powerful teaching technique to teach critical thinking and problem solving skills is Socratic teaching, which is a process that focuses on asking probing questions without providing answers to those questions. Thus, Socratic questioning promotes high levels of thought in discussion and creates excellent opportunities to practice critical thinking skills (Meiramova, 2017).

In a nutshell, “developing critical thinkers is central to the mission of all educational institutions” (Elder & Paul, 2010, p. 39), and critical thinking instruction constitutes a

fundamental component of higher education (Halpern, 1999), specifically in equipping learners with critical reading skills in the foreign language classroom.

2.2.6. Models of reading

Different frameworks and models of reading have been proposed by many researchers to better elaborate on the processes and skills involved in the reading comprehension process (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Table 9 presents two ways of viewing models of reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 25).

Table 9

Two ways of viewing models of reading

Metaphorical models of reading	Specific models of reading
1. Bottom-up models	1. Interactive Compensatory Model
2. Top-down models	2. Word recognition model
3. Interactive models	3. Simple View of Reading Model
	4. Dual-coding Model
	5. Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model

Grabe and Stoller (2011) state that metaphorical models of reading, which emphasize bottom-up models, top-down models, and interactive models, particularly in L2 reading, are based upon the comprehension research that has been conducted since the 1970s. Metaphorical generalizations are represented in these models. Metaphorical models have unearthed reading comprehension and served useful purposes. Despite being the most prevalent models in literature, the drawback with regard to these models is that they do not reflect recent advances in reading research (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

Bottom-up models suggest that all reading takes place through “a mechanical pattern” (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 25), in a linear manner (Al-Noursi, 2014; De Debat, 2006; Grabe, 2009a; Hudson, 2007). *One second of reading model* developed by Gough (1972) is a prototypic bottom-up reading model (as cited in Calfee & Drum, 1978; Hudson, 2007; Pearson & Kamil, 1979; Redondo, 1997; Treiman, 2001; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). These models, in which reading is regarded as a hierarchical process (Davoudi & Moghadam, 2015; Liu, 2010), aim to explain what happens during a single second of the reading process (Calfee & Drum, 1978). Bottom-up models have their roots in cognitive and information-processing psychological views of reading (Hudson, 2007). That is, readers create a mental translation of the information provided in the text with interference from their background knowledge. The process, in these models, is regarded to be a piece-by-piece process (Grabe & Stoller, 2011);

that is why the model is called the bottom-up model. In the extreme view of this model, it is proposed that each word is processed letter-by-letter, and each sentence is processed sentence-by-sentence. The bottom-up processing of letters and words has a central place in the phonics approach to literacy instruction (De Debat, 2006; Treiman, 2001). However, this strict linear fashion in processing is not accepted entirely in reading research today (De Debat, 2006; Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

The information in the text, that is to say, “lower-level” reading processes are emphasized in bottom-up models (Hudson, 2007). These lower-level processes, including word recognition abilities and syntactic parsing, reflect a bottom-up approach to reading (Grabe, 2009a; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). Bottom-up models are also called data-driven models (Kim, 2009) since sophisticated knowledge of the language itself allows readers to manage data-driven operations (Kader, 2008). According to Sidek (2012), the bottom-up theory reflects Grammar Translation Method. The core instructional tasks that are carried out in reading classes designed in light of this theory involve highlighting keywords and phrases in texts, using word association to acquire target vocabulary, and using the dictionary to check meanings of words (Sidek, 2012).

In top-down models, which is also called conceptually-driven processing approach, on the other hand, it is proposed that readers build expectations about the information conveyed in the text and sample information from the text to confirm or reject the expectations while reading (Al-Noursi, 2014; Davoudi & Moghadam, 2015; De Debat, 2006; Grabe, 2009a; Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Hudson, 2007; Liu, 2010; Pearson & Kamil, 1979; Treiman, 2001; Sidek, 2012). It is assumed that readers generate these expectations through a general monitoring mechanism (i.e., an executive control processor). Reading instruction shaped by this theory requires learners to read a text and relate it to their personal experience, read different reading materials in class silently, and predict outcomes in a text. In top-down models (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1971, as cited in Kim, 2009), reading is not regarded as a process of grasping information from the text in a letter-by-letter, word-by-word manner. In contrast, it is perceived as a more active and challenging process in these models.

Inferencing and readers’ background knowledge are regarded as prominent features of top-down models (Davoudi & Moghadam, 2015; Grabe, 2009a; Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Kader, 2008). Readers bring their own knowledge and experiences to the reading process; they predict information, sample the text, and confirm their predictions while reading, which requires the implementation of higher-level processes as well as lower-level processes (Al-Noursi, 2014; Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Liu, 2010). In these models, reading is referred to as a psycholinguistic

game, it is neither a mechanical nor a linear activity (Goodman, 1976, as cited in Hudson, 2007). In this sense, Goodman emphasizes the effect of readers' previous experiences and expectations as well as the role of contextual and non-print cues (as cited in Calfee & Drum, 1978) in reading. The proponents of the whole language approach, which focuses on the meaning and purpose of written language rather than on individual letters and sounds, advocate that top-down processing plays a crucial role in reading (Treiman, 2001). To conclude, the top-down models suggest that reading is an active process of comprehending (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). However, a limited number of reading researchers actually support strong top-down views (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

As the final model in general metaphorical explanation, interactive models present an eclectic perspective taking beneficial ideas from a bottom-up perspective and combining them with key ideas from a top-down view. Hence, interactive models (Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, 1980, as cited in Kim, 2009) propose that reading involves elements from both bottom-up and top-down models which interact throughout the reading process (Pearson & Kamil, 1979). Recent research has shown that this eclectic approach to reading constitutes the primary ingredient of more fruitful reading instruction (Kader, 2008). The interactive models suggest an interaction of various processes, namely the interaction between text-driven and reader-driven processes, the interaction between the reader and the text/the author, and the interaction between the text information and the reader's world knowledge in the construction of meaning (Grabe, 1991). Hence, fast and efficient word recognition, background knowledge, inferencing, and predicting are all major components of reading comprehension (De Debat, 2006).

In these models, decoding and forming hypothesis about meaning are generated simultaneously (Pearson & Kamil, 1979). A number of compensatory levels of analysis are involved in reading, and upon deficiency at one level, appropriate skills that learners have at other levels can compensate to facilitate comprehension (Dubin, 1986; Grabe, 1991; Murtagh, 1989, as cited in Kim, 2009). To put it simply, higher processes can compensate for the deficiencies learners have in lower level processes. In sum, it is vital to effectively integrate both bottom-up and top-down processes for fluent reading to take place. Interactive models are emphasized in Communicative Language Teaching (Sidek, 2012), in which learners read topics of their current interest and exchange ideas with their peers, identify and discuss points of view in a text in groups, and present opinions on the articles they have read throughout the instruction process.

2.2.7. Teaching reading

Despite its own unique problems and challenges, scholars (see e.g., Grabe & Stoller, 2001; Grabe, 2009b; Hudson, 2007; Koda, 2005) have asserted that reading instruction can be enhanced in their recent publications. Classrooms are regarded as a crucial setting in the language learning process (Moeller & Catalona, 2015). Therefore, greater emphasis should be placed on reading instruction that highlights different purposes of reading, particularly real-life reading purposes (Richards, 2006). It is teachers' "instructional responsibility to view reading as the core language skill and then build the development of all language skills around effective reading instruction" (Anderson, 2012, p. 219). Through effective teaching of reading, students are more likely to become better, thus, more critical readers (Anderson 2008, 2009, as cited in Stoller, Anderson, Grabe, & Komiyama, 2013); thus, explicit reading instruction is of great importance (Grabe, 2009a). Figure 3 shows the crucial role reading has in language learning instruction.

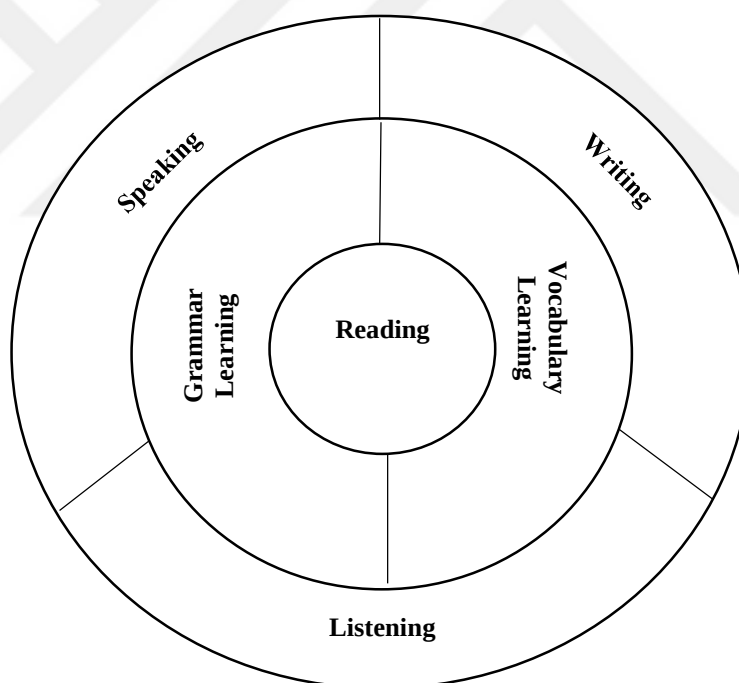


Figure 3. Placing reading at the core of language learning instruction (Anderson, 2012, p. 219).

Nation (2009) remarks that "meaning-focused input", "meaning-focused output", "language-focused learning", and "fluency development" need to be taken into consideration in the design and practice of a reading program (p. 1). To provide meaning-focused input, learners should be trained to read different genres (Grabe, 2009a) for different purposes, such

as reading to search for information (skimming and scanning), reading to learn, reading for fun, reading to integrate for information, reading to critique texts, and reading to write. The reading tasks and materials should be appropriate for learners' language proficiency levels. Thus, through reading, they can develop their language proficiency. For meaning-focused output, reading instruction should involve other skills as well. An integrated-skills approach in reading instruction helps learners improve not only their reading skills but also other language skills (Nation, 2009). With regard to language-focused learning, reading instruction should provide opportunities for the development of subskills of reading and the language features that facilitate reading comprehension, including phonemic awareness activities, phonics, spelling practice, tasks to expand learners' vocabulary, and grammar study. A wide range of reading strategies, including previewing, setting a purpose, predicting, asking questions, connecting new information to background knowledge, paying attention to text structure, guessing meaning from context, critiquing the text, and reflecting on the text should also be taught (Janzen & Stoller, 1998; Nation, 2009). "Reading is a strategic process in that a number of the skills and processes are needed on the part of the reader to anticipate text information, select key information, organize and mentally summarize information, monitor comprehension, repair comprehension breakdowns, and match comprehension output to reader goals" (Grabe, 2009a, p.15). Hence learners' reading skills should be enhanced through strategy training. Lastly, reading instruction should also aim to develop learners' reading fluency. The key to reading fluency is to read extensively (Grabe, 2009a; Hudson, 2007). Through reading a variety of texts and participating in activities, such as speed reading, repeated reading, paired reading, skimming, and scanning, learners not only enjoy reading and but also become more fluent readers (Nation, 2009).

In a similar vein, Stoller (2000) highlights key issues for instructors to help learners become skilled readers. To start with, to be able to improve their reading skills, learners should read extensively. Thus, instructors should plan their lessons accordingly, with great emphasis on reading. Second, materials that can enhance learners' reading skills should be used. In addition, learners should be encouraged to use various reading strategies in reading classes, including prediction, guessing, connecting contents, rereading with purposes, asking questions to a text, and summarizing. Furthermore, learners should be motivated to participate in class discussions as active readers. Using semiotic representations is important as well, for it is one of the ways through which students can reflect comprehension. Materials that reinforce the reading process should be utilized in class. That is why students should be able to choose reading texts and materials appealing to their interests. By studying different reading texts,

learners will also have a great opportunity to acquire new vocabulary items, which, at the same time, enhances their reading skills. In this challenging process, instructors should provide students with constructive feedback and scaffold them to connect their previous knowledge with newly-acquired knowledge. In light of these, when learners are also encouraged to set goals regarding their reading skills, they are more likely to become more capable readers.

Grabe and Stoller (2001) propose ten key implications for effective reading instruction to boost learners' academic reading skills:

1. Helping students build a large recognition vocabulary
2. Providing explicit language instruction to help students build a reasonable foundation in the L2
3. Addressing the range of skills needed for successful comprehension
4. Introducing students to discourse-organizing principles through the use of graphic representations and other practices
5. Helping students become strategic readers by focusing on metacognitive awareness and strategy learning
6. Giving students many opportunities to read so that they develop reading fluency and automaticity
7. Making extensive reading and broad exposure to L2 texts a routine practice, in and out of class
8. Motivating students to read
9. Integrating reading and writing instruction
10. Developing effective content-based instruction for authentic integrated-skills tasks. (p. 188)

Through instruction, learners first should be able to build a rich repertoire of vocabulary items at recognition level. They should then be provided with explicit instruction to gain foundation and the necessary skills in L2. Furthermore, different organizations of different discourses should be highlighted in reading classes. Emphasizing strategy use and an increased metacognitive awareness also contributes to effective reading skills. With an integrated-skills approach, instructors should also motivate learners by providing them with opportunities to read both inside and outside the classroom in order to help learners to gain automaticity in L2 reading and become more fluent readers. In this way, the expected outcomes of an effective reading instruction can be attained. With regard to designing a reading curriculum, Grabe (2009a; 2009b) suggests that some crucial points need to be taken into account. First, the instruction of major skills should be integrated through extensive reading practice and exposure to a wide range of interesting and appealing materials that are used meaningfully. Learners, in addition, may be provided with some degree of choice over the reading materials to be used in classes. In addition, reading lessons should be structured around pre-reading, during-reading, and post reading activities.

Overall, it can be stated that “the goal for reading instruction, at a general level, is to incorporate key component skills and knowledge into a reading curriculum” (Grabe, 2009b, p. 453). Through promising instructional practices in reading classes, learners are more likely to become capable and skilled L2 readers. When they are enabled to experience comprehension success through extended opportunities for reading, learners have higher levels of reading motivation (Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Hudson, 2007; Nation, 2009), and, as a result, they are able to become critical readers by developing their critical literacy skills.

2.3. Critical Literacy

The term *critical* has derived from the Greek word *kriticos*, and it means “the ability to argue and judge” (Luke, 2011, p. 3). To be able to argue and judge is regarded as the core component of reflective thinking. Dewey (1933) defines reflective thinking, which is at the heart of critical thinking, as “the kind of thinking that consists in turning a subject over in the mind and giving it a serious consecutive consideration” (p. 3, as cited in Stapleton, 2001), and he states that the primary purpose of education is “learning to think” (as cited in Halpern, 1997, p. 5). In a similar vein, Norris and Ennis (1989) define critical thinking as “reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused upon deciding what to believe and do” (p. 3, as cited in Stapleton, 2001). In a more comprehensive definition proposed by Scriven and Paul, critical thinking is defined as “the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action” (quoted in Foundation for Critical Thinking, 2009, para. 2). Halpern (1997) suggests a “working” definition of critical thinking with an emphasis on the outcomes of critical thinking: “Critical thinking is the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed - the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task” (p. 4). Overall, critical thinking skills can be defined as higher-order thinking skills (Halpern, 2001; Haskins, 2006).

According to the American Philosophical Association Delphi Consensus definition, “critical thinking is the process of purposeful, self-regulatory judgment. This process gives reasoned consideration to evidence, context, conceptualizations, methods, and criteria” (Facione, 1990, p. 2). The core cognitive skills of critical thinking comprise “interpretation”,

“analysis”, “evaluation”, “inference”, “explanation”, and “self-regulation” (Facione, 1990, p. 8). Figure 4 shows the core cognitive skills of critical thinking.

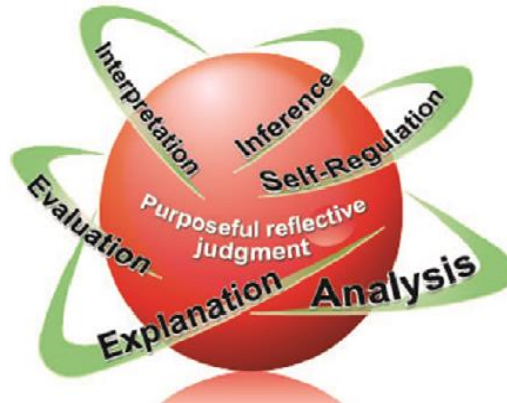


Figure 4. Core cognitive skills of critical thinking (Facione, 2015, p. 5).

Interpretation is mainly related to the sub-skills of “categorization”, “decoding significance”, and “clarifying meaning” (Facione, 2015, p. 5). Multiple sources of data and multiple perspectives, that is, “a wide variety of experiences, situations, data, events, judgments, conventions, beliefs, rules, procedures, or criteria” are required for interpretation (Facione, 2015, p. 5). Critical thinking also requires an analysis of ideas and arguments, which can be defined as identifying “the intended and actual inferential relationships among statements, questions, concepts, descriptions, or other forms of representation intended to express belief, judgment, experiences, reasons, information, or opinions” (Facione, 2015, p. 5). Evaluation means assessing the credibility of these statements or representations. Prior to inferencing, which is related to drawing conclusions, forming hypotheses, and considering relevant information, reliable sources of data need to be identified so as to reach consequences. Explanation involves a coherent presentation of justifications and well-reasoned arguments. Thus, methods and results need to be described, procedures need to be justified, and a defense of explanations of events or points of view need to be provided.

To Facione (2015), the most remarkable cognitive skill is self-regulation as “it allows strong critical thinkers to improve their own thinking” (p. 7). In his terms, it is “the application of critical thinking to itself” (p. 7). In this sense, it is the most comprehensive critical thinking skill which enables the critical thinker to monitor and correct an interpretation offered, examine and correct previously drawn inferences, and review and reformulate explanations. On the whole, critical thinking is an umbrella term comprising higher order thinking processes, such as reflection, inference, and synthesizing information, which allows individuals to make reasoned judgments (Beaumont, 2010). In light of these, it could be stated that

the ideal thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit. (Facione, 1990, p. 3)

In order for a better understanding of critical thinking, it is vital to explore the three broad perspectives of critical thinking that exist in literature, which are the critical thinking skills dimension, the criticality movement, and the critical pedagogy movement (Davies & Barnett, 2015, as cited in Wilson, 2016). The skills perspective adopts a structural and pragmatic approach. Therefore, it focuses on the analysis and argumentation skills. Halpern (1997) notes that a skills-based approach to critical thinking (e.g., Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy, Numrich's (2006) Sequence of critical thinking tasks, Facione's (2015) Core Critical Thinking Skills) is required to simplify the complexity of thinking, and that breaking critical thinking into manageable pieces, that is skills, is essential for teaching and learning.

The second broad perspective on critical thinking is the criticality movement, which has impacted the work of social constructivist theorists (Davies & Barnett, 2015, as cited in Wilson, 2016). Although knowledge, skills, and reasoning are regarded as fundamental in this perspective, the main focus is on developing critical character or critical disposition. Having critical disposition requires being open to new ideas, having the will to be well-informed and use credible sources, listening to others and considering other points of view, and, finally, taking a position and defending it. Thus, improving learners' critical thinking capacity is crucial since they will be more independent and inquiring individuals with improved critical thinking skills. In this sense, self-reflection and self-regulation are central to this view of criticality since learners are not passive recipients. Rather than simply receiving meaning, learners construct meaning as they read. That is why learners need to be taught not only how to read but also how to think critically and reflectively.

The final approach to critical thinking is the critical pedagogy movement (Davies & Barnett, 2015, as cited in Wilson, 2016). In order to be able to become activists in society, learners need to be aware of the powerful social forces that oppress and marginalize others. Similar to the skills perspective and the criticality movement, this perspective also emphasizes the need for reasoning and analysis to critique the dominant ideologies in texts and the ways discourses serve to privilege the powerful (Wallace, 2003).

Critical thinking is an essential skill in the 21st century (Halpern, 1997; Yıldırım & Söylemez, 2018); therefore, "we should not continue to think of literacy in its narrowest form

-word recognition and literal comprehension- but should make a commitment to the development of these higher level skills” (Schnell, 1978, p. 35). Critical thinking involves skills of “interpretation”, “analysis”, “inferencing”, “evaluation”, “explanation”, and “self-regulation” (Facione, 1990, p. 8), and it is vital for education and academic success (Wilson, 2016), so the primary goal of education is to equip learners with these skills (Çubukçu, 2011a) to enable them to become critically literate individuals.

The term *literacy*, however, has been defined as a purely cognitive and linguistic activity for decades. That is to say, socio-cultural contexts in which literacy is embedded have long been neglected. From a psycholinguistic perspective, reading is defined as “psycholinguistic guessing game”; however, from a critical literacy perspective, reading may be redefined “as a mode of second-guessing texts, discourses, and social formations” (Luke & Freebody, 1999, p. 3). In a skills-oriented approach to literacy, literacy has been defined as a set of decontextualized and discrete skills that are established and can be applied anywhere after being taught as a prepackaged set (Cho, 2015). In psychological and cognitive frameworks, it is stated that the literacy taught in schools is what students need and are required to use throughout their lives (Carrington & Luke, 1997, as cited in Cho, 2015). Thus, students are expected to master merely the basic skills, including encoding and decoding. This approach to literacy is referred to as an autonomous model, in which independent meanings of texts divorced from social contexts are highlighted (Street, 1984, as cited in Cho, 2015). This ‘skills’ conception of learning literacy is still the dominant conception in governmental and policy discourses (Curry, 2003, as cited in Cho, 2015). Despite the fact that critical literacy emerged in the 1970s as an alternative to the autonomous model of literacy (Ko, 2010), educational policy frameworks in many countries still portray a skills approach to literacy today (Rassool, 1999, as cited in Cho, 2015).

The ideology which lies behind different forms of literacy impacts the literacy curriculum and instruction. Based on different theoretical perspectives, notions of literacy are classified as functional literacy, cultural literacy, progressive literacy, and critical literacy in Manning’s (1999) ‘Literacy-as’ Framework for Instructional Practice (as cited in Ko, 2010; Ko, 2013a). Table 10 provides elaborate information on ideology purpose, literacy curriculum, and instruction to distinguish critical literacy from other literacy forms (Ko, 2010, p. 17).

Table 10

Literacy-as Framework

Perspectives on literacy	Literacy as	Ideology purpose	Curriculum	Literacy instruction
Functional Literacy	Skills	-Ideology of the marketplace -Production of skilled workers	-Prepackaged -Restrictive scope and sequence	-Individualistic -Behaviorist -Competitive
Cultural Literacy	Morality	-Cultural stamping of values through study of 'good' literature	-Closed -Elitist	-Authoritarian -Humanist -Universalizing
Progressive Literacy	Personal growth	-Personal growth -Focus on individual -Focus on personal expression	-Open and pluralistic	-Student centered -Liberal
Critical Literacy	Social transformation	- Knowledge, culture, schooling, language are all inscribed with power and are not neutral but marked by vested interests and hidden agendas	-Everyday world as text -Analytic tools to deconstruct these texts	-Situated -Interrogated -Counter-hegemonic

As presented in the table, in functional literacy, literacy is viewed as skills, in cultural literacy, it is viewed as morality, and in progressive literacy, literacy is considered as personal growth. In critical literacy, however, literacy is regarded as a social transformation. Therefore, critical literacy suggests unveiling the hidden agendas. This form of literacy requires an interrogated, situated, and counterhegemonic form of instruction, in which everyday world is accepted as a text, and learners are equipped with analytic tools to be able to deconstruct texts. Critical literacy enables learners to question “the who, what, why, and how” of the creation and interpretation of texts, that is, to go beyond the surface meaning of a text (Lohrey, 1998, p. 9).

Literacy, then, cannot be merely defined as the traditional instruction of reading and writing skills. As Park (2012) puts it, “reading is not a set of free-floating skills, independent

of social contexts and devoid of ideologies” (p. 631). In contrast, the social construction of reading, writing, and text production within political contexts should be emphasized because these all should be regarded as a social and critical practice (Luke & Freebody, 1997, as cited in Park, 2012). In other words, economic, cultural, political, and institutional structures in society should be deeply analyzed (Lankshear & McLaren, 1993, as cited in Bishop, 2014). Critical literacy is more than decoding letters and words, that is, it is a way of interacting with information presented in texts. It enables learners to engage with various sources of information and encourages them to question “the social contexts, purposes, and possible effects that they have on their own lives” questioning “their opinions, biases, and perceptions of reality” in comparison with others’ (Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999, p. 6). Critical literacy may have multiple meanings and take different forms in actual practice reflecting the ideas, approaches, and pedagogies it derives from (Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999).

2.3.1. Conceptualization of critical literacy

Critical literacy has its roots in western thought and social activism, for individual consciousness and self-awareness are regarded as the core concepts to foster democratic social change becoming critical consumers and users of information (Beck, 2005). The term “critical literacy” has been coined by social critical theorists to tackle social injustice and inequalities in society. These theorists assert that unequal power relationships are ubiquitous, and those that are more powerful determine the truths which will be privileged (Beck, 2005). However, critical researchers employing different theoretical frameworks propose different definitions for critical literacy (Luke & Woods, 2009).

Luke (2012) defines critical literacy as “the use of the technologies of print and other media of communication to analyze, critique and transform the norms, rule systems and practices governing the social fields of everyday life” (p. 5). Coffey (2008) defines critical literacy as reading texts actively and reflectively to have a better understanding of power, inequality, and injustice in human relationships. In this sense, critical literacy is a lens to challenge societal norms. In Jones’ (2006) terms, “critical literacy is like a pair of eyeglasses that allow one to see beyond the familiar and comfortable; it is an understanding that language practices and texts are always informed by ideological beliefs and perspectives whether conscious or otherwise” (p. 67, as cited in Kuo, 2014). With a critical literacy approach to reading, readers are able to read underneath, behind, and beyond texts. Being aware of the fact that texts are biased, they also explore alternative readings. Plus, they seek to understand the authors’ beliefs and values and work for social change and justice (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004a).

In order to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of critical literacy, Lewison, Flint, and Van Sluys (2002) propose a synthesis of four dimensions in their review of professional literature on the definitions of critical literacy. In the first dimension, which is disrupting the commonplace, the focus is on interrogating texts by posing questions about how the text is trying to position readers. The second dimension is interrogating multiple viewpoints. That is, to become critically literate, readers should seek to understand texts not only from their own perspectives but also from others' viewpoints. Focusing on sociopolitical issues comprises the third dimension. Readers should challenge unequal power relationships and explore the relationship between language and power. The final dimension is taking action to promote social justice. Hence, in order to transform the world, readers reflect and act. McLaughlin and DeVoogd (2004a) suggest the following principles to understand the essence of critical literacy is:

- Critical literacy focuses on issues of power and promotes reflection, transformation, and action;
- Critical literacy focuses on the problem and its complexity;
- Techniques that promote critical literacy are dynamic and adapted to the contexts in which they are used;
- Examining multiple perspectives is an important aspect of critical literacy. (pp. 54-55)

However, different interpretations of critical literacy exist in literature. Brown (1999) points out that these interpretations relate to:

- the different theoretical bases drawn upon
- the histories of the different educational sectors the term is applied to
- the extent to which it is seen as relating to language and text, or more broadly to total pedagogy
- the extent to which learners should be encouraged towards social or political action. (p. 5)

Some scholars (e.g., Luke, 2011) state that critical literacy theory has emerged from Paulo Freire's work, from which empowerment and/or related feminist ideologies have derived. Critical literacy draws from the Frankfurt School of Social Critical Theory that aims at transforming social inequalities and injustices in society (Kellner, 1993) and emphasizes the critical role of individuals as agents of social change (Beck, 2005). Critical literacy and critical pedagogy unite through Paulo Freire's (1972) work (Beck, 2005; Bishop, 2014; Fajardo, 2015), in which he introduced Brazilian and Chilean peasants the vocabularies meaningful to their daily experiences in order to teach them how to read. With this problem-posing pedagogy, Freire incorporated a socio-political dimension into literacy. The words were used as stimuli

to help the peasants critically reflect on what the oppressive realities surrounding them were, and how they could transform their worlds by freeing themselves from this oppression (Fajardo, 2015).

In this revolutionary educational philosophy, critical literacy was defined as “the capacity to analyze, critique and transform social, cultural and political texts and contexts” (as cited in Luke, 2012, p. 219). Thus, critical social theorists aim to reveal the oppressive and unjust relationships traditional forms of schooling lead to and criticize these traditional models of education, in which the teacher is deemed as the possessor and transmitter of knowledge, and learners are regarded as receivers of information. In critical pedagogy, however, learners being equipped with critical literacy skills are able to critically interpret messages and challenge the power relations conveyed through those messages. For those who are influenced by Freire, education and knowledge have power solely when learners are assisted to “liberate themselves from oppressive social conditions” (Peyton & Crandall, 1995, as cited in Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999, p. 2). Through critical literacy, learners can construe the issues which drive society. As a result, they can “empower themselves” and “take social action” (Auerbach, 1999; Brown, 1999; Hammond & Macken Horarik, 1999; Hull, 2000, as cited in Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999, p. 2).

Different from traditional pedagogy, learners and their experiences are considered to be the sources of knowledge, and learning is regarded as the negotiation of perceptions of the world, which is realized through interaction and mediated by language and the world (Freire, 1970; Nieto, 2002, as cited in Godley & Minnici, 2008). Being provided with the opportunity to explore and construct knowledge, critically literate learners question the societal issues and institutions, including family, poverty, education, equity, and equality, and interrogate the structures that determine the widely-accepted norms as well as the ways different members of society experience these norms. As Freire (1993) remarks, “knowledge emerges only through invention and re-invention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry human beings pursue in the world, with the world and with each other” (p. 72). Through this interrogation, learners become more aware of the fact that active citizenship in a democracy is accompanied by some responsibilities and rights, including being a critically literate individual (Beck, 2005).

Other scholars assert that notions of critical literacy have its roots in Genre Theory and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which suggests that a knowledge of language and text choices made to achieve certain social purposes should be incorporated into language learning. That is to say, language and text are used with a particular aim, and critical literacy

is a means of identifying the purpose of the writer/speaker and for using the language for social purposes.

Finally, to some other scholars, the concept of critical literacy derives from the work of critical discourse theorists, who advocate that language is not a neutral commodity. Critical literacy is regarded as a means for examining how language and power relationships interact. In this approach to critical literacy, ‘critical language awareness’ is applied to all four macro-skills in language learning as a broader notion (Brown, 1999). In other words, the connection between literacy and power is explored (Lankshear & McLaren, 1993, as cited in Fajardo, 2015). Literacy, from a critical perspective, is regarded as “the process of becoming conscious of one’s experience as historically constructed within specific power relations” (Anderson & Irvine, 1993, p. 82, as cited in Fajardo, 2015). Critically literate readers challenge “the rule of text: the perception that a text is authoritative and final, and an underlying belief that suppresses the reader’s license to challenge, question, deconstruct or rewrite the assumptions, beliefs, ideologies, concepts embedded, implicitly or not, within the perspective of the text” (Bourke, 2008, p. 309, as cited in Fajardo, 2015). Thus, they resist and reconstruct in an interrogative manner. In sum, through critical literacy, readers are able to explore personal, sociopolitical, economic, and intellectual border identities (Bishop, 2014).

Critical literacy reflects a poststructuralist and postmodern view of reality and literacy in terms of textual interpretation (Meacham & Buendia, 1999, as cited in Kuo, 2014). To put it more explicitly, sites of mediation through continually reflexive actions, knowledge, and reality are unstable or subjective, and multiple interpretative possibilities may be involved in textual interpretation. As Johnston (1999) points out, “in the postmodern world, plurality and difference are actively encouraged and celebrated” (p. 270, as cited in Kuo, 2014). That is why analyzing and understanding a text requires understanding multiple meaning systems, and this emphasizes the larger discourses of power that inform instructional assumptions. As a result, learners’ investigating discourses of power in interpreting various texts is critical (Kuo, 2014). To conclude, all these different theoretical foundations have significantly contributed to the conceptualization and forming of the particular notions of critical literacy. Therefore, critical literacy practice may be regarded as an integration of all these different perspectives (Brown, 1999).

With regard to adult literacy, critical literacy is often linked with ‘critical pedagogy’ and ‘critical practice’. Hence, the empowerment of learners and the alleviation of disadvantage are emphasized. In this sense, critical literacy is mainly concerned with, for instance, how differences regarding culture, race, and gender are interpreted (Dooley, Exley, & Poulus,

2016). Critical literacy reflects a questioning and an analytic stance (Roberge, 2013); therefore, critical literacy aims to explore the non-neutral facet of language, examine overt or covert power relations in texts, identify multiple viewpoints and voices in texts, and address readers' belief system while responding to a text (Behrman, 2006; Lesley, 2004; Luke, 2000; McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004a). Text and literacy as social practices are the central notions in critical literacy (Green, 2001). "Traditionally in reading, the emphasis has been on the author's power, but in critical literacy, readers who are text critics actively exert their power by questioning the author's message and its hidden implications" (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004b, p. 151). Through critical literacy, learners, as social agents, are scaffolded to question the basic assumptions of society, improve their language skills, and understand themselves (Lewis, 2001; Morrell, 2008; Parker, 2013, as cited in Kuo, 2014).

In brief, poststructuralist theory, feminist theory, and critical race theory, and critical linguistics have all played a vital role in the development of critical literacy (Luke, 2011; Luke, 2012). Although different approaches to critical literacy exist (Pennycook, 2001, as cited in Abednia & Izadinia, 2013), all aim at "engaging with the possibilities that the technologies of writing and other modes of inscription offer for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement" (Luke & Freebody, 1997, p. 1, as cited in Abednia & Izadinia, 2013).

2.3.2. Significance of critical literacy

Today, there is recognition of a need for more critical readers who take critical stances (Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999; Mór, 2007; Myers, 2006). Luke and Woods (2009) assert that critical literacy "offers an important strategic, practical alternative for teachers and students to reconnect literacy with everyday life, and with an education that entails debate, argument, and action over social, cultural and economic issues that matter" (p. 9). Due to the society's evolving into a more globalized world, there is now a greater demand for educational settings where learners, as the workforce of the future, are taught higher-order skills to be able to think and process at various levels, including analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and interpretation (Park, 2011).

Critically literate readers read "against the grain", which helps them establish an equal status in the reader-author relationship, understand the author's motivation for writing the text, see how the text is utilized by the author to impact their understanding of the text, understand that the author's perspective is just one of the perspectives, not the only one, and, lastly, develop their own independent perspectives to become active users of information presented in texts (Molden, 2007, p. 51). By reading and understanding texts, taking multiple angles into

account, and developing independent perspectives, readers become active users of information in texts (Molden, 2007). Thus, instead of passively replicating or reproducing the ideas conveyed in texts, learners should discuss the workings of language and power in the classroom so as to enquire and change the oppressing systems and “imagine better and more socially just ways of being in the world” (Gee, 2002, p. 190, as cited in Godley & Minnici, 2008).

Critical literacy is a vital skill in today’s world, particularly in the field of language and literacy teaching (Brown, 1999). Wallace (2003) states that

understanding a text linguistically and conceptually must be a starting point for all reading positions, but readers may want and need to respond to texts in more diverse and complex ways than is generally acknowledged. All learners, whether reading in a first, second or other language, are, from the earliest stages, potentially both making meaning from texts, and engaging in critique. (p. 3)

Today’s students are exposed to and interact with a wider range of information sources owing to globalization and internationalization. Therefore, learners need to comprehend with a critical edge rather than reading academic texts for comprehension only (McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004a; Molden, 2007; Janks, 2012; Janks, 2014). It is important to engage learners in critical literacy, foster their reading from a critical stance, and help them become critically aware (Kaur, 2013) since critical literacy provides an active and a challenging approach to reading. Engaging in critical literacy leads to active, open-minded, and strategic readers. In other words, readers are able to view texts critically from multiple perspectives (Ko, 2013a; Ko, 2013b). Such readers can easily grasp the particular perspective(s) and particular purpose(s) while critically analyzing and interpreting the information presented in texts (McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004a). That is to say, critical literacy helps learners expand their reasoning, seek multiple perspectives, and become active thinkers. Reading with a critical stance provides readers a new dimension of understanding (McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004a) because critical literacy practices encourage learners

to use language to question the everyday world, to interrogate the relationship between language and power, to analyze popular culture and media, to understand how power relationships are socially constructed, and to consider actions that can be taken to promote social justice.... These practices are substantively different from what are commonly referred to as *critical thinking* approaches. Although critical thinking approaches have focused more on logic and comprehension, critical literacies have focused on identifying social practices that keep dominant ways of understanding the world and unequal power relationships in place. (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2015, p. 3)

Anstey and Bull (2006) highlight the dangers learners will encounter if they are not taught how to read critically because “they can be marginalized, discriminated against, or unable to take an active and informed place in life. In short, the student will not be in control of his or her social future” (p. 37, as cited in Kaur, 2013). Reading critically helps individuals become active and informed citizens as a requirement of the emergence of new literacies in today’s digital age and learners’ changing literacy needs. Thus, critical literacy has a central place in pedagogy design to foster learners’ becoming critical consumers of the information they interact with (Kaur, 2013), and it constitutes an essential component of language teaching.

As has been previously stated, providing learners with critical literacy perspectives allows them to examine the sources of texts, biases, and purposes hidden in texts, and challenge the legitimacy of the information presented in texts. Through critical literacy practices, learners become capable of assessing societal messages about attitudes, values, and power relationships conveyed through the text. In this way, they are also able to reflect upon their own reactions, biases, and realities in relation to the text, which will result in a more complete understanding of texts (Brown, 1999; Lohrey, 1998).

All in all, “it is imperative for educators, students, citizens and all of the people of the world to understand how to read the word and their world and enact critical literacy practices” (Gregory & Cahill, 2009, p. 13), for critical literacy is imperative to human action and social transformation in today’s dynamic and constantly evolving world (Beck, 2005). In order to prepare learners for this world, saturated with a lot of information, educators are obliged to take action. Language classrooms are of critical importance because critical literacy is mainly about the transformative power of language. Through critical approaches to language instruction, instructors can help learners explore the ways in which language can reproduce or challenge existing social power structures (Godley & Minnici, 2008). Luke (2004, p. 87) points out the major role English educators play in the teaching of critical literacy: “We (English educators) risk becoming a profession involved in the systematic production and distribution of particular brands of linguistic capital without an ongoing critical appraisal of the force and consequences of our actions” (as cited in Godley & Minnici, 2008). In a nutshell, critical literacy is a core phenomenon in today’s language teaching and learning contexts.

2.3.3. Instruction of critical literacy

Critical literacy has gained much importance in literacy education for the past few decades replacing the narrow skills-based model of learning to read and write, specifically in the western countries (Behrman, 2006; Ko & Wang, 2009). Critical literacy is the “new basic” today to navigate a text “in a Knowledge Society” and “media-saturated world”,

(http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/literacynumeracy/inspire/research/critical_literacy.pdf). It is a vital skill to enable learners to survive in the information-dense 21st century as they interact with more information sources in the Internet age than decades ago. Thus, one of the primary aims of education should be to teach learners how social relations and power are influenced by and influence language and literacy.

Today, learners encounter and focus more on real-world issues, texts, or events, and problem-solving through classroom tasks (Moeller & Catalona, 2015), which provides significant implications for education because teachers are agents of change and, therefore, should promote language learning through the use of public pedagogy and critical literacy. In Ontario Ministry of Education (2004), it has been stated that

Students today experience a constant stream of ideas and information - online, in print, and through electronic games and mass media. As they move into the junior grades, they encounter an ever-widening range of texts. They need skills to determine where to direct their attention and how to interpret messages and use them appropriately. (p. 9)

In light of these, the proponents of critical literacy advocate that learners need to be educated not only in basic literacy but also in critical literacy so as to be able to analyze various forms and types of texts they encounter, ask questions regarding those texts, examine, compare and contrast multiple viewpoints, take a stand, and identify both the issues and relationships which are important to them and their future lives.

Freebody and Luke (1990) suggest that becoming fully literate requires a number of skills. In addition to being able to decode print and visual material, learners need to interact with a text. In other words, they need to take meaning from the text and bring meaning to the text. Critical literacy not only contributes to the development of learners' basic literacy skills, namely, decoding, predicting, and summarizing, but also to their becoming critical consumers of the information they are exposed to (Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999). Thus, learners need to utilize literacy for various social purposes, and they need to master the genres which are required to accomplish these purposes. Lastly, they need to be able to read critically, question whose interests are at work in texts, and evaluate the potential social effects of these texts. Therefore, literacy education should involve teaching how power impacts learners' lives and exploring the issues of control over many practices, including the educational practices (Cho, 2015; Luke, 2012).

Being influenced by critical theories, critical literacy is “an overtly political orientation to teaching and learning and to the cultural, ideological, and sociolinguistic content of the curriculum” (Luke, 2012, p. 5). It emphasizes that learners should be provided with a context

to construct and interrogate theories of knowledge, and literacy should be taught as a set of skills, dispositions, and strategies which enable learners to challenge text and life (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004a) since written language is “a tool for people to analyze the division of power and resources in their society and transform discriminatory structures” (Blackledge, 2000, p. 18, as cited in Coffey, 2008). Learners possessing critical literacy skills are able to examine biases and the agendas that are hidden within texts (Coffey, 2008).

Literacy, from a critical perspective, is defined as “a political battleground” (Bishop, 2014, p. 51). As Beck (2005) points out, “literacy is an act of knowing that empowers individuals because through it, individuals simultaneously discover their voices and their ethical responsibilities to use literacy for the improvement of their world” (p. 384), and a text is regarded as a vehicle which individuals utilize to communicate by using the shared codes and conventions of society (Robinson & Robinson, 2003, as cited in Coffey, 2008). Hence, education with a critical literacy approach emphasizes the role of language as a social practice and aims to examine the role text and discourse play in maintaining or transforming the social orders and leading to inequalities among individuals based on social categories, including gender, race, class, ethnicity, and religion (Janks, 2014). In other words, critical literacy “equips students to engage in a dialogue with texts and society instead of silently consuming other people’s words” (Christensen, 2006, p. 393, as cited in Thomas, Hall, & Piazza, 2010). Luke and Dooley (2011) state that critical literacy is “a pedagogic act of cultural and political power that is dedicated to the pursuit of human freedom, equality and emancipation” (as cited in Dooley, Exley, & Poulus, 2016, p. 1). Godley and Minnici (2008) also point out that

language and literacy instruction grounded in critical language pedagogy can help students become more aware of the language choices that they make as readers, writers, speakers, and listeners and can teach students to be more critical citizens within a democratic society. (p. 342)

That is why critical literacy has become a crucial component of curriculum in the countries where it is deemed to be significant. To illustrate, the five key concepts stated in the Ontario Curriculum regarding critical literacy are as follows:

1. All texts are constructions. What is written is the product of many decisions and determining factors. Much of our view of reality is based on messages that have been constructed in this way, with the author’s attitudes, interpretations and conclusions already built into the text.
2. All texts contain belief and value messages. Whether oral, print or visual media, texts contain messages which reflect the biases and opinions of their authors/creators; whether intentionally manipulative or not, this means that no text can be neutral or value free.

3. Each person interprets messages differently. Demographic factors such as age, culture, gender and socio-economic status as well as prior experience and knowledge play a role in how we interpret a message.
4. Texts serve different interests. Most media messages are created for profit or to persuade, but all texts are produced intentionally for a purpose. These interests can be commercial, ideological or political.
5. Each medium develops its own “language” in order to position readers/viewers in certain ways. Whether TV program, website or novel, each medium creates meaning differently and each has distinctive techniques, conventions and aesthetics. (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2008, pp. 34-36, Retrieved from http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/literacynumeracy/inspire/research/critical_literacy.pdf)

In line with these key concepts, in the Ontario Science Curriculum for Grades 9 and 10, critical literacy is defined as

the capacity for a particular type of critical thinking that involves looking beyond the literal meaning of a text to determine what is present and what is missing, in order to analyze and evaluate the text’s complete meaning and the author’s intent. Critical literacy goes beyond conventional critical thinking by focusing on issues related to fairness, equity, and social justice. Critically literate students adopt a critical stance, asking what view of the world the text advances and whether they find this view acceptable. (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 38)

As stated in the Ontario Curriculum, there is a purpose in the construction of all texts, and as an active act, reading is the interaction between the text and a reader who seeks for meaning, asks questions, and challenges assumptions. Therefore, a critical lens is needed to be able to analyze the unique language and understand multiple built-in messages in texts conveyed through emerging and evolving new communication technologies. However, this critical lens does not require a negative stance. In Vasquez’s (2004) terms, critical literacy “does not necessarily involve taking a negative stance; rather, it means looking at an issue or topic in different ways, analyzing it, and hopefully being able to suggest possibilities for change and improvement” (p. 30). Learners who acquire critical literacy and comprehend from a critical stance can deepen their understanding, seek multiple perspectives, expand their reasoning, and become active thinkers (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004a; McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004b). In this sense, critical literacy education is of paramount importance.

Though various approaches to critical literacy education have been proposed, critical pedagogic and text analytic are the mainly viewed types of practice in critical literacy approach. In critical pedagogic approaches, conventional literacy is regarded as a technology producing learners who passively reproduce the dominant ideology and serve the interests of

the dominant ideology. By helping learners re-name the social problems they encounter in their lives and take action to redress them, these approaches reflect the instructional method of Paulo Freire (Freire, 1972; Freire & Macedo, 1987). In critical pedagogy, the focus is on dialogic interaction (Luke & Woods, 2009). In text analytic approaches to critical literacy, however, learners engage with texts in terms of grammatical structures, ideological and discursive contents, and ideological conditions of text production and consumption in given social fields (see e.g., Janks, 2000). Learners grasp how language and text are implicated in relations of power, and how they can take action to transform societies by producing their own texts through these approaches (Dooley, Exley, & Poulus, 2016). That is, they learn specific ways of analyzing, parsing, and constructing texts (Luke & Woods, 2009).

Critical literacy is directly connected to the study of language and text, namely to reading. Therefore, critical literacy is considered to be an important element in the acquisition of the academic literacy, which is a prerequisite for academic success (Cummins, 2001, as cited in Cox & Assis-Peterson, 1999). Cummins (2001) asserts that critical literacy, as a vital component of academic literacy, is an important requirement for learners' academic success, particularly in language education (as cited in Cox & Assis-Peterson, 1999). In other words, critical literacy is an important element in learners' acquiring the academic literacy, which is necessary for academic achievement.

According to Van Sluys (2005), critical literacy is not an instructional strategy in literacy education, it is a philosophical belief in which "students are language users, not language recipients," and learn through language to co-construct their worlds with others (p. 2). Similarly, McLaughlin and DeVoogd (2004a) state that challenging texts and life are incorporated into critical literacy, which is a way of thinking and being. Therefore, teachers should establish a learning atmosphere which fosters discussions and debates on issues that are relevant to learners' lives (Beck, 2005). Giroux (1987) points out the importance of schools as potential sites where learners can be taught to interrogate social conditions (as cited in Beck, 2005). Janks (2012) also states that

in an age where the production of meaning is being democratized by Web 2.0, social networking sites and portable connectivity, powerful discourses continue to speak us and to speak through us. We often become unconscious agents of their distribution. At the same time, these new media have been used for disseminating counter discourses, for mobilizing opposition, for questioning and destabilizing power. This is the context within which we need to consider the role of critical literacy in education. (p. 150)

Recent ethnographic research on the social contexts and practices of literacy has revealed the linguistic, cognitive, cultural, and social complexity of the acquisition and

development of literacy, which raised educational challenges for critical pedagogy approaches (Luke, 2012). Freirean models of critical literacy endorse a political stance and pedagogical approach with an emphasis on ‘voice’ and ideology. However, these models do not explicitly specify how educators and learners can engage with the complex structures of texts (Luke, 2012). They do not provide a template for developmental acquisition and use of literacy. In the course of acquiring language, text and discourse, learners need to engage with levels of linguistic and discourse complexity.

More recent models of critical literacy, specifically the ones developed in Australia and the UK, attempt to address these key theoretical and practical issues. They emphasize that learners need to master a wide range of textual genres (Halliday & Martin, 1995). According to the proponents of SFL, mastering genres requires an understanding of “the social functions of lexical and syntactic functions” and a grasp of “the relationships of these with affiliated discourses and ideologies” (Hasan & Williams, 1996, as cited in Luke, 2012, p. 223). SFL linguists assert that access to how texts work is vital regarding social justice in literacy education, and the desired literacy education may not be achieved with a focus on ‘voice’ or ideology critique solely. Therefore, a SFL approach to critical literacy highlights the need for “the explicit instruction and direct access to “genres of power”” (Kalantzis & Cope, 1996, as cited in Luke, 2012, p. 223). However, issues regarding how much direct access to canonical and culturally significant text forms and critique is needed to constitute a politically activist approach to critical literacy remain unresolved in SFL (Luke, 2012).

Critical discourse analysis (CDA), an explicitly political approach, has emerged as derivative of SFL. This approach proposes the instruction of critical language awareness (Fairclough, 1990, as cited in Luke, 2012; Fairclough, 1995). That is, ideology critique is combined with an explicit instructional focus on teaching how texts work. In CDA, learners are taught how to analyze a range of texts, including functional, academic, and literary texts by not only attending to the lexico-grammatical structure of texts but also to their ideological contents and discourses and the conditions in which they are produced and used (Luke, 2012; Wallace, 1999). In this way, they analyze the ideological formations in texts, their social functions as well as their distinctive features, and they explore the ideological and hegemonic functions of texts. What is crucial in CDA is that it provides educators and learners with technical resources to analyze how texts and discourses work. To illustrate, while analyzing a textbook or media representation of political or economic life, in addition to answering questions regarding how a text may reflect their worlds and experiences, learners also grasp

how the structure of specific clauses and sentences are used to define the world and situate the reader based on the definition given (Luke, 2012).

In spite of being pivotal, critical literacy pedagogy may be deemed confusing and time-consuming by most educators, for it does not provide a formulaic and pre-packaged teaching method (Cho, 2015). However, if students are not provided with the opportunity to discuss the relationship between language and power in the classroom, they may not be able to interrogate and change the oppressive systems and “imagine better and more socially just ways of being in the world” (Gee, 2002, p. 190, as cited in Godley & Minnici, 2008). As a result, critical literacy should be part of the curriculum to challenge and change inequality and either linguistic or cultural marginalization that take place in educational contexts (Cho, 2015).

Work on critical literacy instruction derives from the constructivism theory, which has roots in philosophy and psychology. This theory explains how knowledge is constructed when new information interacts with the existing knowledge developed as a result of individuals’ prior experiences. Hence, constructivism has a central role in the instruction of critical literacy. Scholars who advocate teaching students critical literacy believe that educators need to emphasize the ways knowledge is created to adapt to the world and use task-based learning, discovery learning, project-based learning, hands-on learning, experiential learning, and cooperative learning to make learning meaningful (Kaur, 2013).

Ko (2010, p. 20) reflects perspectives of “post-structuralism”, “critical social theory”, and “Freirean critical pedagogy” and suggests that critical literacy has the following pedagogical implications:

- Texts are ideological constructions embedded with discursive systems.
- Texts are products of ideological and sociopolitical forces and therefore must be constantly subjected to social critiques.
- Literacy practices must always have social justice, freedom, and equity as core concerns.

Molden (2007) advocates that in critical literacy, the text is not only a worksheet used to answer comprehension questions. Instead, it is an interactive tool for learners which they can utilize to discover hidden meanings and agendas. In this sense, critical literacy may connect into the curriculum in a number of ways. In Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS), for instance, learners critically and analytically analyze the characteristics of various text types using Bloom’s Taxonomy. They also identify the purposes of different types of texts. Critical literacy is used across the curriculum and extends to everyday experiences. Learners read multiple types of texts from a critical stance and are encouraged to express their ideas in a variety of ways, including discussion, sketching, and dramatizing (Molden, 2007).

Behrman (2006) suggests six categories for critical literacy learning tasks:

- (a) reading supplementary texts;
- (b) reading multiple texts;
- (c) reading from a resistant perspective;
- (d) producing counter-texts;
- (e) conducting student-choice research projects;
- (f) taking social action. (p. 492)

That is to say, the teacher has a multifaceted role in initiating and developing critical literacy in the classroom. Initially, to help students become critically aware, the teacher is obliged to possess a personal understanding of and engagement in critical literacy. In other words, the teacher should first develop a personal understanding and use of critical literacy to be able to teach students to read from a critical stance. To develop learners' critical literacy, the teacher can model reading from a critical stance and provide access to a variety of texts representing critical literacy.

Duzer, Florez, and Cunningham (1999, p. 4) propose practical ways to be used by educators to have critical literacy as a natural part of all classwork (See Table 11).

Table 11

The ways to make critical literacy a natural part of learning

The ways to make critical literacy a natural part of learning
▪ Starting with obviously biased or ideologically loaded information sources (e.g., an advertising campaign against smoking) and progressing to more subtle examples (e.g., a play or sitcom that demonstrates negative aspects of smoking). ▪ Raising awareness by pointing out critical literacy skills when they are exhibited by the teacher/learners. ▪ Choosing readings or listening, speaking, or writing activities that are relevant and interesting for learners. ▪ Prompting learners to examine the ways their experiences and values relate to and influence their approaches to topics. ▪ Understanding that some learners may feel uncomfortable expressing opinions. ▪ Choosing activities in which learners must consider a variety of perspectives as multiple interpretations of information/different points of view may not be represented in classroom texts, materials, and discussions. ▪ Building in time for learners to become comfortable with texts or activities before asking them to look at them critically. ▪ Having learners formulate questions and answer them. ▪ Balancing instruction in basic literacy skills (decoding, vocabulary building, predicting, summarizing) with practice in critical analysis skills. ▪ Providing support for challenging aspects of a task (e.g., pre-practice new vocabulary or grammar points, clarify the main idea of a text, choose a familiar topic, etc.) so that learners can focus on critical or analytical points. ▪ Using authentic texts (e.g., newspaper articles, advertisements, letters, news broadcasts) and less traditional literacy texts (e.g., graffiti, cartoons, commercials, television sitcoms) whenever possible. ▪ Shifting from an emphasis on finding a right answer to eliciting ranges of interpretations supported by sound reasoning and thoughtful examination.

In light of these, specific reading activities should be incorporated into the language teaching curriculum to enhance learners' critical literacy skills and scaffold learners to

- be aware of how particular language choices reflect values and setup particular power relations between the reader and the writer,
- be aware of how their own values and experiences influence their reading of a particular text,
- question what it is that they are reading. (Hood, Solomon, & Burns, 1990, as cited in Brown, 1999, p. 8)

McLaughlin and DeVogd (2004b) state that it is possible to situate critical literacy in a variety of contexts and view it as a natural part of learning through critical literacy strategies, such as Problem Posing and Alternative Perspectives. Problem Posing can be utilized with a variety of genres. It involves posing questions to engage learners in critical literacy after reading a text, watching a video, or discussing the situation to be analyzed. The Rest of the Story and

Switching (e.g., Gender Switch, Theme Switch, Setting Switch, Body-Style Switch, Clothing Switch, Ethnic/Race Switch, Emotion Switch, Language Switch, Relation/Organization Switch) can be used as Problem Posing tasks (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004b, pp. 41-49).

Alternative Perspectives aim at helping learners explore different characters' viewpoints of in a story or different people's viewpoints in real-life situations. Alternative Perspectives may be shared through dramatization, focus groups, song lyrics, and poetry. The critical literacy strategies that enable learners to create Alternative Perspectives include Alternative Texts (e.g., Character Substitutions, Character Perspectives), Juxtapositioning (e.g., Juxtapositioning Texts, Photo Juxtapositioning), Mind and Alternative Mind Portraits, and Theme-Based Focus Groups (McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004b, pp. 49-52). Based on McLaughlin and DeVogd (2004b, pp. 41-52), Figure 5 displays a summary of these critical literacy strategies.

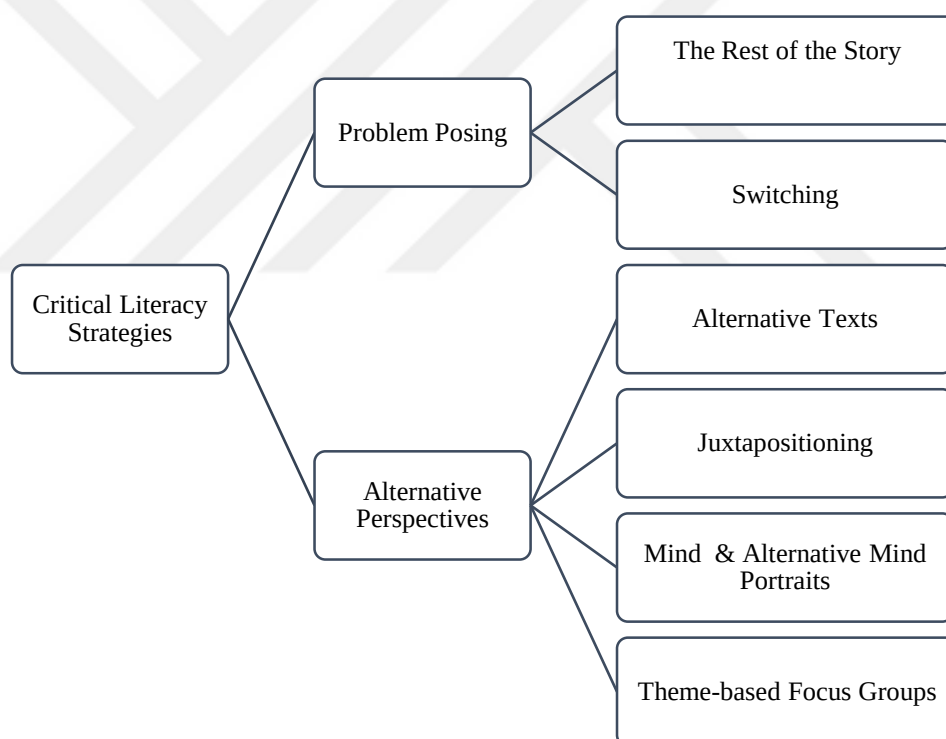


Figure 5. Critical literacy strategies.

To sum up, texts reflect social attitudes and cultural knowledge of a particular segment of society; thus, it is of great significance to teach language learners, especially adult learners, how to read and analyze texts through a critical lens. Throughout the teaching process, the skills required to question the social, political, and ideological elements presented in texts learners encounter either in the spoken or the written form or in texts which they create should

be taught (Duzer, Florez, & Cunningham, 1999). Such an instructional process enables them to explore and understand issues using multiple perspectives. By examining the sources of texts as well as the biases and purposes presented in them, questioning the veracity of the information provided, critically assessing the societal messages conveyed in texts regarding values, attitudes, and power relationships and relating their own reactions, biases, and realities to the texts being read and reflecting on them, learners may develop higher levels of critical literacy. In this sense, instruction that aims to foster learners' critical capacities requires the implementation of a critical 'persona' as a vital element (Rice, 1998, as cited in Brown, 1999). Hence, critical literacy models suggested in literature should be explored, and tasks and activities oriented around criticality should be incorporated into literacy instruction as an indispensable part of the teaching process to help learners develop higher levels of critical thinking and critical reading skills.

2.3.4. Critical literacy models

As previously stated, different approaches to critical literacy exist in literature (Pennycook, 2001, as cited in Abednia & Izadinia, 2013); however, all of these approaches aim at "engaging with the possibilities that the technologies of writing and other modes of inscription offer for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement" (Luke & Freebody, 1997, p. 1, as cited in Abednia & Izadinia, 2013). To this end, a number of models have been adopted by critical scholars to encourage readers to become active meaning-makers, who critique texts and explore and respect multiple perspectives (Kuo, 2014). These frameworks include Halliday's (1978) Model from a social semiotic perspective, Janks' (2000) Synthesis Model that emphasizes four orientations (i.e., domination, access, diversity, and design) and Lewison, Flint, and Van Sluys' Four Dimensions of Critical Literacy (2002). Other models which provide classroom applications of critical literacy are Lewison, Leland, and Harste's (2015) Instructional Model of Critical Literacy, CDA (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000), Fairclough's Critical Language Awareness (CLA) (1992), and Luke and Freebody's (1997, 1999) Four Resources Model that considers reading as a social practice (see Table 12).

Table 12

Models in critical literacy

Models	Emphasis/Components
Halliday's Model	-A social semiotic perspective
Janks' Synthesis Model	-A sociocultural view of literacy -Four orientations: ▪ domination ▪ access ▪ diversity ▪ design
Lewison, Flint, and Sluys' Four Dimensions of CL	-Four dimensions: ▪ disrupting the commonplace ▪ interrogating multiple viewpoints ▪ focusing on socio-political issues ▪ taking action and promoting social justice
Lewison, Leland, and Harste's Instructional Model of CL	-Core beliefs of critical pedagogy, three interrelated components: ▪ personal and cultural resources, ▪ enacting critical social practices, ▪ critical stance
CDA	-Language, power, and domination, production and reproduction of the social order
CLA	-Social functioning of language
Luke and Freebody's Four Resources Model	-A sociocultural view of literacy -Reading: a social practice -Four components in text engagement: ▪ code breaking (phonics, vocabulary) ▪ text participating (reading comprehension) ▪ text using (socialization with meanings created from texts) ▪ text critiquing (critical reflection and analysis)

Note: CL: Critical Literacy; CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis; CLA: Critical Language Awareness.

In all these models, language learning is regarded as a social practice, which enables learners both to effectively learn a language and change their attitudes towards the society they live in (Kuo, 2014). In this sense, critical literacy refers to alternative language instruction which encourages learners to explore hidden messages within texts, question the status quo, and take action for a more just society (Dozier, Johnston, & Rogers, 2006).

a. Halliday's Model

The main focus in this model is on the analysis of language-in-use. In his systemic theory, which offers systems of choices in language, Halliday (1978) identifies three meta-functions: the ideational (i.e., the experiences represented or constructed within language,

content or proposition of message), the interpersonal (i.e., the interaction between speaker and addressee(s)) and the textual (i.e., the creation of text, the organization of language as coherent message) (Christie, 1999; Liu, 2014). Lexical and grammatical operations that reveal ideological representations (field), social relations (tenor), and textual formations (mode) are examined to grasp a sociocultural understanding of text and context, purpose, audience, and use. Thus, instructional tasks designed based on this model involve the analysis of technical characteristics, social functions, and contexts of texts through a metalanguage developed to understand and achieve control over lexicon, sentence-level grammar, and genres (Luke, 2000).

Teaching and learning how texts work, developing an understanding of what texts do, actively critiquing texts, and reconstructing the social fields are the focal points in Halliday's model (Luke, 2000). Hence, in addition to learning how to control the expression of content, learning how to control the expression of textual and interpersonal relationship in a text should also be taught, for it is vital for rhetorical and educational success (Halliday, 1978).

b. Janks' Synthesis Model

Janks' Synthesis Model is another sociocultural model, which is deemed to be more relevant to curriculum design (Gustine, 2014). Three areas of literacy practice involved in this model are: decoding the text (i.e., recognizing words and what they refer to), making meaning from the text (i.e., using one's background knowledge and actively engaging with the writer's meanings), and interrogating the text (i.e., questioning the version of reality offered to the reader by a particular text) (Janks, 2010).

The model is called a synthesis model since it refers to and synthesize prior literacy models. Janks (2000) advocates that different orientations in critical literacy education are interdependent; therefore, she theorizes the interdependence of four key components of critical literacy: *domination*, *access*, *diversity*, and *design*. Different conceptualizations of language and power relationship lead to different realizations of critical literacy by foregrounding one or other of domination, access, diversity, or design.

In the *domination* view of power, language, other symbolic forms, and discourse are considered as a powerful means of maintaining and reproducing relations of domination (see e.g., CDA, CLA) (Janks, 2000). As for the second component, providing learners with *access* to dominant forms (i.e., dominant languages, dominant varieties, dominant discourses, dominant genres and so forth, Gee, 1990, as cited in Janks, 2000) helps them maintain their dominance. Genre Pedagogy has enabled scholars and educators to question the ways of making generic features visible in order to provide learners from marginalized discourses with

greater access to these features (see e.g., Martin et al., 1987; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Kress, 1999, as cited in Janks, 2000).

Diversity is mainly related to different ways of reading and writing the world in diverse modalities, which leads to change in consciousness (Janks, 2000). Discourses are linked to various social identities and are embedded in various social institutions. Hence, education that is more inclusive of learners' diverse languages and literacies is needed (see The New Literacy Studies). Finally, *design* embraces the idea of productive power, with an emphasis on human creativity and learners' ability to generate an infinite number of new meanings (Janks, 2000). Thus, the promotion of multi-literacies is highlighted due to developments in new technologies, information literacy, media education, and cultural studies as a result of globalization (see The New London Group).

c. Lewison, Flint, and Van Sluys' Four Dimensions of Critical Literacy

Lewison, Flint, and Van Sluys' model comprises four dimensions which are disrupting the commonplace, exploring multiple viewpoints, focusing on the socio-political system, and taking action (Lewison, Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002). Similar to Janks' model, this model also synthesizes significant notions of critical literacy.

In the first dimension of critical literacy, "everyday" practices are seen through new lenses. Language, along with other sign systems, is utilized to identify implicit modes of perception and construct novel frames through which experience is understood. Hence, critical literacy is seen as a way of

- Problematizing all subjects of study and understanding existing knowledge as a historical product (Shor, 1987);
- Interrogating texts by asking questions such as "How is this text trying to position me?" (Luke & Freebody, 1997);
- Including popular culture and media as a regular part of the curriculum for purposes of pleasure and for analyzing how people are positioned and constructed by television, video games, comics, toys, etc. (Marsh, 2000; Shannon, 1995; Vasquez, 2000);
- Developing the language of critique and hope (Shannon, 1995); and
- Studying language to analyze how it shapes identity, constructs cultural discourses, and supports or disrupts the status quo. (Fairclough, 1989; Gee, 1990, as cited in Lewison, Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002, p. 383)

Traditionally, teachers are considered as transmitters of knowledge and curriculum, but a critical literacy perspective allows educators to develop an activist perspective with regard to their roles and responsibilities. Thus, teachers' adoption of this dimension is of great importance due to their critical role in education.

In the second dimension, the emphasis is on readers' exploring multiple viewpoints, which allows them to understand texts and experience them both from their own perspectives and others' perspectives. The key processes in this dimension are

- Reflecting on multiple and contradictory perspectives (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2000; Nieto, 1999);
- Using multiple voices to interrogate texts by asking questions such as "Whose voices are heard and whose are missing?" (Luke & Freebody, 1997)
- Paying attention to and seeking out the voices of those who have been silenced or marginalized (Harste et al., 2000);
- Examining competing narratives and writing counternarratives to dominant discourses (Farrell, 1998); and
- Making difference visible. (Harste et al., 2000, as cited in Lewison, Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002, p. 383)

In addition to the former dimension, this dimension is regarded as an unconventional perspective for educators as well since examining conflicting perspectives through the lens of critical literacy will not yield tidy conclusions.

Focusing on sociopolitical issues comprises the third dimension of the framework. This dimension suggests that teaching, like other social practices, is not neutral; therefore, it should not be separated from sociopolitical systems, power relationships, and language, all of which are intertwined. Critical literacy is seen as

- Going beyond the personal and attempting to understand the sociopolitical systems to which we belong (Boozer, Maras, & Brummett, 1999);
- Challenging the unquestioned legitimacy of unequal power relationships (Anderson & Irvine, 1993) by studying the relationship between language and power (Fairclough, 1989; Gee, 1990);
- Using literacy to engage in the politics of daily life (Lankshear & McLaren, 1993); and
- Redefining literacy as a form of cultural citizenship and politics that increases opportunities for subordinate groups to participate in society and as an ongoing act of consciousness and resistance. (Giroux, 1993, as cited in Lewison, Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002, p. 383)

As these quotes suggest, educators should encourage learners to enquire the impact of power relationships and sociopolitical systems on perceptions, responses, and actions as they are reading as well as personal or psychological responses to texts and experiences.

The final dimension is taking action and promoting social justice. Deeper understandings and perspectives gained from the former dimensions provide learners with

opportunities to promote social justice taking informed action against oppression. From this perspective, literacy enables to attain social justice by:

- Engaging in praxis-reflection and action upon the world in order to transform it (Freire, 1972);
- Using language to exercise power to enhance everyday life and to question practices of privilege and injustice (Comber, 2001);
- Analyzing how language is used to maintain domination, how nondominant groups can gain access to dominant forms of language without devaluing their own language and culture, how diverse forms of language can be used as cultural resources, and how social action can change existing discourses (Janks, 2000); and
- Challenging and redefining cultural borders, encouraging students to be border crossers in order to understand others, and creating borderlands with diverse cultural resources. (Giroux, 1993, as cited in Lewison, Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002, p. 384)

Based on the quotes, it could be stated that this dimension, in a way, defines what critical literacy is. On the whole, using this framework of critical literacy may provide benefits for the implementation of critical literacy practices in the classroom.

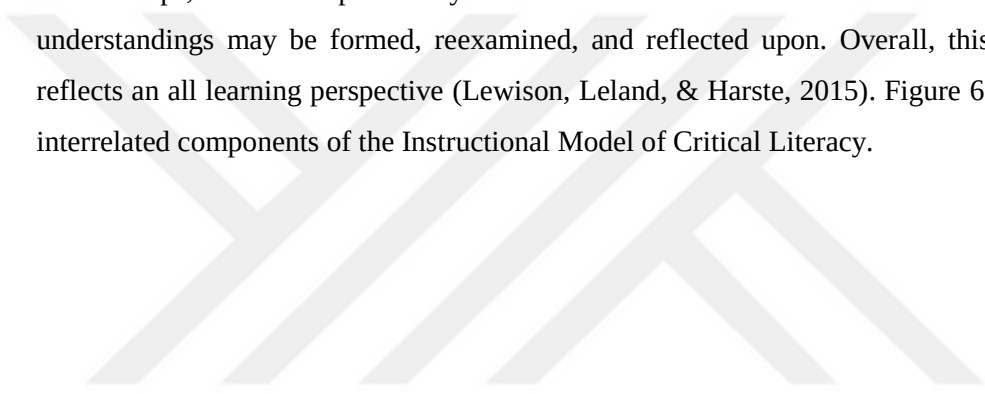
d. Lewison, Leland, and Harste's (2015) Instructional Model of Critical Literacy

Instructional Model of Critical Literacy involves personal and cultural resources, enacting critical social practices, and critical stance as three interrelated components, which reflects the core beliefs of critical pedagogy. The first component refers to the resources educators and learners access for the content of the curriculum. To Lewison, Leland, and Harste (2015), these resources may involve “personal experience; social issues books; popular culture and media; sites on the World Wide Web; home literacies; textbooks; oral texts; competence in a language other than English; student desires and interests; and community, national, and international issues” (pp. 5-7).

The next component, enacting critical social practices, addresses four ways teachers and students can engage with the resources they have accessed. These four components which are “disrupting the commonplace, interrogating multiple viewpoints, focusing on the sociopolitical, and taking action and promoting social justice” were originally described by Lewison, Flint, and Van Sluys (2002, p. 382) (see the above-mentioned model).

Critical stance is the central component in Lewison, Leland, and Harste's (2015) Instructional Model of Critical Literacy because it consists of attitudes and dispositions adopted, which enables learners to become critically literate. They state that critical stance comprises four components. The first component is consciously engaging. This mindset allows

learners to examine and question the power structures and to respond to these power structures. In order to develop an understanding about a specific event, engaging in conversations with others is crucial since learners, in this way, can question their own assumptions and grasp an understanding of the situation. The second component of critical stance is entertaining alternate ways of being. This aspect is related to considering alternative discourses. The third component is taking responsibility to inquire. By asking questions, learners begin to consider different perspectives and examine and reflect on their own reasoning. The final component of critical stance is being reflexive, which requires learners to examine their responses and roles in promoting justice. Having a critical stance, that is, examining and critiquing power relationships, is the responsibility of both educators and learners. In this way, new understandings may be formed, reexamined, and reflected upon. Overall, this component reflects an all learning perspective (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2015). Figure 6 displays the interrelated components of the Instructional Model of Critical Literacy.



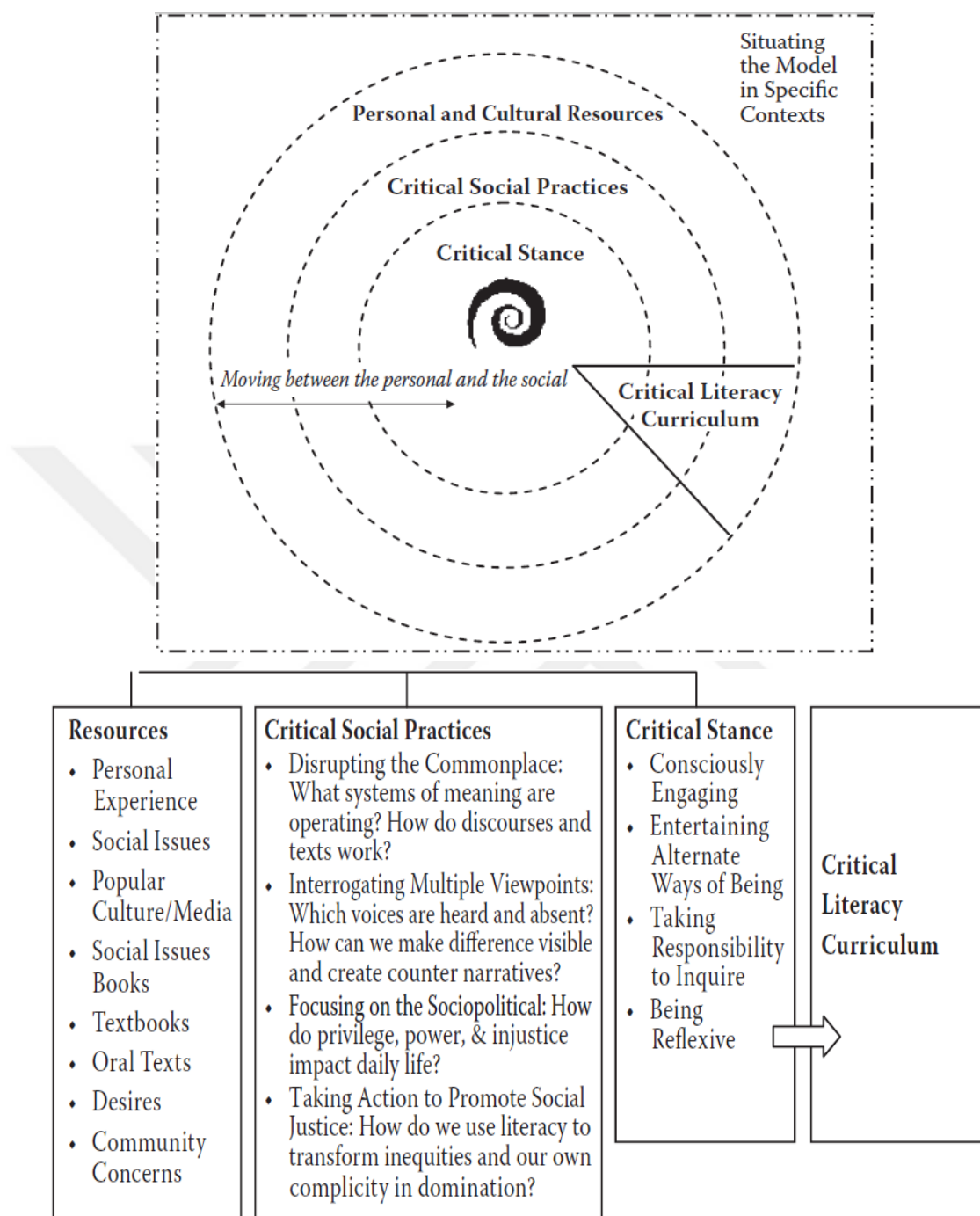


Figure 6. An Instructional Model of Critical Literacy (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2015, p. 6).

As shown in the figure, the Instructional Model of Critical Literacy is one of the most comprehensive critical literacy models. Therefore, although the model was originally developed for K-8 level, it has been used at various educational levels.

e. Critical Discourse Analysis and Critical Language Awareness

CDA, a political derivative of SFL which focuses on the concepts of power, ideology, and hegemony (Fairclough, 1992b; Janks, 2010), emerged in 1980s as a programmatic development of European discourse studies (see e.g., Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, and Teun van Dijk). The most elaborate CDA program which constructs a social theory of discourse and provides a framework for CDA in practice has been proposed by Fairclough (1992a). CDA provides three levels of analysis (i.e., text analysis, discourse analysis, and critical discourse analysis) to better equip readers with critical thinking and critical language skills (Fairclough, 1995).

In this three-dimensional framework, the first dimension is discourse-as-text, which suggests analyzing the linguistic features and organization of discourse. The emphasis on such textual features of discourse distinguishes this approach from the other CDA approaches (e.g., Michael Foucault). In this CDA approach, choices and patterns in vocabulary (e.g., metaphor), grammar (e.g., transitivity), cohesion (e.g., schemata), and text structure (e.g., turn taking) are systematically analyzed (Fairclough, 1992a).

The second dimension is discourse-as-discursive practice. Discourse is regarded as something which is produced, circulated, distributed, and consumed. The emphasis is on the circulation of linguistic objects in this dimension, that is to say, specific texts or text types that are produced, circulated, and consumed. Thus, as three aspects linking text to its context, speech acts, coherence, and intertextuality are of great importance in the analysis of vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, and text structure (Fairclough, 1992a).

The third dimension is discourse-as-social practice. The ideological effects and hegemonic processes in which discourse is a feature are examined in this dimension of CDA. According to Fairclough (1992a), the large-scale hegemonic processes (i.e., democratization, commodification, and technologization) are realized through heteroglossic constructions of text genres and styles. Hence, this dimension focuses on a more powerful technique of text analysis. However, in addition to examining social dimensions of language use, the proponents of CDA also suggest intervening in the social practices that are critically being explored. In this sense, change, empowerment, and practice-orientedness are vital in CDA. In Figure 7, Fairclough's (1995) three dimensions of discourse analysis are presented.

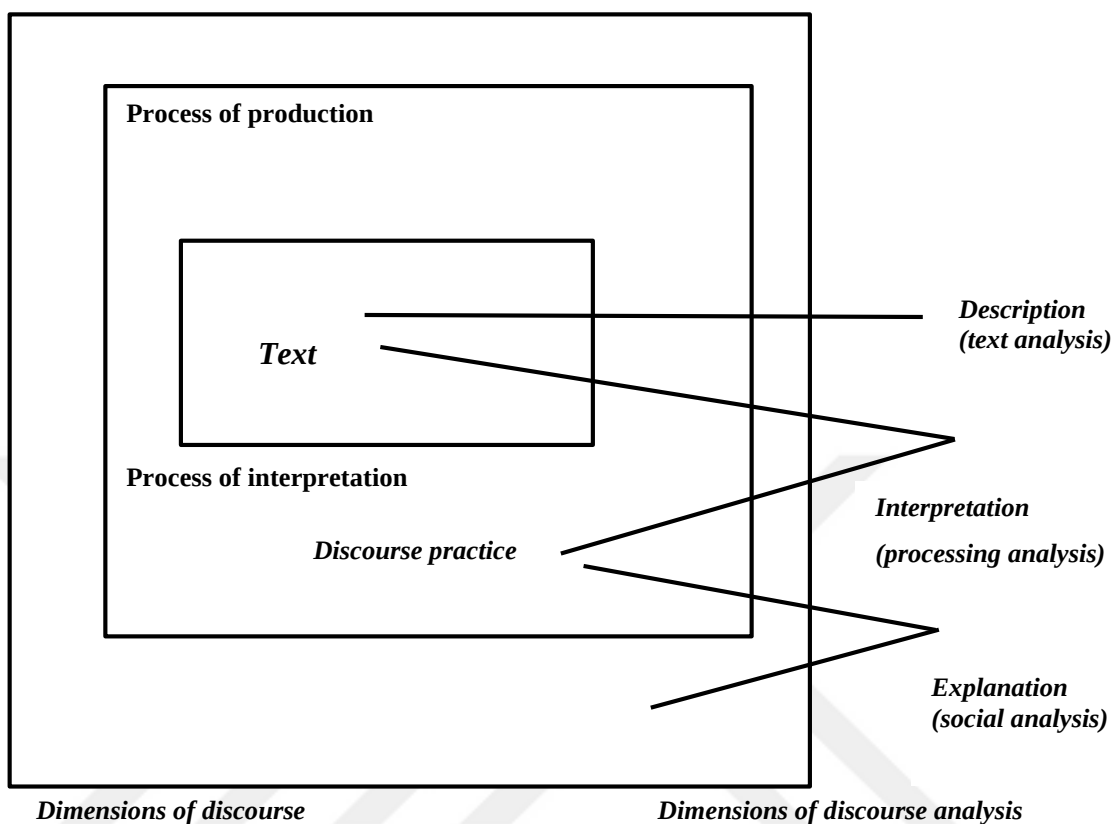


Figure 7. Three dimensions of discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995, p. 98).

As the figure illustrates, discourse analysis from a linguistic perspective includes linguistic description of the language text, interpretation of the relationship between the (productive and interpretative) discursive processes and the text, and explanation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the social processes. What makes this approach unique is that discourse practice mediates the link between sociocultural practice and text; the production or interpretation of text regarding the discursive practices and conventions. The nature of the sociocultural practice, which involves the discourse, influences the orders of discourse they are drawn from and their articulation together. In addition, the nature of the discourse practice of text production impacts the shape of the text. To put it simply, based on the nature of the discourse practice, it influences the surface features of the texts interpreted.

A practical and pedagogical CDA approach requires an explicit instructional focus on teaching the ways texts work as well as “ideology critique” (Fairclough, 1995, p. 19). The teaching of “critical language awareness” (Fairclough, 1995, p. 239), that is to say, analyzing a range of texts (i.e., functional, academic, and literary texts), attending to lexico-grammatical

structure, ideological contents, and the conditions of production and use (Luke, 2001) help learners become critically literate.

In this sense, CLA is the pedagogical application of CDA. It is mainly about the analysis of a variety of texts, with an emphasis on their lexico-grammatical structure, ideological contents and discourses as well as the conditions they are produced and used in (Fairclough, 1992b; Fairclough, 1995; Janks, 2000; Wallace, 1998; Wallace, 1999; Wallace, 2003). Ideological formations in texts, their social functions, and their characteristic generic and modal features are highlighted in this framework. Field is related to representational function or ideational meanings, tenor is about interactional functions or interpersonal meanings, and finally, mode analyzes information flow functions or textual meanings. Fairclough (1992b) asserts that CLA equips learners with “the knowledge to initiate change in their own discourse practices and the discourse practices of their community” (p. 239). In sum, CLA allows to identify what texts say (i.e., how words, grammar, and textual and discourse choices shape a representation) and what they do (i.e., how words and grammar establish power relations between authors and readers, speakers and addressees).

f. Luke and Freebody’s Four Resources Model

In Luke’s (1995) and Luke and Freebody’s (1990, 1999) conceptualization of literacy, literacy is addressed as a social practice which involves both conventions of reading texts and critical analysis of ideological construction. In this sociocultural literacy model, Luke and Freebody introduce four components in text engagement, which are code breaking (phonics, vocabulary), text participating (reading comprehension), text using (socialization with meanings created from texts), and text critiquing (critical reflection and analysis). Critical literacy has been defined as the dynamic integration of code breaking, text participating, text using, and critiquing in this model of reading. The early version (1997) of “the four resources model” defines the reader as “the code breaker, text participant, text user, and text critic” (as cited in Flint et al., 2020, p. 210). In their revised account, however, Luke and Freebody (1999) suggest that literacy learning is understood more properly as a family of practices (Ko, 2010). Table 13 presents an overview of these practices (Ko, 2010, p. 22).

Table 13

Practices in literacy learning

Practices /Reader's Role	Sample Questions
Code-breaking practices/ Code breaker	- How do the sound and marks relate, singly and in combinations? - How do I crack this text? - What are its patterns and conventions?
Text-meaning practices/ Text participant	- How do the ideas represented in the text string together? - What are cultural resources that can be brought to bear on the text? - What are the cultural meanings and possible readings that can be constructed from this text?
Pragmatic practices Text user	- How do the uses of this text shape its composition? - What do I do with the text here and now?
Critical practices Text analyst & critique	- What kind of person with what interests and values, could both write and read this naively and unproblematically? - What is the text trying to do to me? In whose interests? - Which positions, voices and interests are at play? Which are silent and absent?

In code-breaking practices, the emphasis is on linguistic perspective. Code breaking is equivalent to basic or functional literacy. That is, these practices involve identifying letters in the alphabet and sounds in words, deciphering spelling and grammar conventions, such as sentence structure and text organization, and using graphics and other visuals to break the “code” of text. Text-meaning practices relate to cognitive and psycholinguistic perspectives. As a text participant, by actively approaching and deconstructing text, learners use their prior knowledge and experience when to interpret the author’s intention. Pragmatic practices relate to sociolinguistic perspectives, which highlight the context in which a text is read and interpreted. Thus, learners are encouraged to become critical consumers of text by reading different text forms and questioning how these different uses shape the author’s choice regarding the language, structure and organization. Finally, critical practices are utilized to promote critical perspectives. Learners need to be encouraged to analyze and evaluate the author’s motive, and consider fairness, accuracy, and reliability in light of the idea that no text is neutral. They also need to recognize their own power as readers to uncover and challenge

assumptions and ideas about the world. They need to be able to respond and take social action when they disagree with the ideas presented in the text.

Luke and Freebody (1999) state that only an integrated use of each practice results in effective literacy learning. As Luke (2000) notes, “the model does not propose a developmental hierarchy whereby one moves from coding to the critical; from the basics to higher order thinking; from initial reading to advanced literature study” (p. 454). Critical literacy strategies need to be taught explicitly, but they should not be taught sequentially or in isolation from one another (http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/literacynumeracy/inspire/research/critical_literacy.pdf). The model has widely been used in EFL classrooms despite being originally developed for ESL settings (Freebody & Luke, 1990).

Luke and Freebody’s Four Resources Model will be used in this study, for it is a model of reading which is compatible with a critical skills perspective of critical thinking, and which reflects a text analytic approach to critical literacy. The model is accomplished through the combination of skill-based literacy and critical literacy since it emphasizes both conventions of reading texts and critical analysis of ideological construction. To put it simply, it allows a balance between conventional literacy and critical literacy. Thus, it is appropriate for tertiary education. Finally, the model, which has been widely implemented in different educational contexts, is applicable in the EFL classroom, and it provides a practical design for teaching critical reading skills in treatment and control groups.

2.3.5. Critical literacy in the EFL classroom

Research on critical literacy in language education with an emphasis on the need for learners to master a variety of textual genres and registers (Halliday & Martin, 1995) traces back to the 1980s (Fajardo, 2015). Since 1980s, critical literacy has been widely studied in varied levels of education in countries, such as Australia, New Zealand, the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom (Fajardo, 2015). The significance of critical literacy has widely been acknowledged today, yet the critical value of language and language teaching has long been neglected in academic settings (Abednia & Izadinia, 2013; Abednia, 2015). Despite its critical place on language education agenda, critical literacy has started to gain importance in language teaching research recently. Critical literacy has gained attention as a research topic in other countries as well. In a majority of these studies, most of which were conducted in ESL contexts, teachers advocated change in pedagogy. In the new pedagogies, the emphasis should be on the comprehension of meaning rather than the language forms (Ko & Wang, 2009; Ko, 2013a). Rather than adopting strategy-based instruction, educators should promote the

discussion of social issues in the classroom. They should emphasize taking social action (Ko & Wang, 2009) through student-centered dialogues (Ko, 2013a). Finally, they should use multimodal texts as a means of meaning-making (Tan et al., 2010, as cited in Fajardo, 2015).

Strategies which enable language learners to answer multiple-choice reading comprehension questions are emphasized in language teaching literacy curriculum, and learners are required to memorize structures and lengthy lists of vocabulary items included in international exams. However, there is a need for the current practices in second and foreign language classrooms to be reshaped in order to improve learners' critical consciousness, which lies at the heart of being a 21st century individual. Being a critical and creative thinker is vital in academia, and it is also required for success in life (Abednia & Izadinia, 2013). For this reason, the EFL literacy classroom which is considered incapable of addressing critical literacy should undergo a transformation.

Today, EFL learners, are not limited to the printed text; they encounter information in English through the traditional media, websites, advertisements, and e-journals. Thus, they need global and critical reading skills in the target language. In other words, they are obliged to have high levels of proficiency in English and possess a higher reading faculty, which suggests that integrated literacy curriculum is inevitable for EFL education (Park, 2011). Exley and Dooley (2015) and Huang (2011a) argue that critical literacy enhances learners' conventional literacy development, suggesting that conventional literacy also provides a groundwork for critical literacy. According to Exley and Dooley (2015, as cited in Huh, 2016), Huang (2009; 2011a), and Lau (2013), decoding and reading comprehension and critical literacy strengthen each other.

In spite of having been studied extensively in English-speaking countries for the past few decades (Behrman; 2006; Ko & Wang, 2009), critical literacy practice and research in other English language learning contexts became apparent only in the early 21st century (Dooley, Exley, & Poulus, 2016). Hence, the number of critical literacy studies conducted in EFL contexts is limited (Huang, 2012; Ko & Wang, 2009; Ko, 2013b; Liu, 2017), for conventional literacy skills are prioritized (Huang, 2012).

Izadinia and Abedinia (2010) describe a stereotypical scene from an EFL reading class at tertiary level as follows:

Books were open in front of a number of university freshmen silently waiting for the new lesson. Although students had stepped into a new place with a different atmosphere, they were quite familiar with the way teachers dealt with the materials as they had endured almost the same process for years at school. The teacher, as usual, was reading a short text in the reading comprehension

class while drawing the students' attention to the meanings of new words. Some of the students who were regarded as high achievers were contributing by offering synonyms for the new words and the teacher, pleased with their work, was encouraging other students to write them down so that they could memorize the words for the next session. After reading the text and working on the meanings of some vague sentences, students were required to answer the comprehension questions at the end of that unit. Students' correct answers to the multiple choice, true/false, and fill-in-the blank questions 'proved' that they had learned the new lesson. The teacher, satisfied with his teaching, dismissed the class. (pp. 51-52)

Although the scenario depicted may not be regarded as representative of all EFL teaching contexts, it reflects the widely implemented EFL teaching practices for reading skills. That is to say, the EFL literacy classroom has been deemed to be incapable of addressing critical literacy (Cummins, 2001, as cited in Huh, 2016). As Liu (2017) states, deciphering linguistic meaning is still the core EFL pedagogical practice in most EFL classrooms. Most English teachers have a tendency to use conventional literacy practices more and focus merely on students' English grammatical competence. They disregard the importance of using "critical multimodal interpretations and designs" (Lotherington & Jenson, 2011, as cited in Fajardo, 2015, p. 43). In a similar vein, Hazaea and Alzubi (2017) point out that non-critical traditional tools, including the Grammar Translation Method, schema approach, top-down approach, bottom-up approach, and interactive approach are used more in EFL reading contexts.

To explain the potential reasons for this condition, Ko (2013b) proposes that teaching critical literacy has been regarded culturally inappropriate, especially for the East Asian educational contexts, since critical literacy requires questioning and challenging dominant practices. Ko and Wang (2013) claim that the inadequacy of learners' English proficiency may be considered as another reason for the lack of studies in critical literacy because it is thought to hinder learners' engagement with complex social and moral issues. Another reason is the banking pedagogy approach in which educators are regarded as transmitters of knowledge and learners as passive recipients (Ko, 2010). Moreover, EFL learners have been perceived to have limited abilities in taking a critical perspective (Falkenstein, 2003). Kim (2012) states that EFL educators have not yet negotiated on the need for critical literacy, prioritizing it on their teaching agendas. Their lack of implementation skills (Rahimi & Askari Bigdeli, 2015) was proposed as the final reason for the scarcity of the critical literacy studies in the EFL classrooms.

However, an interest in the exploration of the potential practices to promote critical EFL education has recently emerged worldwide as research has shown that English can be taught critically not only in the ESL classrooms but also in the EFL classrooms (Dooley, Exley,

& Poulus, 2016). Concepts, such as CLA, critical reading, and critical writing, have begun to occur in academic circles along with the term critical literacy (Koon, 2001; Lin, 2000, as cited in Fajardo, 2015) in EFL teaching, in countries, including Bangladesh, China, Greece, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Iran, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam, and Yemen. Empirical evidence indicates that teaching critical literacy in EFL contexts have produced positive outcomes (Bui, 2016).

A review of the related literature has revealed that critical literacy has generally been taught through explicit instruction in critical practices, in these contexts. The critical literacy implementations have mostly been integrated into conventional literacy instruction. To ensure learner engagement, a variety of other English language materials have been used in addition to regular textbooks (Dooley, Exley, & Poulus, 2016). With regard to the critical literacy models that have been utilized, Four Resources Model has been the most repeatedly used model in the EFL classrooms (see e.g., Azman, Bhooth, & Ismail, 2013; Huang, 2011b; Ko & Wang, 2009; Ko, 2010; Kuo, 2014; Wong, Cherry, & Firkins, 2006). Other models that have extensively been used are Four Dimensions Model (see e.g., Kuo, 2009), Lewison, Leland, & Harste's Model (see e.g., Gustine, 2014; Heaton, 2010), and CDA (see e.g., Hazaea & Alzubi, 2017; Ko & Wang, 2013; Shahmohammadi & Haratyan, 2017).

As for the empirical studies regarding the instruction of critical literacy, it should be noted that a number of critical literacy studies have been conducted recently. Some of these studies included instructors as participants and sought for teachers' critical literacy awareness levels (e.g., Cox and Assis-Peterson, 1999; Cho, 2015). In other studies (e.g., Abednia & Izadinia, 2013; Cho, 2014; Dal, 2012; Kuo, 2009; Potur, 2014), some critical literacy applications were incorporated into the teaching process, and the impact of intervention was revealed. In some other studies (e.g., Huang, 2011a; Huh, 2016; Ko, 2013), scholars aimed at the simultaneous instruction of conventional and critical literacy skills in a balanced way and the critical analysis of the language to enhance learners' critical literacy. Finally, some studies (e.g., Huang, 2011a; Kumagai & Iwasaki, 2011) focused on critical literacy instruction with an emphasis on language analysis.

These studies confirm that with adequate support and scaffolding of learning, through teachers' selection of texts that relate with students' personal/cultural experiences, and explicit instruction and guidance on how to critically interrogate texts in terms of power relations (Choo & Singh, 2011), (English) language learners are able to improve their critical literacy skills. The belief that "literacy solely entails reading words on a page and not critically analyzing how those words shape identities and influence readers' perspectives leads to a

culture of acquiescence” should be critically questioned (Fajardo, 2015, p. 44). She suggests that “for educators who wish to respond to the literacy needs of the times, and teach learners about their responsibility toward building a just and humane society, critical literacy is worth teaching” (p. 45).

Abednia and Izadinia (2013) propose five steps for implementing a critical literacy approach to teaching L2 reading in all different ESL/EFL contexts. As the initial step, they suggest familiarizing learners with critical literacy. Due to being mainly exposed to conventional reading instruction which merely focused on reading for comprehension to identify the main topic and supporting ideas, learners may need some guidance about critical literacy to be able to engage in critical reading tasks. To familiarize learners with critical literacy, short passages written in simple and non-academic language about concepts related to critical literacy may be provided. Besides, class discussions should be carried out about the objectives, advantages, and limitations of critical literacy. The second step in implementing a critical literacy approach is negotiating readings with learners. Involving learners in the selection of the passages to be read and analyzed critically is an effective way of engaging learners. They are likely to interact more with the texts which they think are relevant and significant to their lives.

In the third step, to increase learners’ autonomy while dealing with texts, instructors should ask critical questions or provide learners with sample critical literacy questions. The further step would be asking learners to develop their own questions and discuss these questions collaboratively. Through class discussions, they can share their unique understandings and experiences, which also provides them with the opportunity of examining issues from different angles. Exchanging ideas can help learners broaden their horizons and expand their understanding of both texts and the world around them. In this way, they are likely to have enhanced self-awareness by reflecting on their own beliefs and biases; they also become more open-minded and tolerant. The last step is writing reflective journals. Through reflection, learners are likely to have a better understanding of the world, and how they operate within this world. By writing reflection journals, learners are able to reassess and modify their opinions. Learners may also be asked to share their journals with other learners and comment on each other’s writings. This dialogical interaction among learners is crucial in terms of developing their critical literacy skills.

Liu (2017) points out that “English as a world language is more than a way to exchange information but a means to solidify certain social hierarchy and represent certain social interests” (p. 133). Therefore, teaching critical awareness to EFL learners is imperative in an

attempt to empower them to transform social injustice. In this regard, using critical literacy as an instructional approach helps learners become more engaged and active, which leads to enhanced knowledge and language development (Kuo, 2014). Learners are provided with opportunities to discuss social issues and examine the implications concerning personal, institutional, and cultural practices instead of analyzing the language forms and structures presented in decontextualized sentences (Fajardo, 2015). As a result, they can become active and critical readers who question and resist texts through analytical reading practices (Hazaea & Alzubi, 2017).

“Language...does things: it constructs social categories, it gives orders, it persuades us, it justifies, explains, gives reasons, excuses. It constructs reality. It moves people against other people” (TRC, 1998, p. 7, p. 124, p. 294, as cited in Janks, 2010, p. 45). That is why modern EFL instruction requires enhancing learners’ four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) as well as developing a wide range of critical awareness and critical reading skills and reasoning abilities, including questioning, examining authors’ intentions/viewpoints, exploring multiple perspectives, juxtaposing, and reconstructing (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2017).

The fundamental aim of critical literacy education is to develop “a text critic,” one who understands that “texts are not ideologically natural or neutral-that they represent particular points of views while silencing others” (Luke & Freebody, 1999, p. 5). Once they become a text critic, learners are able to investigate how texts are biased ideologically, and whose cultural knowledge is appreciated and marginalized more in these texts (Burns & Hood, 1998; Stevens & Bean, 2007; Wallace, 2001, as cited in Huh, 2016). In this sense, being able to read different texts/genres critically has a central role in language education (Wallace, 2003).

2.4. Genre Theory

Genre studies have been conducted since Aristotle’s *Rhetoric* (Christie, 2016); however, the concept of genre regained importance in the late 90s and early 2000s, (Motta-Roth & Heberle, 2015). Having been developed in Australia, Genre Theory has enabled scholars to identify the required language skills to be successful socially and academically (Feez, 2002). Bhatia (2002) refers to the widespread use of Genre Theory as “one of the most interesting developments in discourse studies in the past two decades” (p. 279). As Cope and Kalantzis (1993, p. 231) put it, Halliday provided “the catalyst for the development of genre theory” in late 1975 (as cited in Feez, 2002, p. 53). Since then, genre has become a crucial tool for developing L1 and L2 instruction despite receiving attack from process writing proponents

(Hyon, 1996) due to being regarded as over-prescriptive (Paltridge, 1996; Prior, 1995, as cited in Dudley-Evans, 2002). This dynamism in the field has led to a variety of definitions for genre in literature (Derewianka, 2003; Hyland, 2002; Lee, 2001).

Kress (1987) states that interactions in various contexts lead to genres (as cited in Pang, 2002). In Martin, Christie, and Rothery's (1987, p. 59) definition, genre is a "staged, goal-oriented social process" with "structural forms that cultures use in certain contexts to achieve various purposes" (as cited in Schulze, 2011). Freedman and Medway (1994, p. 1) define genres as "written texts that are (a) primarily literary, (b) entirely defined by textual regularities, (c) fixed and immutable, and (d) classifiable into neat and mutually exclusive categories and subcategories" (as cited in Johns, 2002a, p. 3). Fairclough's (1995) genre is "a socially ratified way of using language in connection with a particular type of social activity" (p. 14). Martin (2002) explains genre as "a term for grouping texts together" (p. 269). To Hyland (2002, p. 114; 2003, p. 21; 2007, p. 149), on the other hand, genre refers to "abstract, socially recognized ways of using language". More recently, Hyland (2012) has referred to genres as "the recurrent uses of more-or-less conventionalized forms through which individuals develop relationships, establish communities, and get things done using language" (p. 414). Grabe (2002) refers to genre as a crucial concept that affect the ways the discourse is organized and used for different purposes. From this social perspective, genres that form and are formed by recurring social situations result in distinct and shared conventions.

Genres are staged. Namely, a number of steps are required to achieve their goals. The intended purpose of a text is realized through the typical linguistic, syntactical, and textual features of a genre as a text moves through its stages (Martin and Rose, 2008, as cited in Schulze, 2011), which indicates that genres are goal-oriented. Hyland (2007) proposes the notion of genre as "a response to changing views of discourse and of learning to write" (p. 148). In a similar vein, in Devitt's (2009) terms, genres are "discourse types that evolve within social contexts to serve groups' aims" (p. 340).

Having been proposed by various scholars with an emphasis on different aspects (Derewianka, 2003), these definitions reveal the complexity of the concept of genre. Bhatia (2002) suggests a three-level conceptualization to understand genres. Figure 8 displays these levels diagrammatically.

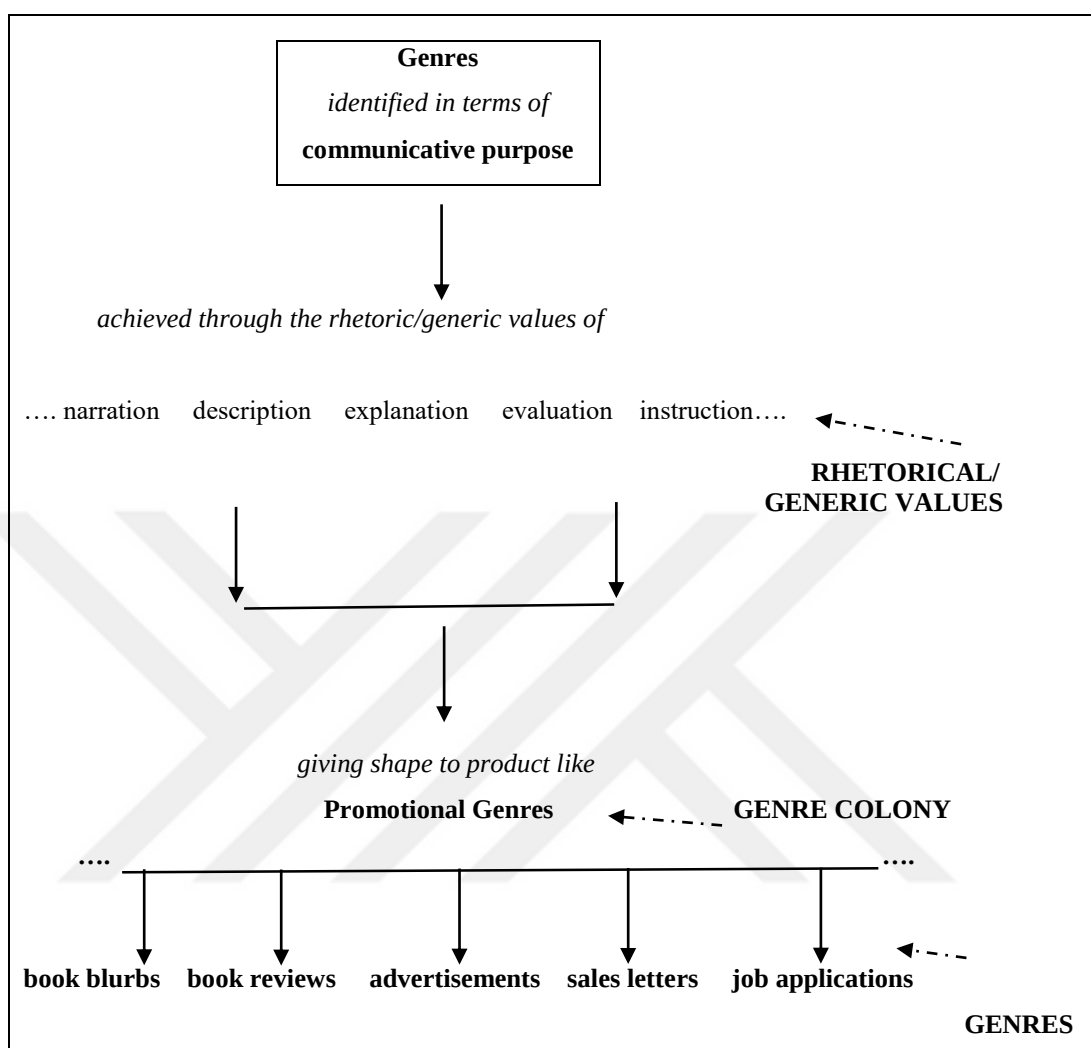


Figure 8. Levels of generic description (Bhatia, 2002, p. 281).

The category of *generic value* constitutes the top level. The grounded contextual constraints do not have an impact on this category. As shown in the figure, the second level is that of the *genre colony*. This category is not strictly contextualized in terms of the situations which are recognizable socially. The third level is comprised of *individually identifiable generic constructs*.

Hyon (1996) also states that theorists and practitioners have divergent views of the description of genre and its importance for the classroom, which affects the conceptualization and application of this term. Some genre theories are grounded in language and text structure. Flowerdew (2002) refers to these theories as linguistic theories, for they focus on language and the texts themselves. The Sydney School and, to some extent, English for Specific Purposes derive from linguistic theories; theories of functional grammar and discourse are

applied in with an emphasis on the lexico-grammatical and rhetorical realization of communicative purposes. In contrast, in contextually grounded genre theories, rhetorical situation is emphasized (Johns, 2002a). That is to say, the purposes and functions of genres are analyzed along with the values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors of members of the related discourse communities. Hence, Ramanathan and Kaplan (2000) state that the following features regarding genres need to be taken into account:

- Genres evolve and change to meet the growing and changing socio-cognitive needs of discourse communities;
- Genres evolve and develop to meet the needs of changing technology;
- Genres evolve to adapt to changes in ideology and world-view in discourse communities;
- Genres change as individuals take liberties with textual conventions. (pp. 180-83)

As these features reveal, discourse communities and dynamism have a significant and an evolving impact on genres. To be able to better grasp genres, context(s) should be analyzed along with text(s).

In addition to these divergent views, other tensions exist among theories and practices. In some theories and practices, genres are examined in terms of stability, and whether they can be taught in the classroom is debated if they are “so slippery and evolving” (Johns, 2002a, p. 4). It is asserted in these theories that designing a genre-based curriculum may not be feasible as genres are thoroughly contextualized. Other theories examine the relationships among authority, power, and genres. Thus, both theorists and practitioners are obliged to clarify the approach to be promoted. With a pragmatic approach, they may consider genres as positive artifacts of the culture to be acquired by learners to become successful language learners. However, with a more critical approach to genres, learners are encouraged to challenge and resist the target culture’s hegemonic texts.

In spite of the aforementioned tensions, Kress (1991) asserts that genre theorists share the following assumptions:

- that forms of text (genres) are the result of processes of social production;
- that given the relative stability of social structures, forms of text produced in and by specific social institutions, that is, the resultant genres, will attain a certain degree of stability and of persistence over time;
- that consequently, texts in their generic form are not produced *ab initio* each time by an individual (or individuals) expressing an inner meaning, but are, rather, the effects of the action of individual social agents acting *both* within the bounds of their social history *and* the constraints of particular contexts, and with a knowledge of existing generic types;

- that, given the social provenance of genres, different genres “have”, convey, and give access to different degrees and kinds of social power;
- that genres have specifiable linguistic characteristics which are neither fully determined nor largely under the control of individual speakers or writers;
- that knowledge of the characteristics of texts and of their social place and power can and should form a part of any curriculum, whether in one subject area, or “across the curriculum”. (p. 10, as cited in Feez, 2002, pp. 53-54)

From Kress’s point of view, genres are multifaceted, and various factors, the most important of which are social factors, contribute to the formation, description, and understanding of genres.

More recently, Devitt (2009) has pointed out the common claims shared by most genre theories regarding genres:

- Genres are social and rhetorical actions: they develop their languages and forms out of rhetorical aims and contexts shared by groups of users.
- The spread of a genre creates shared aims and social structures.
- As new users acquire genres, that process reinforces existing aims and structures.
- Existing genres reinforce institutional and cultural norms and ideologies.
- To change genres, individually or historically, is to change shared aims, structures, and norms. (p. 342)

Similar to Kress, Devitt also highlights the contextual, social, cultural, and institutional factors that impact the emergence, nature, and development of genres. In sum, genres reflect shared aims, structures, and norms.

Hence, an effective genre instruction requires social and rhetorical aspects to be taken into account in addition to linguistic aspects. In other words, genres should be analyzed and taught in light of cultural norms and ideologies. However, focusing on different aspects in the genre theories leads to different pedagogical responses. When genres are regarded as rhetorical actions, learners can have a rhetorical understanding by having access to the language and forms of genres. If genres are considered to be social actions, on the other hand, learners can gain insight into and agency within the aims and structures of groups by accessing different forms of genres. Learning and becoming conscious about genres helps learners reduce the impact of the propagation and reinforcement of dominant norms/ideologies if genres are related to structures and ideologies. Finally, if changing genres can change these existing norms and ideologies, learners, then, can change the aims, structures, and even norms of the group by changing genres (Devitt, 2009).

In a nutshell, although common assumptions exist among genre theories, different scholarly traditions have led to a complicated body of genre literature depending on the

emphasis given to text or context (Hyland, 2002). That is why a thorough understanding of genre literature requires the elaborate exploration of these traditions. Hyon (1996) describes the genre schools as Systemic Functional Linguistics (also referred to as the Sydney School), English for Specific Purposes, and the New Rhetoric. Genre, as a term, was first used in the area of English for Specific Purposes at the beginning of the 1980s. The Australian work on genre was initiated at a similar time with research on children's writing. In North America, genre studies, called the New Rhetoric, were incorporated into composition studies and was influenced by Miller's 1984 paper, "Genre as social action" (Paltridge, 2007, p. 931), which reflects a social perspective on genres.

a. The Systemic Functional Linguistics Approach

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has evolved as an independent genre approach despite being developed in the same period as other genre theories, namely, the English for Specific Purposes approach and the New Rhetoric (Hyon, 1996). SFL, developed by Michael Halliday, has been influenced by the Prague School of Linguistics (Young, 2011). Therefore, it reflects a social view of language. Language is perceived as a resource which provides a wide range of choices rather than a set of rules. In SFL, language is described both internally and externally; that is, as a formal system which allows to express meanings and as a cultural and social phenomenon (Young, 2011).

Also known as "Sydney School" (e.g., Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002a) in the USA, this model of genre highlights "the purposeful, interactive, and sequential character of different genres and the ways language is systematically linked to context through patterns of lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features" (Christie & Martin, 1997, as cited in Hyland, 2003, pp. 21-22). Hyon (1996) refers to this approach as the Sydney School as it was implemented by linguists and instructors from the University of Sydney in Australia for pre-university learners and adult immigrants (Hyland, 2002; Hyland, 2007). In addition to the linguistic features of written texts, the ways these features can be highlighted in the classroom are emphasized in this genre approach (Hyon, 1996).

SFL is concerned with the analysis of the relationship between language, as a resource for making meaning, and its functions in the social settings in which it is used. The model emphasizes a systematic relationship between context and text and suggests that different situations influence the functions of language (Young, 2011). That is, the choices made from the language system are constrained by certain features in the context (Christie, 2016).

With a social semiotics perspective, linguistic features and social functions are analyzed at two levels: register and genre (Halliday, 1978). In SFL, language is systematically

analyzed in relation to the context in which it occurs (Feez, 2002). In the functional systemic model, text and context are intertwined, which is a key construct of the model (Halliday, 1985). Text is concerned with linguistic features, and context is mainly about rhetorical structures. Thus, SFL scholars advocate that rather than being fixed, academic genres are situated (Correa & Echeverri, 2017).

According to the proponents of this approach, the main features of the surrounding social context shape the language forms that are utilized. That is why SFL scholars state that fixed rules which can be applied to all texts do not exist since contexts, purposes, and audiences need to be taken into consideration (Correa & Echeverri, 2017). Contextual variables influence the choices of register (Halliday, 1978). Halliday and Hasan (1989) refer to the three elements that determine the register of language as field, tenor, and mode. These are considered to be the constituent parts of context of situation.

Field (the topic of language) is defined as the activity going on. It is about the nature of the social action and the subject matter of the text (e.g., computational linguistics). *Tenor* (community relationship) refers to the social relationships that exist between the interactants in a given speech situation, namely the statuses and role relationships of the participants taking part in the interaction (e.g., speaker/listener; writer/reader). In this sense, it is concerned with relations of affect, formality, and power. It impacts interpersonal choices in the linguistic system; thus, the structures and the strategies preferred to initiate the linguistic exchange are also influenced. *Mode* (the organization of text), the final element, is about the rhetorical channel and function of the discourse. It is mainly about the role of the text in communication (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Through mode, how the language is being used in the speech interaction (e.g., spoken, written, written to be spoken, and so forth) is analyzed in addition to the rhetorical mode (e.g., expository, instructive, persuasive, and so forth).

In Halliday's theory, rather than genre, register is the central construct in the analysis of language. However, some of his Australian students' theories have focused more on genre within a systemic functional framework (e.g., Jim Martin). Scholars in this school use the terms genre and text type interchangeably (e.g., Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998; Biber, 1989) based on textual organization or basic elemental genres (i.e., expository, argumentative essay). Genre units, including essays, research reports, and political speeches are labelled as macro-genres (Hyland, 2007). In educational settings, however, rather than 'genre', the term 'text type' has been adopted because of being "more transparent and accessible" to teachers and students (Derewianka, 2003, p. 135).

The analysis of a wide range of genres based on the functional model of language involves a clausal explanation of lexico-grammatical patterns and an explanation of how the immediate situation in terms of field, tenor, and mode influence the text. Therefore, SFL has greatly influenced CDA, and social and visual semiotics (also known as multimodality) since a SFL-based analysis reveals the reasons for the certain choices that have been made and the ways in which inequalities are expressed discursively (Young, 2011).

b. The English for Specific Purposes Approach

The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) genre approach has had a significant impact on L2 writing instruction worldwide (Hyland, 2003). In contrast to the former approach, the ESP approach has a more linguistic orientation. Genres, in this approach, are structured communicative events employed by particular discourse communities the members of which share common social purposes (Swales, 1990, pp. 45-47, as cited in Hyland, 2003). These purposes, which shape the ways a genre is structured in terms of choices of content and style it makes available, act as the rationale of a genre (Johns, 1997, as cited in Hyland, 2003). According to Swales (1990, p. 58), genres are “communicative events that are characterized both by their communicative purposes and by various patterns of structure, style, content and intended audience” (as cited in Hyon, 1996, p. 695). To put it simply, genres are analyzed regarding their formal properties, rhetorical organization, and communicative purposes within social contexts (Motta-Roth & Heberle, 2015). As genres are framed and defined as oral and written text types based on their formal properties and communicative purposes in addition to the social contexts in which they occur (Hyon, 1996), they are regarded as a tool to analyze and teach both the spoken and written language nonnative speakers are required to use in academic and professional settings. That is to say, both form and social function are highlighted in the ESP approach to genre (Hyland, 2002). Similar to SFL, ESP also emphasizes social purpose and context in addressing text types. However, ESP differs from SFL in that it does not reflect “an all-embracing theory of language and social experience” (Christie, 2016, p. 3).

A number of ESP scholars have analyzed structural moves in genres, including research articles (e.g., Swales, 1981, 1990), master of science dissertations (e.g., Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988), medical abstracts (e.g., Salager-Meyer, 1990), popularized medical research reports (e.g., Nwogu, 1991), business letters (e.g., Bhatia, 1993), and university lectures (e.g., Thompson, 1994) to reveal global organizational patterns in the related texts (as cited in Hyon, 1996). Other scholars, in contrast, have examined sentence-level grammatical features (i.e., verb tense, hedges, passive voice) in the aforementioned text types (Hanania &

Akhtar, 1985; Salager-Meyer, 1994; Swales, 1990a; Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, & Icke, 1981, as cited in Hyon, 1996).

The proponents of the ESP approach (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990) advocate that nonnative speakers of English can master the linguistic conventions and functions of texts when they are provided with genre-based applications. As a result, they can become better readers and writers.

c. The New Rhetoric Approach

The New Rhetoric approach, which was proposed by North American scholars (e.g., Bazerman, 1988; Freedman & Medway, 1994; Miller, 1984), has been influenced by post-structuralism, rhetoric, and first language composition (as cited in Hyland, 2003). Thus, various disciplines concerned with L1 teaching, including rhetoric, composition studies, and professional writing, are involved in the analysis and understanding of genres (Hyon, 1996). The New Rhetoric genre studies were mainly conducted in the L1 context by applying Bakhtin's recognition theory (1986) of dialogue with postmodern social and literary scheme (Phichiensathien, 2016). The social, cultural, and historical contexts in which genres operate are of paramount importance in this genre approach (Derewainka, 2003).

Genre is studied "as the motivated, functional relationship between text type and rhetorical situation" in this approach (Coe, 2002, p. 195). The rhetorical contexts in which genres are used are regarded more critical than the analyses of text elements (e.g., Freedman & Medway, 1994, as cited in Hyland, 2003). Rather than the language forms, the focus is on the situational contexts and the social purposes or actions these genres fulfill within these situations (Bazerman, 1988, 1994; Campbell & Jamieson, 1978; Coe, 1994a; Devitt, 1993; Freedman & Medway, 1994d; Miller, 1984, 1994; Schryer, 1993, 1994; Slevin, 1988; Smart, 1993; Van Nostrand, 1994; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992, as cited in Hyon, 1996). Different from the other genre approaches, researchers focus more on situational and socio-contextual aspects of genres in the New Rhetoric approach (Flowerdew, 2002; Hyland, 2002). The proponents of the New Rhetoric reject the SFL-based work since this approach reflects a dynamic genre approach which is responsive to social process and change (Christie, 2016). New Rhetoricians have been criticized by SFL linguists due to the lack of specific genre examples. Figure 9 presents these different approaches to genre.

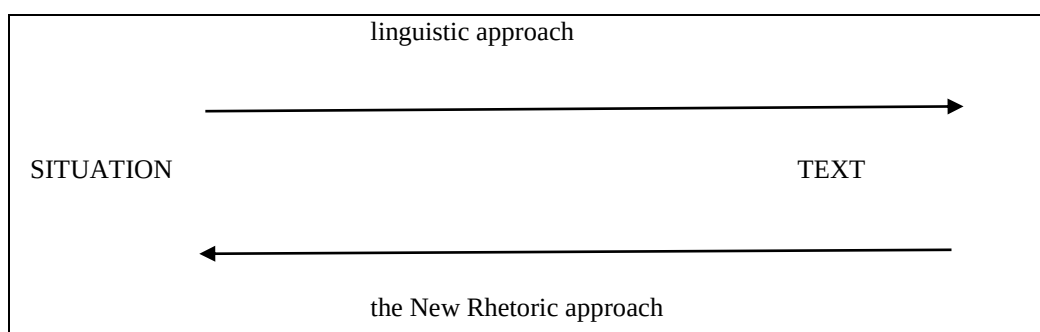


Figure 9. The two approaches to genre (Flowerdew, 2002, p. 92).

As the figure shows, SFL and the ESP approach have a linguistic orientation; thus, they focus more on the text, whereas, the New Rhetoric approach is concerned more with the situational and socio-contextual factors. Table 14 presents an overview of the concept of genre in the three approaches (Phichiensathien, 2016, p. 237).

Table 14

A summary of genre issue in three approaches

Issue of genre	NR School	Australian SFL	ESP
Definition	Social action	Staged, social action	Communicative event
Context/focus	Specific communities	Two levels in situation of context (register) and cultural context (genre)	Discourse communities share own set of genre (e.g. discipline and field)
Conceptual framework	Bakhtin's notion of dialogism (1986)	Halliday's SFL	Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS (academic-research articles create research-spaces) and Bhatia's (1993) moves
Analysis	Ethnographic methods	Schematic structure and stage in micro-genre (or text type) (e.g., essay) and contextual variation in register (pattern) (e.g., narrative)	Two levels of move analysis (move and step) in schematic structure and linguistic features
Pedagogical contexts	L1-general writing and social context	All educational levels, primary, secondary school and adult migrant learners; more focus on rhetorical structure and lexico-grammatical features	Academic writing and professional courses in L2 graduate and post graduate learners; focus on authentic research articles within discourse communities

Note: NR: New Rhetoric; SFL: Systemic Functional Linguistics; ESP: English for Specific Purposes.

Bazerman (1988) asserts the formal and the surface features should be highlighted while teaching genres, however, to him, language instructors also need “to enhance students’ understanding of all of the “life” embodied in texts (p. 320). Language teachers are encouraged to expose learners to a number of academic genres and provide practice opportunities which will help them identify and respond to certain genres (Hyon, 1996). Thus, the major aim is to help language learners understand the actions or social functions of genres and the contexts they are used in (Bazerman, 1988; Devitt, 1993; Miller, 1994). In Miller’s (1984) terms, “a rhetorically sound definition of genre must be centered not on the substance or the form of discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish” (p. 151).

Different from the SFL and ESP approaches to genre, the New Rhetoric theory provides language teachers with “fuller perspectives on the institutional contexts around academic and professional genres and the functions genres serve within these settings” (Hyon, 1996, p. 693). A genre is regarded as the functional interaction of the text type and type of situation (Hyland, 2003). Texts emerge as a response to texts. Hence, both the lexicogrammatical features and rhetorical features are taken into consideration (Coe, 2002). However, some New Rhetoric theorists advocate that genres are too complex to be taught in the classroom (Johns, 2002a) since authentic reading and writing are mostly dialogic (Hunt, 1994, as cited in Johns, 2002a). In this sense, the classroom is not an authentic place to acquire genres, which are considered to be dynamic and evolving. In the New Rhetoric approach, contextual analysis of genres is deemed more important than their linguistic analysis. Compared to the rhetorical situation, context in this approach is more complex because it involves more than audience, purposes, and occasion and reveals the possessors of power.

Hence, critical theorists explore the power relationships between hegemonic texts and learners who are learning about these texts. As stated in Fajardo’s (2015) review, theoretical frameworks that examine “learners’ access to genres (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Janks, 2010)”, design practices based on “Kress and van Leeuwen’s multimodal design theory (2006)”, or “the New London Group’s theory of multi-literacies (1996)” are used in critical literacy studies (p. 39). With regard to the critical analysis of genres, Coe (1994, p. 161) suggests posing the following questions:

- What sort of communication does this genre encourage? What sorts does it constrain against?
- Does it empower some people while silencing others?
- Are its effects dysfunctional beyond their immediate context?
- What are the political and ethical implications of the rhetorical situation assumed by a particular genre?

- What does the genre dignify (for example about a discourse community)?
(as cited in Johns, 2001, p. 9)

Genre analysis in the New Rhetoric theory views genres as textual tools that are utilized for social and hegemonic purposes; therefore, it has to address the critical area and take the contexts and ideologies into consideration in order not to reproduce the dominant discourse. Figure 10 summarizes the relationship between text and context in the three approaches to genre.

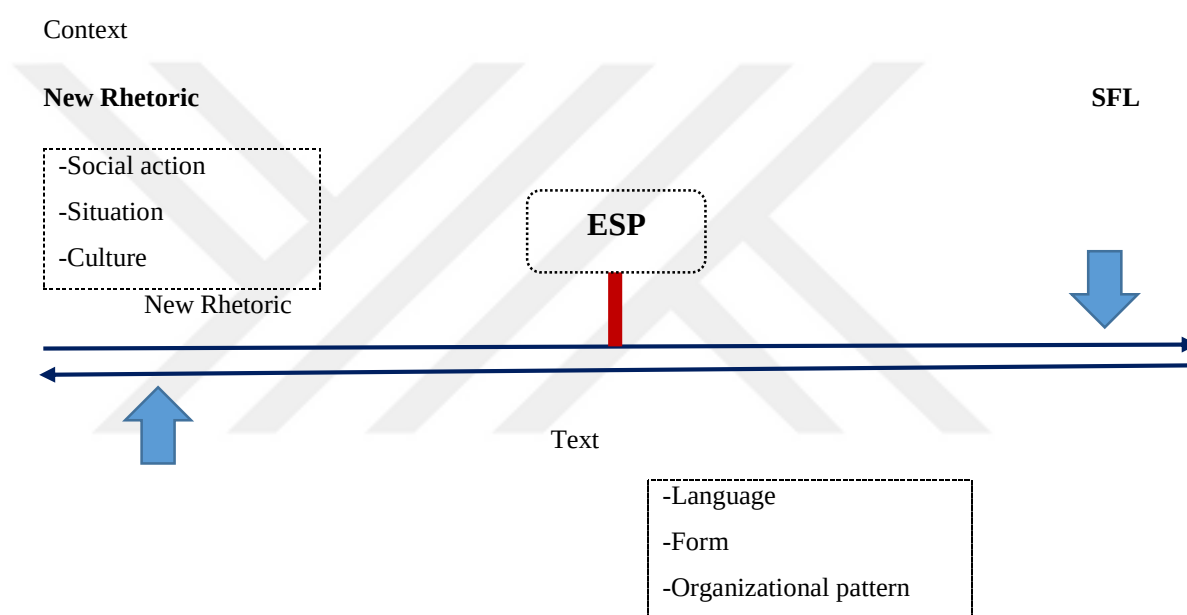


Figure 10. Relationships between text and context according to the three approaches (Phichiensathien, 2016, p. 238).

In spite of these differences in the understanding and conceptualization of genre, Johns (2001) proposes eight principles upon which genre theorists and practitioners could agree:

1. Texts are socially constructed. The influence of community and culture, however these are defined, is considerable, in both text processing and production.
2. Texts are purposeful, and their functions are at least partially determined by the context and the community long before the writer (or reader) begins to process them.
3. Some genres, like some language registers, are valued more than others within a community. This is a reality that can be accepted, or critiqued, by teachers, researchers, theorists, and students.

4. Textual conventions are often subject to community constraints, and the writer needs to consider working within these boundaries. Form, as well as other text features, is strongly influenced by the conventions of a genre and the particular situation in which the text is being produced.
5. The grammar of expository texts, including the meta-discourse, is functional; that is, it serves community and writer purposes within a genre and context.
6. What is present, and absent, in texts, such as content and argumentation, is often regulated by a community or the particular context in which the text is operating.
7. Genres are ideologically driven; even, or especially, in educational institutions, there are no texts that are free from the values and purposes of those involved in producing and processing them.
8. Finally, the language of texts, whether it be vocabulary, grammar, meta-discourse, or other features, should never be taught separately from rhetorical considerations. Language is purposefully chosen and used by expert writers. (pp. 12-13)

These principles may lead to new directions in theory and practice regarding genre research and help the development of more contextualized approaches to the teaching of different literacies.

Even though SFL, ESP, and New Rhetoric research have contributed to the development of genre-based pedagogy in diverse directions and emphasized different goals in language instruction, all genre approaches reveal how vital it is to gain genre awareness. The overarching aim in these approaches is to help learners attain higher levels of success in reading and writing not only in academic contexts but also in workplaces. Knowing particular genres is necessary in disciplines, professions, and in the academy (Hyon, 1996). Thus, genres should be incorporated into the language teaching curriculum to help learners grasp “how language is structured to achieve social purposes in particular contexts of use” (Hyland, 2007, p. 148) and to provide students with explicit and systematic instruction of how writing works to communicate as genre-based reading instruction pulls together language, content, and contexts (Christie & Martin, 1997).

2.4.1. Genre Pedagogy

Genre Pedagogy aims at responding to how language, which is goal-oriented (Derewianka, 2003), works in human interaction (Hyland, 2007). Genre pedagogies enable both instructors and learners to understand the choices individuals make to realize their purposes in social contexts because they unite language, content, and contexts. That is, Genre Pedagogy suggests that these are interrelated, and all should be taken into consideration in the

analysis of language. They also provide instructors with a means of teaching the ways writing works to communicate explicitly and systematically (Christie & Martin, 1997).

Genre Pedagogy, having derived from SFL and Halliday's functional grammar, requires explicit teaching of texts in contexts. Genre-based pedagogy emerged with a concern to provide learners with social equity and to ensure that all students have access to the linguistic resources needed for academic success, not with the concern of teaching the syntactic structures of languages at sentence level. This model focuses on meaning and the organization of whole texts rather than solely focusing on form and isolated sentences (Derewianka, 2003). To scaffold students' learning, grammar, and lexis are systematically linked to text (Feez, 2002). Genre-based literacy pedagogy analyzes "how the organization of language is related to its use" (Martin, 1997, p. 4). It is emphasized in social perspectives on language that writers' choices are always context-dependent (Hyland, 2003). Figure 11 shows the relationship between language and social context.

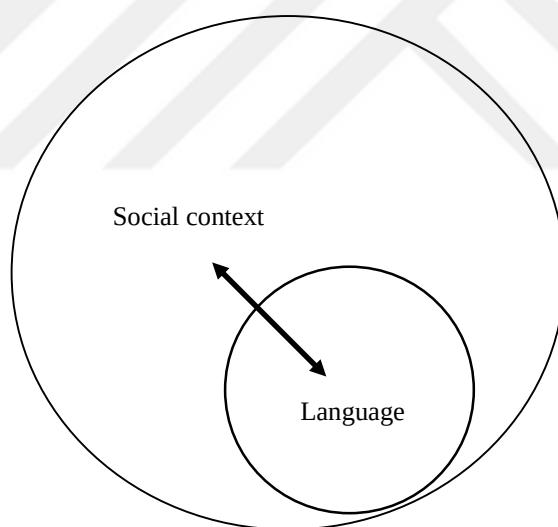


Figure 11. Language as the realization of social context (Martin, 1997, p. 4).

Genre-based pedagogy helps learners "see how content experts use language in discipline specific ways" (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010, p. 596). The goal of Genre Pedagogy is to explore opportunities for scaffolding learning in the classroom and assisting learners to consciously understand target genres and meanings created by language in different contexts with the knowledge of language (Hyland, 2003). In genre-based instruction, it is proposed that genres are specific to particular cultures (Hyland, 2007, p. 150). Hence, instruction should not solely incorporate the teaching of syntactic structures and vocabulary. Instead, the primary

aim of reading instruction should be analyzing the language that is used in particular contexts, including social contexts. In Hyland's (2007) terms, genre-based instruction "assists students to exploit the expressive potential of society's discourse structures instead of merely being manipulated by them" (p. 150). Table 15 presents the main advantages of Genre Pedagogy (Hyland, 2004, pp. 10-16).

Table 15

Advantages of Genre Pedagogy in reading instruction

Explicit	Makes clear what is to be learnt to facilitate the acquisition of writing skills
Systematic	Provides a coherent framework for focusing on both language and contexts
Needs-based	Ensures that course objectives and content are derived from students' needs
Supportive	Gives teachers a central role in scaffolding students' learning and creativity
Empowering	Provides access to the patterns and possibilities of variation in valued texts
Critical	Provides the resources for students to understand and challenge valued discourses
Consciousness-raising	Increases teachers' awareness of texts to confidently advise students on writing

As the table illustrates, by providing a framework that emphasizes language and different contexts, Genre Pedagogy helps learners in the acquisition of reading and writing skills. In addition, it enables the teacher to identify and cater students' needs, which leads to scaffolded student learning and creativity. Once learners are able to figure out varied patterns in the target texts, they are more likely to understand and challenge the discourses that are valued. Genre Pedagogy differs from other approaches in that it comprises all of these advantages (Hyland, 2019). Using different genres obviously contributes to the development of learners' reading skills (Kader, 2008) as learning about genres allows learners to critically engage with textual as well as cultural practices (Hyland, 2019). Johns (1995) points out the benefits of collaboration with learners in Genre Pedagogy. She suggests scaffolding learners in establishing the name of genre category, hypothesizing about readers' and writers' roles and purposes, text typification and variation, similarities among genre categories, and the context and community. In brief, Genre Pedagogy increases not only learners' but also teachers' awareness of texts.

Devitt (2009, p. 345) proposes three genre pedagogies that are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Genre pedagogies

Teaching genres as particles/things: Particular genres	Teaching genres as waves/processes: Antecedents	Teaching genres as fields/contexts: Awareness
Goal: to learn to write particular genres	Goal: to learn how to build on prior genres when learning new genres	Goal: to learn how to critique and change existing genres
Particle/Thing: What relevant genres exist? How can they best be categorized?	Particle/Thing: What genres serve as antecedents for other genres?	Particle/Thing: What are the components of critical awareness? How do they apply to genres?
What genres do these novices need to learn?	What genres best establish potential antecedents?	Which genres lend themselves to developing critical awareness?
What are the components of those genres?		What components of genres lend themselves to developing critical awareness?
Wave/Process: How have these forms changed over time?	Wave/Process: How do people draw on known genres when encountering less familiar genres?	How do conscious writers critique and change genres?
How do experts acquire these genres?	Which part of these processes can be made explicit and taught?	What experiences do writers need to have to develop genre awareness?
How can novices learn these genres?		How can genres be changed? How can novices participate in that change?

During instruction, genres may be perceived as things, or they are perceived as processes taking place within larger contexts. In this sense, rhetorical analysis is the first step since genres are regarded as elements having purposes rather than rules only. Genres may also be as processes which are unstable since they emerge and change. Finally, in other views of genre, it is stated that genres serve the aims of groups, institutions, and cultures. As indicated in these genre pedagogies, genres are constructs that are created, dynamic, and ideological.

“Without developing their genre awareness, people are more at the mercy of existing genres and existing power structures and dynamics” (Devitt, 2009, p. 347). Therefore, genre-based reading instruction is a great opportunity for language teachers to improve learners’ critical literacy skills and become both critical readers and individuals. As a part of critical

education, genre pedagogies can help learners recognize the power of genres and enhance learners' powers.

In recent genre approaches, genres are considered as actions in social contexts (Derewianka, 2003; Derewianka, 2012; Devitt, 2009; Hyland, 2002; Hyland, 2003), for they provide an understanding of the social and cultural contexts in which they occur (Derewianka, 2003; Derewianka, 2012; Paltridge, 2002). Therefore, teaching a particular genre requires teaching the context of the genre to be taught (Devitt, 2009; Martin, 2009). Teachers' choice of genres that will be used in the classroom means selecting ideologies which those genres will instill in their students. In other words, a particular genre carries a particular ideology (Devitt, 2009); thus, genres need to be deconstructed in order to reveal their ideological positioning (Derewianka, 2003). Taking all these into consideration, it should, then, be noted that teachers should have genre awareness as well; they should consciously make their genre choices being aware of what those decisions will teach students. Teachers are able to teach genres explicitly in their classrooms after gaining genre awareness themselves.

An explicit teaching of genres involves teaching students how to read or write particular genres. However, teaching genres with a "show and tell" approach may not be adequate for raising critical genre awareness (Devitt, 2009). Instead of adopting a prescriptive approach to teaching genres focusing on formulaic and static rules or conventions, teachers should emphasize a text's social purpose since genres are not only linguistically embedded but also socially and culturally embedded (Derewianka, 2003). Hence, the goal in Genre Pedagogy is to provide learners with access to language, structures, and institutions which are essential for learners' multifaceted development, including their individual, academic, and professional development.

According to Devitt (2000), however, explicit teaching of genres may have some dangers and limitations in terms of learners' critical awareness if it does not aim to develop awareness of a wide range of genres; learners need to have expanded genre awareness to be able to grasp the purposes and constraints of different types of genres (as cited in Christie, 2016). Thus, while implementing Genre Pedagogy, teachers should take the following points into consideration:

- Joint construction involves negotiation between the teacher and learner, not domination by teacher. Both the teacher and learner need to have a shared understanding of the context and of the meanings being negotiated. Problems are shared, and the teacher only asks direct questions when learners show they have a chance of success. Throughout this process, learners are thinking and making choices to contribute to the joint construction.

- Teachers have to create contexts in which the use of the target language is legitimate and meaningful. Teachers also have to decide what kind of texts to use.
- Jointly constructed and negotiated meanings are best supported or scaffolded within predictable and familiar routines, or cycles, of interaction and activity over extended periods of time.
- Teachers use scaffolding to monitor the level of difficulty as control is gradually handed over to the learner. (Gray, 1987, pp. 35-38, as cited in Feez, 2002, p. 57)

Despite their critical role in Genre Pedagogy, teachers' domination is not desired throughout the language teaching and learning process. Learners should actively take part in this joint construction. Thus, teachers are expected to scaffold learning by selecting appropriate texts and creating contexts to present meaningful uses of the target language. In this sense, the curriculum cycle developed by Rothery and Macken is the most influential model that has been widely implemented in genre instruction in various contexts. The cycle, based on Bruner's (1978) notion of scaffolding, suggests a more direct and supportive role for teachers at the initial stages of learning (as cited in Derewianka, 2003). The phases in the curriculum cycle involve "developing an understanding of the field; familiarization with the genre; developing control over the genre; independent construction; extending and critiquing; and creative exploitation of the genre" (Derewianka, 2003, p. 146). As the phases indicate, learners become more independent in the learning process once they develop more control over the genres that are being taught.

The curriculum cycle was developed specifically for speakers of English as a first and second language. To teach genres in EFL contexts, Flowerdew (2002) suggests implementing the following pedagogical strategies:

- Presentation of complete text or range of texts with similar schematic structure as models for writing (modelling).
- Identification of text structure of model texts by means of information transfer activities such as completing tables, or by color-coding different information slots.
- Exercises in meta-communicating-glossing model texts in terms of their structural moves and examining the linguistic realizations of the various moves.
- Reassembling jumbled model texts into the correct sequence in order to create awareness of schematic structure.
- Examining relations of form and meaning for individual moves.
- Cloze exercises focusing on key signaling items of moves of model texts.
- Intensive lexico-grammatical language work. Discrete items, as per the generic description, are singled out for intensive presentation and practice,

for example, formation and use of the passive, post-modification, sub-technical lexis.

- Completion of model texts with move or sentences deleted.
- Exercises in paraphrasing. Students provide alternative possible encodings for the moves.
- Eliciting information to be included in the writing task, based on the schematic structure.
- Creating tables or charts based on the schematic structure.
- Creating the text from the schematic structure table or chart.
- Group/pair work assessing the effectiveness of the finished text.
- Comparing text types across different genres. (p. 101)

Overall, Genre Pedagogy can be utilized as a framework to systematically select, organize, and sequence the elements of the text-based syllabus in various language teaching contexts. In all variations of Genre Pedagogy, it is aimed to develop learners' critical literacy skills (Rothery, 1996, pp. 116-120, as cited in Feez, 2002). As a result, the EFL reading curricula should be redesigned having the genre as the central component of reading instruction so as to help language learners become more critical readers. Genre Pedagogy in ELT provides learners with benefits, for it pulls together language, content, and contexts (Kusumaningrum, 2015). In sum, Genre Pedagogy is an instructional tool that enables learners to gain the required skills to cope with various texts that have emerged and will emerge in a rapidly changing world (Coe, 2002).

2.4.2. Genre-based reading instruction

Today, scholars have agreed upon the key role reading plays in ELT, thus, a number of techniques and procedures to boost ESL/EFL learners' reading skills, including task-based and genre-based instruction in reading (see Brown, 2001; Ellis, 2008; Rosa & Leow, 2004) were proposed, and studies were conducted on teaching reading strategies and genre-based instruction to facilitate foreign language learning and effective reading (see Anderson, 2003; Akyel & Ercetin, 2009, as cited in Hyland, 2004). In a number of schema and genre studies (see e.g., Carrell, 1985; Davis, Lange, & Samuels, 1988; Hewings & Henderson, 1987; Grabe, 2002, as cited in Hyon, 2002), which provided both experimental and anecdotal evidence, the role of instruction in developing L2 learners' understanding of the structure of genres and enhancing their effective reading skills has been foregrounded.

Genre-based approach, also called genre-based instruction, has emerged as an outcome of communicative approaches to language teaching (Hyland, 2004). Genre-based instruction has currently become a trend to teaching language skills (Wennerstrom, 2003) to native speakers of English and ESL and EFL learners in primary, secondary, tertiary,

professional, and community teaching contexts in countries, such as Australia, Canada, China, Hong Kong, Italy, Singapore, South Africa, Sweden, Thailand, UK, and USA (Derewianka, 2003). The developments in discourse and genre analysis, Schema Theory, pragmatics, and SFL have led to an enhanced interest in the functionally based approaches to language teaching (Rodgers, 2001).

Genre-based approach and genre-based applications in the classroom emphasize the critical role of language and aim at helping learners attain specific purposes in context (Hyland, 2004). To Bakhtin (1986), “many people who have an excellent command of a language often feel quite helpless in certain spheres of communication precisely because they do not have a practical command of the generic forms used in the given spheres” (p. 80, as cited in Coe, 2002). Derewianka (2003) suggests that “learning new genres is seen as extending the learner’s meaning-making potential” (p. 143). Johns (1997) also advocates that effective readers need to possess knowledge regarding genres, the names of genres, their formal features and communicative purposes, the roles of the reader and writer, content, and contexts (p. 21, as cited in Hyon, 2002). Thus, genre features should be explicitly taught to enable learners to have a better understanding of genres and richer repertoire of genres (Johns, 2002b).

A variety of texts are used in academic settings, and it is crucial that learners are instructed on the organizational patterns of different texts and the features of different genres for enhanced reading skills and levels of comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). When provided with genre knowledge, language learners are able to grasp an understanding of the social and cultural contexts in which genres occur and analyze the ways these factors affect the language choices in different genres (Paltridge, 2002). Hence, genre-based reading instruction has been proposed by many scholars (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Devitt, 2009; Hyland, 2007; Hyon, 1995; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 1995; Johns, 2002b; Swales, 1990) to enhance language learning, for genre-based instruction is “explicit, systematic, needs-based, consciousness-raising, critical, empowering, and supportive” (Hyland, 2007, p. 150).

Different from L2 learners, L1 learners have the opportunity to compare and contrast the unfamiliar genres with the genres that they are familiar with. However, foreign language learners may have the language learning materials as the only contact. “They are not in a position to negotiate their way into engaging a new genre as L1 students are” (Flowerdew, 2002, p. 100). That is why an overt focus on and systematic exposure to genres in foreign language contexts are vital, which may help these learners grasp an understanding of a range of generic features of a variety of genres. Recent studies have indicated that implementing

genre-based instruction in teaching reading skills has a positive effect on learners' reading abilities (e.g., Alidib, 2004; Shishehsaz, 2006, as cited in Adelnia & Salehi, 2016).

A review of the literature has revealed that the studies that have been conducted regarding the use of genres in reading instruction in the EFL context (e.g., Adelnia & Salehi, 2016; Haria & Midgette, 2014; Kalali & Piskhar, 2015; Karbalaee & Hajezi, 2016; Minaabad & Khoshkholgh, 2012; Rozimela, 2014; Sadeghi, Hassani, & Hemmati, 2013; Shishehsaz, 2006) are limited. Genre studies that aimed to enhance learners' reading comprehension skills in various language teaching contexts have only recently been conducted. Most of these studies (e.g., Al Gurkosh, 2015; Haria & Midgette, 2014; Kalali & Piskhar, 2015; Minaabad & Khoshkholgh, 2012; Sadeghi, Hassani, & Hemmati, 2013; Shishehsaz, 2006) have been conducted as experimental studies to investigate the impact of genre-based reading instruction on learners' reading comprehension. The results of the studies have indicated the supremacy of the treatment groups that received genre-based research instruction, which displayed a significant relationship between students' knowledge of genres and their reading comprehension. There was a statistically significant difference between the reading comprehension of the participants who underwent genre-based instruction. Overall, the results have indicated the effectiveness of genre-based reading instruction on students' reading comprehension and revealed the importance of genre-based instruction.

Teachers' "major responsibility is to help students to become genre theorists in the true sense: to destabilize their often simplistic and sterile theories of texts and enrich their views of the complexity of text processing, negotiation, and production within communities of practice" (Johns, 2002b, p. 240). Hyon (2002) also asserts that when learners are familiarized with different genres and varying genre features, their reading speed increases. Moreover, they are likely to have higher levels of confidence and enjoyment in reading. In a nutshell, with enhanced genre awareness, learners become more efficient and confident both in text processing and production (Hyon, 2002).

However, Benesch (1993) points out the importance of ideological dimensions of genre in the language teaching process. Instead of an "accommodationist ideology", she proposes "a pedagogy of critical academic ESL" (p. 715) to boost resistance and social participation of language learners to academic practices. As a result, academic and professional texts should be taught with a critical and ideological approach, and such an approach should be introduced in the appropriate levels and types of classrooms (Hyon, 1996).

Although the importance of genres and implementing genre-based reading instruction have been emphasized in genre studies, some scholars and teachers often consider genres to

be “formulaic and constraining” (Devitt, 2009, p. 337). They are believed to have a negative impact on learning inhibiting creativity. When taught as forms solely, without analyzing social and cultural meanings, the use of genres in the language classroom can indeed be formulaic and constraining. Genre teaching can be “enlightening and freeing” when genres are taught within the scope of a greater critical awareness (Devitt, 2009, p. 337). Owing to their ideological nature, genres enable students to have a more critical understanding both as readers and as writers. When they are taught in the way that learners can gain critical genre awareness, they are more likely to perceive the impact of genres and make generic choices deliberately as writers. Devitt proposes that through critical genre awareness, students can gain and maintain a critical stance in literacy, academic writing, and various disciplinary discourses, which leads to higher levels of “critical awareness and more deliberate action” (p. 337). When “armed with genre awareness”, learners can act and participate in the target genres because they will be able to objectively question “the everyday practices of the genres” surrounding them (Devitt, 2009, p. 338).

To conclude, as “abstract mental abstractions”, genres are “socially situated, and revised to respond to varied audiences or purposes” (Johns, 2002b, p. 237). “An individual’s genre theory and experiences can present possibilities for text production but not absolutes, invitations but not templates” (Johns, 2002b, p. 237). Gaining awareness of the structural patterns of texts, learners become more strategic readers, so they can read and critique the messages conveyed in texts (Norris, Lucas, & Prudhoe, 2012). Critical literacy practices emphasize the cross-cultural comparison of genre conventions (Wallace, 2003) and analysis of how languages, texts, and discourses are utilized to serve the interests of the powerful (Lankshear, 1994). Hence, critical literacy has a critical role in understanding, analyzing, and responding to genres.

2.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented an overview of reading as well as its significance in education. Then it explained the components of the reading process, purposes for reading, reading skills, critical reading, critical reading skills, the instruction of critical reading skills, and models of reading. Next, critical literacy, conceptualization, significance, and instruction of critical literacy, and models in critical literacy were elaborated. In addition, critical literacy in the EFL classroom was explained. Finally, Genre Theory, genre pedagogies, and genre-based reading instruction were presented.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The objective of the current research is to explore the impact of genre-based reading instruction on adult English as a Foreign Language learners' (EFL) reading comprehension and critical literacy skills. In accordance with this aim, the following research questions were addressed in the study:

1. Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' reading comprehension?
2. Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' reading comprehension?
3. Does a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' reading comprehension?
4. Is there a significant difference among the reading posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group?
5. Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?
6. Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?
7. Does a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?
8. Is there a significant difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group?
9. Is there a relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores?
10. Does gender play a role in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?
11. What are the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language?

The research outcomes showed whether conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach and the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach had any impact on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension and critical literacy

skills or not. The research outcomes also indicated what the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy in learning a foreign language were.

With regard to the aim and research questions, an overview of the research design, setting and participants of the study, data collection procedures and tools, data analysis, and reliability and validity of the study is presented in this chapter. Furthermore, the role of the researcher is explained. The chapter ends with the chapter summary.

3.2. Research Design

This study adopted a mixed methods research design (Bryman, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010, as cited in Creswell, 2014) to combine the strengths of quantitative and qualitative data in order “to develop a stronger understanding of the research problem or questions” (Creswell, 2014, p. 215) and “minimize the limitations of both approaches” (Creswell, 2014, p. 218). A mixed method approach is defined as “procedures for collecting, analyzing, and linking both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or in a multiphase series of studies” (Creswell, 2012, p. 22). Dörnyei (2007) states that a mixed method approach enhances the reliability and validity of research findings. In addition, a mixed-methods research design, in which both quantitative and qualitative data are collected over time, enables researchers to have a more complete understanding of the need for and impact of an intervention program (Creswell, 2014).

Creswell (2014) lists three basic mixed methods designs as “convergent parallel mixed methods design” (p. 219), “explanatory sequential mixed methods design” (p. 224), and “exploratory sequential mixed methods design” (p. 225). The current study used an explanatory sequential mixed methods design since quantitative data describe a general scheme, while qualitative data provide an in-depth analysis of the research problems (Creswell, 2012). This design involves “a two-phase project” (Creswell, 2012, p. 224). Hence, the research involved two phases. In the first phase, quantitative data were collected. To explore and elaborate on the quantitative data, qualitative data were collected in the second phase. The qualitative follow-up phase helped explain the initial quantitative results in more depth “to refine, extend, or explain the general picture” (Creswell, 2012, p. 542). Figure 12 displays the methods involved in explanatory sequential research design.

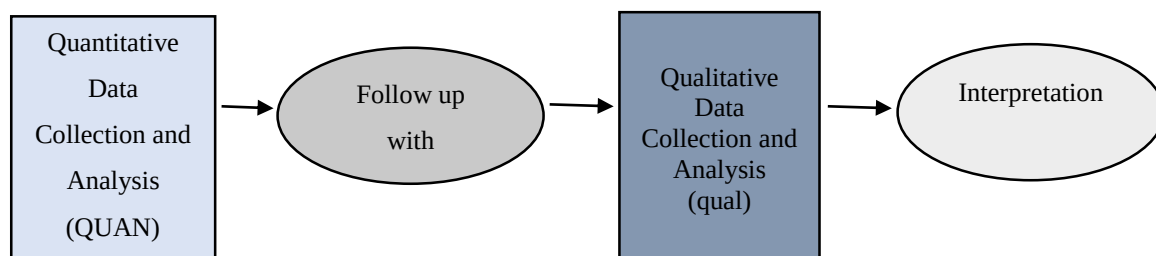


Figure 12. Explanatory sequential mixed methods (Creswell, 2014, p. 220).

The first phase of the current study involved a reading comprehension test and an online critical thinking test followed by a quasi-experimental treatment process with a nonequivalent (pretest and posttest) control group design (Creswell, 2014), and the second phase included the focus group interviews carried out to explore the participants' perceptions of critical literacy and genre-based reading instruction.

3.3. Setting and Participants

In quantitative studies, either probability or nonprobability sampling approaches are employed (Creswell, 2012). Probability sampling, “the most rigorous form of sampling in quantitative research” (Creswell, 2005, p. 142), requires the selection of individuals from the population that represent that population. As the sample is representative of the population, generalizations to the population can be made. Probability sampling involves “simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, and multistage cluster sampling” (Creswell, 2005, pp. 143-145). In nonprobability sampling, on the other hand, individuals who are available and convenient, and who represent some characteristics the researcher aims to study and volunteer to take part in the study are involved in the study. Convenience and snowball sampling approaches are the two commonly-used approaches in nonprobability sampling (Creswell, 2012). This study adopted the convenience sampling approach. Thus, participants who were available and willing to be studied (Creswell, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007) were involved in the study. According to Muijs (2004), convenience sampling is widely used by researchers, such as teachers conducting research in the school where they work, since it provides an easy access to a certain research site.

The setting for the study was the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) of a state university, which is located in the western part of Turkey. The medium of instruction is English. In order to be able to enroll at the university, where the study was conducted, students are required to obtain highly competitive scores on national exams prepared and conducted by the Student Selection and Placement Center. An in-house English proficiency exam is administered at the beginning of the academic year in the SFL. The students who are not proficient in English (with scores $< 60/100$) are obliged to attend the SFL and study English to be able to study at their departments. To successfully pass the preparatory school, students who have scores $> 60/100$ points as their Yearly Achievement Grade are required to take the Final Exam, in which the threshold is $50/100$. The exit level for the preparatory school is B1+ based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), and students can study English at the SFL for maximum two years (<https://ydyo.iyte.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/sites/91/2019/10/Students-Handbook-2019-2020.pdf>).

The participants of this study were students enrolled at the SFL of the university. All of them were studying English for the second year in Academic Year 2018-19 since their proficiency exam scores were below $60/100$. Participants, as repeat students ($N = 62$), were placed in separate homogenous classes ($N = 3$) called “remedial” classes (Remedial 1, Remedial 2, Remedial 3) by the school administration as a part of a pilot project, instead of being placed into classes with students who were studying their first year at the school. The instructor-researcher was the Integrated Skills instructor of two of these groups (Remedial 2, Remedial 3). Similar to the regular B1 level preparatory year students, repeat students were offered a B1 level Integrated Skills course (20 class hours/week). However, a different course book was used for them, and instructors had to follow a strict preparatory school curriculum. Initially, 52 students (Critical Literacy Group: 19; Conventional Literacy Group: 16; Web-Based Group 2: 17) volunteered to take part in the study, which was the required sample size to conduct experiments in educational settings (Creswell, 2012). However, data solely coming from the participants ($N = 34$) who took all the pretests and posttests were involved in the study. Table 17 presents demographics of participants of the study.

Table 17

Demographics of participants

CLG	N	%	CoLG	N	%	WBG	N	%
Gender			Gender			Gender		
Female	6	54.54	Female	6	50	Female	6	54.54
Male	5	45.45	Male	6	50	Male	5	45.45
Total	11	100	Total	12	100	Total	11	100
Age			Age			Age		
19-20	7	63.63	19-20	8	66.66	19-20	7	63.63
21-22	3	27.27	21-22	4	33.33	21-22	3	27.27
23-24	1	9.09	23-24	0	0	23-24	1	9.09
Total	11	100	Total	12	100	Total	11	100
Dept.			Dept.			Dept.		
A	0	0	A	0	0	A	1	9.09
C	4	36.36	C	1	8.33	C	3	27.27
CE	1	9.09	CE	1	8.33	CE	1	9.09
ChE	0	0	ChE	0	0	ChE	1	9.09
CRP	1	9.09	CRP	2	16.66	CRP	0	0
ECE	0	0	ECE	2	16.66	ECE	0	0
FE	2	18.18	FE	1	8.33	FE	2	18.18
M	2	18.18	M	3	25	M	1	9.09
MBG	0	0	MBG	1	8.33	MBG	1	9.09
ME	0	0	ME	1	8.33	ME	0	0
P	1	9.09	P	0	0	P	1	9.09
Total	11	100	Total	12	100	Total	11	100

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; WBG: Web-Based Group; Dept.: Department; A: Architecture; C: Chemistry; CE: Civil Engineering; ChE: Chemical Engineering; CRP: City & Regional Planning; ECE: Electronics & Communication Engineering; FE: Food Engineering; M: Math; MBG: Molecular Biology & Genetics; ME: Mechanical Engineering; P: Physics.

As presented in the table, almost an equal number of females and males participated in the study. There were six females and five males in the Critical Literacy Group (Remedial 3), there were six females and six males in the Conventional Literacy Group (Remedial 2), and there were six females and five males in the Web-Based Group (Remedial 1). The ages of the participants ranged between 19 and 24 years, with an average age of 20.29. Two of the participants were vertical transfer students. All of the participants were enrolled at the basic science and engineering departments. The majority of the participants were the prospective students of Chemistry and Math departments. Only one student from each of the departments

of Architecture, Chemical Engineering and Mechanical Engineering took part in the study. Compared to the general student population of the school, the samples had lower levels of motivation and higher levels of anxiety since they would have to ex-matriculate upon failure.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures and Tools

This study adopted an explanatory sequential mixed methods design. In the first phase, pretests were administered, which was followed by a four-week intervention process. After the administration of posttests, focus group interviews were conducted with the Critical Literacy Group participants (See Figure 13). Both quantitative and qualitative data collection tools were used in the study. The data collection tools used in the study will be explained separately.



Figure 13. Data collection procedures.

To measure participants' reading comprehension, the reading section of the Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) test (*The official guide to the TOEFL test*, 2012) was used as the pretests and posttests since TOEFL is a highly reliable English-proficiency test with reliability coefficients between .70 and .95 on a scale of .00 to .99 (<https://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/TOEFL/pdf/toefl%20research.pdf>). As a standardized test, this test was relevant because the majority of participants would have to take the test in the future as they were planning to go abroad either for their internships or graduate studies. Moreover, participants were familiar with the reading test formats that involved multiple choice questions on identifying synonyms, the main idea and specific details of a given text, and the author's purpose, inserting sentences into texts and identifying the most important information provided in a given text since they had been exposed to such reading tests in the proficiency and midterm exams they had taken. There were three texts (*Feeding Habits of East African Herbivores*, *Loie Fuller*, *Green Icebergs*) in the exam. Each text was accompanied by 14 multiple choice questions. Thus, the overall number of questions in the test was 42, and the maximum score test takers could attain was 45. The Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated as .713 for the reading test.

In order to measure participants' critical thinking skills, an online (app-based test online system) English version of the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) was used as the pretest and posttest in the study since it "has been the premier instrument for measuring college level critical thinking skills for more than 30 years" (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 4). The CCTST was used as it is tailored and calibrated for the college undergraduate/graduate level population at colleges and universities of all types. Plus, as a valid and reliable test, it is a discipline-neutral measure of reasoning skills; therefore, it is used widely worldwide with graduate and undergraduate students in all fields.

The three traditional forms of validity to establish validity in quantitative research are content validity, predictive/concurrent validity, and construct validity (Creswell, 2014). Content validity indicates "the ability of a test to capture a measure of the intended domain. Identification of the pertinent domain, and obtaining agreement on it, are of primary importance to content validation" (Cronbach, 1990, as cited in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 44). The validity of the California family of testing instruments is based on the cross disciplinary conceptual definition of critical thinking that emerged from the APA Delphi Research Study (1988-1990). It was replicated by Department of Education supported Penn State University Research study in the mid 1990s. Scales on the CCTST correspond to the Delphi's main critical thinking skills (https://www.clemson.edu/academics/programs/thinks2/documents/scholars/summer_2013/knox_cctst.pdf). In the CCTST, test takers are required to form reasoned judgments based on a short scenario presented in the question stem, which suggests it does not test any content area knowledge (<https://www.insightassessment.com/article/how-do-the-different-forms-of-the-cctst-differ>). Plus, the test is calibrated to the intended population. As for the construct validity, the evidence comes from independent research reports of gains in scores after participation in a course or training program aimed at improving critical thinking skills. Correlational studies in which critical thinking scores were correlated with other measures (e.g., Graduate Record Examinations) that purported to include the construct also provided evidence (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). Finally, criterion validity refers to "the ability of the test to predict some criterion behavior external to the test itself" (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, as cited in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 46). In Humbley and Zumbo's (1996) terms, it is about "whether the scores serve a useful purpose and have positive consequences when they are used in practice" (as cited in Creswell, 2014, p. 160). Independent research studies of skills instruments used for professional education programs including the CCTST were all "demonstrated to be predictive of

professional board licensure, certification, program completion, and successful transition to the workplace” (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 46).

With regard to reliability, the discussion of the Kuder Richardson statistic applies for all measures of critical thinking skills since scoring, for these instruments are dichotomous (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). The CCTST’s Kuder-Richardson 20 score (.72) is deemed evidence of strong internal consistency (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2019). In a nutshell, the CCTST has “proven value and that have reliable and valid scores from past uses”, which is a crucial criterion in the selection of data collection instruments (Creswell, 2012, p. 15). Similarly, “test retest reliability either meets or exceeds .80 in samples with adequate variance, retested at two weeks post pretest. Many samples demonstrate no change after far longer intervals when no active training in critical thinking has occurred between pretest and posttest” (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 47). The test indicated stable measures of critical thinking skills over time when there is no history of training in critical thinking. “Test retest coefficients are typically observed to meet or exceed .80 when the Time-2 administration is given two weeks after the Time-1 administration in samples, and after as long as three years after pretest where there is no on-going educational program” (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2019, p. 46).

As a valid, objective, and reliable measure of core reasoning skills, “the CCTST has been the premier instrument for measuring college level critical thinking skills for more than 30 years” (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 4). It is one of the extensively used standardized critical thinking tests due to its established reliability and validity (Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011). The items (N = 40) in the CCTST involve everyday scenarios which are appropriate to college level students. The test has a multiple choice format, and the questions provide all the necessary information for test takers to respond correctly to the assessment. Hence, test takers are not required to have specialized knowledge for valid testing (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). Test takers’ overall scores are categorized based on the qualitative description of the overall score of the test: *Not Manifested* (50-62), *Weak* (63-69), *Moderate* (70-78), *Strong* (79-85), and *Superior* (86 or higher).

As for the treatment, a four-week genre-based reading instruction program was designed by the researchers. Eight lesson plans which had three variations (i.e., critical literacy, conventional literacy, and web-based versions) were prepared by the researchers. That is, 24 lesson plans were prepared in total. The lesson plans prepared to teach critical literacy skills (e.g., interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation) involved critical reading questions as well as comprehension questions. In the lesson plans prepared for the

Conventional Literacy Group, the focus was on conventional literacy skills. Finally, both conventional and critical literacy skills were incorporated into the Web-Based Group lesson plans. However, critical literacy skills were emphasized less compared to the Critical Literacy Group (See Appendix 6 for sample lesson plans). Table 18 presents information about the tasks carried out by the three groups throughout the study.

Table 18

Tasks by groups

Lesson Plan	Stage	Tasks by Groups		
		CLG	CoLG	WBG
1	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-Whole Class Discussion -Group Work-Guess the Story -Story Corners -Pair Work-Words & Pictures	-Whole Class Discussion -Group Work-Guess the Story -Story Corners -Pair Work-Words & Pictures	-Making Predictions “Guess the Story -Guessing Meaning from Context
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Silent Reading & Comprehension Questions & “Text Symbols for Annotating” -Pair Work-Story Map Graphic Organizers	-Silent Reading & Comprehension Questions -Pair Work-Story Map Graphic Organizers	-Silent Reading & Comprehension Questions & “Text Symbols for Annotating” -Story Map Graphic Organizers
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-Whole Class Discussion -Concept Maps: Surface Culture & Deep Culture	-Whole Class Discussion -Chain Summary -Alternative Endings -Dig Deeper on the Web -Whole Class Discussion	-Reflection -Concept Maps
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Text Critics-Critical Reading Questions -Whole Class Discussion	N/A	-Text Critics

2	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-Whole Class Discussion -Predicting the Story	-Whole Class Discussion -Predicting the Story	-Predicting the Story
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Silent Reading & Guess the Words -Vocabulary Boost -Character ID Cards -True or False -Comprehension Questions	-Silent Reading & Guess the Words -Vocabulary Boost -Character ID Cards -True or False -Comprehension Questions	-Silent Reading & Guess the Words -Vocabulary Boost -Character ID Cards -True or False -Comprehension Questions
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-Change It -Whole Class Discussion	-Change It -Whole Class Discussion	-Change It
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Critical Questions -Whole Class Discussion -Having an Interview with the Author	N/A	-Reflection
3	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-KWL Chart -Trip Advisors	-KWL Chart -Watching a Video	-KWL Chart -Watching a Video
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Finding Synonyms -Silent Reading & Writing Questions -Cause & Effect Charts -Critical Questions	-Silent Reading & Sentence Insertion -Finding Synonyms -Categorizing the Adjectives -Comprehension Questions -True or False -Sentence Completion	-Finding Synonyms -Silent Reading & Writing Questions -Categorizing the Adjectives -Comprehension Questions -True or False -Sentence Completion
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-KWL Chart -Preparing “Things to Do in Prague” Lists & “Why You Should Visit Prague” Lists -Personalization	-KWL Chart -Preparing an Ad -Whole Class Discussion	-KWL Chart
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Evaluation -Whole Class Discussion	N/A	-Identifying “Culture” Concepts

4	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-Vote For	-Going Online	-Going Online
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Words and Pictures & Silent Reading -Crossword Puzzle -Critical Questions -Distinguishing Facts from Opinions	-Words and Pictures & Silent Reading -Crossword Puzzle -Numbers in the Text -Correct the Statements	-Words and Pictures & Silent Reading -Crossword Puzzle -Numbers in the Text -Correct the Statements -Answer the Questions
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-Challenge! -Compare & Contrast -Where to Locate a Bridge	-Sequencing Events -Fact File -Personalization -Whole Class Discussion	-Sequencing Events -Fact File
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Spot the Difference -Whole Class Discussion -Rate Yourself!	N/A	-Personalization
5	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-For and Against & Making Predictions	-Defining “Team” and Making Predictions	-Making Predictions
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Words & Definitions -Crossword Puzzle -Critical Questions -Categorizing Advantages & Disadvantages	-Silent Reading & Sentence Insertion -Words & Definitions -Crossword Puzzle -Comprehension Questions -Correct the Statements	-Silent Reading & Sentence Insertion -Words & Definitions -Crossword Puzzle -Comprehension Questions -Correct the Statements
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-Paired Debate	-Matching -Personalization -Whole Class Discussion & How Persuasive is the Text?	-Matching
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Spot the Phrases -Whole Class Discussion -Rate Yourself!	N/A	-Personalization

6	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-Guess the Characters & Watching the Trailer -Brainstorming	-Guess the Characters & Watching the Trailer	-Guess the Characters & Watching the Trailer
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Silent Reading & Matching Heading -Words and Synonyms & Silent Reading -Vocabulary Boost -Critical Questions	-Silent Reading & Matching Heading -Words and Synonyms & Silent Reading -Vocabulary Boost -Comprehension Questions -Correct the Statements	-Silent Reading & Matching Heading -Words and Synonyms & Silent Reading -Vocabulary Boost -Comprehension & Critical Questions -Correct the Statements
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-The Greatest Show All Time -Compare & Contrast	-Fact File -Your Favorite -Whole Class Discussion	-Fact File -Your Favorite
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Ethos, Pathos, Logos -Spot the Language -Whole Class Discussion-How Persuasive is the Text? -Rate Yourself!	N/A	-How Persuasive is the Text?
7	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-What do You Think?	-Did You Know?	-Did You Know?
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Silent Reading -Word Insertion -Vocabulary Boost -Identify the Comparison and Contrast Language -Critical Questions	-Silent Reading -Word Insertion -Vocabulary Boost -Identify the Comparison and Contrast Language -Comprehension Questions -True or False	-Silent Reading -Word Insertion -Vocabulary Boost -Identify the Comparison and Contrast Language -Comprehension & Critical Questions -True or False
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-What Separates Bollywood from Hollywood?	-A Comparative Fact File -Five Things Bollywood and Hollywood Teach Us -Whole Class Discussion	-A Comparative Fact File -Five Things Bollywood and Hollywood Teach Us
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Is Hollywood better than Bollywood? -Whole Class Discussion -Rate Yourself!	N/A	-Culture Concepts -How Persuasive is the Text?

8	Code Breaking (Pre-reading)	-What do You Think?	-Brainstorming	-Brainstorming
	Text Participating (While reading)	-Silent Reading & Sentence Insertion -Words & Synonyms -Vocabulary Boost -Cause & Effect Charts -Critical Questions	-Silent Reading & Sentence Insertion -Words & Synonyms -Vocabulary Boost -Identify the Comparison and Contrast Language -Comprehension Questions -True or False	-Silent Reading & Sentence Insertion -Words & Synonyms -Vocabulary Boost -Identify the Comparison and Contrast Language -Comprehension & Critical Questions -True or False
	Text Using (Post-reading)	-Compare & Contrast	-Spot the Differences -Make Predictions -Whole Class Discussion	-Spot the Differences -Make Predictions
	Text Critiquing (Post-reading)	-Reflect! -Whole Class Discussion -Rate Yourself!	N/A	-Culture Concepts -Reflection

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; WBG: Web-Based Group; KWL: What I Know, What I Want to Learn, What I Learned.

Participants were introduced to a different genre (i.e., narrative, descriptive, argumentative, comparison and contrast) each week. These genres were chosen by the researchers since they had not been taught as part of the preparatory school curriculum. The conceptual unit for the text selection was determined as “culture”, for learners were prospective participants of international programs, such as the Erasmus and International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience (IAESTE) programs and needed to develop their intercultural competence. Furthermore, the researcher had observed that participants were highly motivated to learn about different cultures and culture-related topics in the courses. Thus, two texts related to culture were used to teach each genre, and a 90-minute session was allocated for each text in the instruction of Critical Literacy Group and Conventional Literacy Group. That is, on the whole, each group received a 720-minute training on the selected genres and texts. *Edmodo*, “an educational social media site” (Canady, Martin, & Scott, 2018, p. 108), was used to share the course materials and tasks to be assigned with the Web-Based Group. In addition to genres and the conceptual unit, participants’ language proficiency levels, age, interests, departments, and needs were taken into account in the text selection process. In addition, to determine the difficulty level of the texts Flesch-Kincaid

Grade Level readability formula was used because it was used to set the difficulty level in all critical thinking skills tests provided by *Insight Assessment* (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). In short, a number of different parameters were considered in the text selection process. Table 19 provides details regarding the genres and texts used in the study as well as the time allocated for the teaching of each text.

Table 19

Genres and texts used in the study

Week	Genre	Number of Texts	Text Used	Time Allocated
1	Narrative	2	1. <i>No Speak English</i> from <i>The House on Mango Street</i> 2. <i>The Bicycle</i> from <i>The Complete Persepolis</i>	2x2 class hours (180 minutes)
2	Descriptive	2	1. Amazing Prague 2. The Brooklyn Bridge	2x2 class hours (180 minutes)
3	Argumentative	2	1. Why Teamwork is Not So Productive 2. Why is Game of Thrones the greatest show of all time	2x2 class hours (180 minutes)
4	Comparison & Contrast	2	1. Bollywood vs Hollywood - Revenue and Production 2. Differences Between the Daily Lives of Teenagers Today and a Century Ago	2x2 class hours (180 minutes)

Since the study had an explanatory sequential design, and the researchers aimed to explore the reasons for participants' scores on the CCTST test, focus group interviews were also conducted. Different from quantitative validity, qualitative validity requires checking for the accuracy of the findings through certain procedures. In qualitative research, the terms related to validity are "trustworthiness, authenticity, and credibility" (Creswell & Miller, 2000,

as cited in Creswell, 2014, p. 201). Qualitative reliability shows the researcher has an approach which is consistent across different projects and researchers (Gibbs, 2007, as cited in Creswell, 2014). The semi-structured questions to be asked in the focus group interviews were prepared by the researchers. A colleague of the researcher, who had a B.A. degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) and a teaching experience of 29 years -19 years at the university where the study was conducted-, also checked the questions prior to the interviews. Four of the items were open-ended items, and all the items aimed to reveal participants' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language and the study. The validity strategies incorporated in the study were using "a rich, thick description" (Creswell, 2014, p. 202) to convey the findings of the study, presenting "negative or discrepant information" (Creswell, 2014, p. 202), and using "member checking" (Creswell, 2014, p. 201) to determine the accuracy of the final report.

With regard to the procedures, the researcher first ordered the CCTST and the Preview Pack for the CCTST from *Insight Assessment*. As the paper and pencil version was not available overseas, the app version of the test was used in the study. Prior to the administration of the CCTST, the researchers examined the Preview Pack, which included the testing instrument's manual and the on-line preview of the testing instrument. The pack involved some sample items from the original test and helped the researchers experience the test-taking process as a test taker. *Insight Assessment* also provided the User IDs and passwords. Eight demographic questions were emailed to *Insight Assessment* by the researchers to be added to the profile page.

The groups that would be instructed critical literacy skills and conventional literacy skills were assigned randomly. Remedial 2 was assigned as the Conventional Literacy Group (CoLG-Control Group), and Remedial 3 was assigned as the Critical Literacy Group (CLG-Treatment Group 1). Remedial 1, being taught by another instructor, was assigned as the Web-Based Group (WBG-Treatment Group 2). Participants were informed that the results of the tests administered would not affect their grades. After obtaining the written informed consent forms (See Appendix 3) from the participants and providing students with instructions, pretests were administered. Participants were not informed that posttests would be administered. To minimize the cognitive load on participants and allow them to better concentrate on the test items, the pretests and posttests of the reading comprehension test and the critical thinking skills test were administered on successive days. First, the reading comprehension test was administered (See Appendix 4). The number of learners who took the reading comprehension pretest was 52. There were three texts which were accompanied by 42 multiple-choice items

in the test, and the allocated time for the test was 60 minutes. Participants were informed that they would take the CCTST on the next day, and they needed to have their mobile devices fully charged.

On the following day, the English version of the CCTST was administered (See Appendix 5 for sample items). Due to its being challenging cognitively, it was administered in “a proctored environment which was free of distraction and when the test takers were reasonably rested” as suggested in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide (2020, p. 10). It has been stated in the guide that

proctored testing is the standard for assuring that tests are administered as recommended in an appropriate testing environment and completed by the individual who is assigned to take the test. Proctored environments are the expected conditions of administration in all educational settings. (p. 11)

Therefore, the test was administered in a proctored environment by the researcher. Participants were first asked to download and install the *Critical Thinking Insight* app onto their mobile devices. One of the students had dropped her mobile, and one of the students had technical problems with his mobile; therefore, the researcher provided these participants with netbooks prior to the test. Participants were then provided with the test taker instructions, User IDs, and passwords provided by the *Insight Assessment* for individual access to the test and instructed to start the test. They were informed that they could use pseudonyms; however, all participants preferred to use their names and surnames. The test takers were provided with some scratch paper to be used during the skills test and collected at the end of the assessment period as suggested in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide (2020). The researcher helped participants with the technical problems they encountered during the test. The CCTST was self-paced; however, maximum 55 minutes, which was the time needed to assess an individual’s critical thinking skills (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020), were allocated for the completion of the test. To help test takers manage time wisely, the remaining time for completing the assessment on each item screen was shown. After the participants completed the pretests of the CCTST, they could not view the results, for necessary arrangements had been made by *Insight Assessment* upon the request of the researchers so as not to inform participants on their pretest CCTST scores.

After the administration of the pretests, participants from the CLG and CoLG were asked to participate in the four-week genre-based reading instruction program designed by the researchers. Due to the strict and centralized Preparatory School curriculum, critical literacy skills were taught as an add-on in order not to interfere with the skills-based curriculum.

Participants from the WBG, however, were provided with the instructions and the group code to join the class on *Edmodo* since they would access the texts and tasks via *Edmodo*.

Throughout the teaching process, tasks with a focus on the comprehension of the selected texts were utilized for the CoLG. The focus was on conventional literacy skills, so activities related to “code breaking, text participating, and text using” were involved in the instruction (Luke & Freebody, 1999). In the WBG, critical literacy skills were also incorporated in the lesson plan in addition to conventional literacy skills. However, these skills were not emphasized as much as they were emphasized in the CLG. The WBG was provided with the texts, tasks to be completed, and the answer keys via *Edmodo*, on a weekly basis. The CLG, on the other hand, was provided with the tasks which focused on the comprehension of the selected texts and critical reading. In addition to “code breaking, text participating, and text using” activities, “text critiquing” (Luke & Freebody, 1999) activities were also incorporated into instruction. Eight texts were used in the study. The same texts ($N = 2$ for each genre/week) were used in the teaching process of all groups. In the CLG, the same curriculum was implemented with a focus on critical literacy skills. Participants were asked to respond to critical reading questions, identify facts and opinions, discuss causes and effects, solve problems, compare and contrast, categorize advantages and disadvantages, make evaluations based on what they had read, analyze the language used in the text and identify the author’s viewpoint, and reflect upon the text. Different groupings, such as dyads and triads, were used to ensure participants’ active in-class participation.

PowerPoint presentations and task sheets were prepared for all the texts used in the study. The researcher monitored participants throughout the sessions and scaffolded when needed. The lesson plans were implemented by the instructor-researcher, and the lessons were videotaped for reference purposes. At the end of the treatment, the posttests were re-administered in the same way and under the same test conditions (i.e., the same exam room/day/time/physical conditions/seating/duration etc.) as the pretests. First, the reading test was administered. On the following day, the CCTST was administered. Participants were provided with the same User IDs and passwords they used for the pretests. After the completion of the posttests, they could view their results of the CCTST on their mobile devices. As the CCTST was a self-paced test, participants who completed the test were permitted to leave. Chocolate bars and home-made pastries were offered to participants as incentives after the administration of pretests and posttests.

In the following week, on May 28, 2019, to reveal participants’ perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language, focus group interviews

were undertaken. The researcher conducted the interviews, which were carried out in English. As purposeful samples, eight learners from the CLG volunteered to take part in the interviews. Five of the respondents were females. Participants were provided with the instructions and explanations prior to the interviews, and they were reminded that pseudonyms would be used to report the findings of the study. In addition, they were informed that their responses would be kept confidential and used only for the purposes of the study. The interviews took 45 minutes in total. The interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim.

3.5. Data Analysis

Data analysis is “the process of reducing accumulated data collected in research to a manageable size, developing summaries, looking for patterns, and performing statistical analysis” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 145). In quantitative data analysis, statistics is used (Creswell, 2012). That is to say, the data are broken down into parts through mathematical procedures in order to address the research questions or hypotheses. The results of the analyses are then interpreted based on initial predictions or prior studies. This interpretation provides explanations regarding the potential reasons for the results obtained and comparison of these results with the expected predictions (Creswell, 2012).

In qualitative research, however, a text database is gathered. The analysis of the data involves dividing it into groups of sentences, which are called text segments, and interpreting the meaning of these text segments (Creswell, 2012). Instead of using statistics, words or pictures are analyzed to describe the central phenomenon of the study. To put it simply, the result may either include a description of individual people, places, or themes which represent the findings of the study. The researcher has to

make an interpretation of the meaning of the data by reflecting on how the findings relate to existing research; by stating a personal reflection about the significance of the lessons learned during the study; or by drawing out larger, more abstract meanings. (Creswell, 2012, p. 18)

In light of these, this section details the data analysis procedures used in the study. First, the researcher graded the pretest and posttest reading tests, which involved multiple choice questions, and recorded the results on an Excel document. A colleague who had been teaching English for 29 years cross-checked the assigned scores for some of the randomly selected tests. With regard to the CCTST, *Insight Assessment* provided the researchers with participants’ pretest and posttest reports. In addition to the overall scores of the participants, the reports also involved scores with regard to subcategories of the CCTST, namely Analysis, Interpretation, Inference, Evaluation, Explanation, Induction, and Deduction. The number of

the participants who took the pretests (reading test and the CCTST) was 34. However, the test scores of eight participants (CLG: 4; CoLG: 2; WBG: 2) who had a response rate below 0.60, and who completed the test in less than 15 minutes were excluded as suggested in the CCTST 2020 User Manual and Resource Guide, for this indicated that only 60% of the items had been completed, and that such response rates are considered too low to confidently justify the assessment as a true test. The inclusion of the incomplete assessments has a negative impact on the group analysis. Hence, only the completed tests which had at least 60% of the questions answered and the submitted tests where time on test was at least 15 minutes were included in the group analysis.

Each research question was suited to a particular statistical method. The statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 22. Non-parametric statistical tests were used due to the small sample population. A Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was used to analyze the data since the study had a repeated-measures designs with an intervention (CLG and WBG) and repeated-measures designs without an intervention (CoLG). The dependent variable was measured at the continuous level, the independent variable consisted of related groups, and the distribution of the differences between the two related groups were symmetrical in shape. Participants' reading and the CCTST pretest and posttest scores were compared. Plus, the Kruskal-Wallis H Test, also called the one-way ANOVA on ranks, was used to compare the pretest and posttest scores of all groups. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to analyze the relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores. Finally, Mann-Whitney U Test was used to investigate the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of female and male participants in all groups. With regard to the qualitative data analysis, Flick (2018) states that "coding can either start from the text, in order to develop a set of categories (thematic coding), or take a set of categories as a starting point (content analysis)" (p. 490). In this study, thematic coding was employed to analyze the qualitative data, which came from the interviews. Table 20 shows the statistical tests/data analysis procedures used for each research question of the study.

Table 20

Statistical tests/Data analysis procedures employed

Research Question	Statistical Test/Data Analysis Procedure
RQ 1 RQ 2 RQ 3 RQ 5 RQ 6 RQ 7	Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test
RQ 4 RQ 8	Kruskal-Wallis H Test
RQ 9	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
RQ 10	Mann-Whitney U Test
RQ 11	Thematic Coding

3.6. Validity and Reliability of the Study

There are two types of threats to validity in quantitative studies that have an experimental or a quasi-experimental research design. These are “internal threats” and “external threats” (Creswell, 2014, p. 174). The internal threats include “history, maturation, regression, selection, mortality, diffusion of treatment, compensatory/resentful demoralization, compensatory rivalry, testing, and instrumentation” (Creswell, 2014, pp. 174-175). To minimize these threats, the researcher had both treatment and control groups in the study. What is more, the participants were at similar ages, thus; they matured or changed at similar rates during the treatment. As for regression and selection, participants, all of whom were studying their second year at the preparatory school, had similar proficiency levels. They were assigned to their current groups by the school administration based on the criteria of equal distribution of gender and the departments which students would study at. With regard to the effect of mortality, the performances of those who dropped out were compared with the performances of those who continued. As for the diffusion of treatment, the three groups (i.e., the treatment groups and control group) were kept as separate as possible throughout the process. To reduce the impact of compensatory/resentful demoralization, all groups were provided with some type of treatment during the experiment. While the participants in the CLG was taught critical literacy skills, CoLG participants were also introduced to a number of critical literacy skills. CoLG participants had the opportunity to improve their conventional

literacy skills. In order to minimize compensatory rivalry, the researcher took the necessary steps to create equality among all groups. That is, the expectations of the groups were reduced. Regarding testing, due to the duration of the four-week treatment, the researchers had a long time interval between the administrations of the pretest and posttest participants, which prevented participants from remembering their previous responses. Finally, to minimize the threat to internal validity regarding instrumentation, the researchers used the same instrument for the pretest and posttest measures.

In addition to internal validity threats, external validity threats also arise in experimental and quasi-experimental research. Types of threats to external validity are “interaction of selection and treatment, interaction of setting and treatment, and interaction of history and treatment” (Creswell, 2014, p. 176). Therefore, the researcher considered the uniqueness of the study conducted while interpreting the results of the study and did not aim to generalize the findings to other populations and research settings.

As for the qualitative aspect of the study, the validity strategies incorporated in the study were using a rich, thick description to convey the findings of the study, presenting negative or discrepant information, and using member checking to determine the accuracy of the final report. In order to establish trustworthiness, the researcher described all the details about the instruments, participants, research design, and collection and analysis of the data, which enabled the potential users to make comparisons and judgments about similarities and make decisions about the applicability of the research study to other settings or similar contexts. A colleague of the researcher, who had a B.A. degree in ELT and an experience of 29 years of English teaching, checked the questions to be asked prior to the focus group interviews. All the interview questions aimed to reveal learners’ perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language and the study. Negative information obtained through the interviews was also involved in the results. To increase the credibility of the research, the researcher gathered data from a variety of data sources. She firstly obtained numeric data by means of pretests and posttests. Then she gathered explanatory data on participants’ perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills.

In sum, the researchers employed a mixed method design. In addition to quantitative data, focus group interviews were conducted to gather both qualitative and quantitative data and to enhance the reliability of the study. To this end, the researchers tried to increase the reliability and establish the validity and increase the trustworthiness of the study by employing a number of techniques. They aimed to minimize the biases and preconceptions which might

affect the data interpretation. Hence, they engaged in different methods to maintain the reliability and validity of the study.

3.7. Role of the Researcher

The instructor-researcher, with an experience of 19 years of English teaching, had been working at the preparatory school of the university where the study was conducted for seven years. She had taught Main Course, Listening and Speaking, Reading and Writing, and Integrated Skills classes at various levels at the school. However, since it was a pilot project initiated by the school administration, she did not have any prior experience in teaching remedial groups. She had participated in various (inter)national conferences and published a number of articles. In the current research, she prepared the lesson plans and administered both the reading and CCTST pretests and posttests. As the instructor-researcher, she also implemented the four-week genre-based instruction in the CLG and CoLG, which enabled her to establish good rapport with participants and acquire honest responses from them, and provided the WBG with the texts and lesson materials via *Edmodo*. In order not to bias the research, she worked systematically, skeptically, and ethically as proposed by Robson (2002). Plus, the researcher considered alternatives and worked seriously without harming the participants of the study.

3.8. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the methodological approach employed in this study. Following the presentation of the research design, setting and participants, data collection procedures and tools were introduced. Then data analysis procedures in addition to the validity and reliability of the study were highlighted. The chapter ended with the information regarding the role of the researcher.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods study is to explore the impact of genre-based reading instruction on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills. To this end, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Quantitative data came from a reading test and a critical thinking skills test (the CCTST). The initial number of the participants who took all the pretests and posttests was 34. However, data coming from Participant 3 (female), Participant 8 (male), Participant 10 (male), and Participant 11 (male) in the Critical Literacy Group (CLG), Participant 2 (female) and Participant 6 (male) in the Conventional Literacy Group (CoLG), and Participant 3 (female) and Participant 8 (male) in the Web-Based Group (WBG) were excluded from the final data as these participants had lower test completion time (i.e., less than fifteen minutes) and/or had response rates of less than 0.60 (60% of items completed) in the CCTST, which may lead to a false test result (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). Thus, the final data analysis involved data derived from 26 participants in total. Qualitative data were derived from the focus group interviews. This chapter provides an overview of the research questions and presents the findings regarding the quantitative data. The chapter ends with the qualitative analysis of the interviews.

4.2. Research Questions and Findings

The research findings that the data analysis produced will be presented in the order of the research questions.

4.2.1. Research question one: Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' reading comprehension?

The first research question of the study, which sought to answer whether the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affected adult EFL learners' reading comprehension or not, was addressed using a Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test. The data analysis showed that the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills through a four-week genre-based reading instruction did not elicit a statistically significant change in the CLG's reading posttest scores. In other words, the posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their reading pretest scores, $Z = -.318$, $p = .750$, $p > 0.05$. Table 21

shows the descriptive statistics pertaining to the reading pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the CLG.

Table 21

Descriptive statistics regarding Critical Literacy Group's reading pretest and posttest scores

Test	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	p
Pretest	7	8.14	4.41	0	13	.750
Posttest	7	8.85	6.06	2	18	

While the mean for the reading pretest was 8.14 ($SD = 4.41$), the mean for the posttest was 8.85 ($SD = 6.06$), with a very slight increase compared to the pretest. Three (42.85%) of the participants' reading posttest scores were the same as their pretest scores, there was an increase in the posttest scores of three (42.85%) participants, and the posttest score of one (14.28%) participant remained the same (See Table 22).

Table 22

Critical Literacy Group's reading pretest and posttest scores

Test	Rank	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Reading Pretest	Negative Ranks	3	3.00	9.00	-.318	.750
Reading Posttest	Positive Ranks	3	4.00	12.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	7				

Note. * $p < 0.05$

4.2.2. Research question two: Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' reading comprehension?

The second research question aimed to determine whether conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affected adult EFL learners' reading comprehension or not. A Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test indicated that the CoLG's reading

posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their reading pretest scores, $Z = -1.793$, $p = .073$, $p > 0.05$. Table 23 shows the descriptive statistics regarding the reading pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the CoLG.

Table 23

Descriptive statistics regarding Conventional Literacy Group's reading pretest and posttest scores

Test	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	p
Pretest	10	9.80	2.29	7	13	.073
Posttest	10	13.5	6.20	4	24	

As displayed in the table, while the mean for the reading pretest was 9.80 ($SD = 2.29$), the mean for the posttest was 13.5 ($SD = 6.20$). Seven (70%) participants received higher scores on the reading posttest, whereas two (20%) of the participants' posttest scores were lower. One (10%) of the participants' posttest score remained the same as the pretest (See Table 24).

Table 24

Conventional Literacy Group's reading pretest and posttest scores

Test	Rank	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Reading Pretest	Negative Ranks	2	3.75	7.50	-1.793	.073
Reading Posttest	Positive Ranks	7	5.36	37.50		
	Ties	1				
	Total	10				

Note. * $p < 0.05$

4.2.3. Research question three: Does a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' reading comprehension?

The third research question aimed to investigate whether exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach had an impact on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension or not. A Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test yielded that there was no statistically significant difference between reading pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the WBG, $Z = -.632$, $p = .527$, $p > 0.05$. Table 25 displays details regarding WBG's reading pretest and posttest scores.

Table 25

Descriptive statistics regarding Web-Based Group's reading pretest and posttest scores

Test	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	p
Pretest	9	10.55	4.36	4	16	.527
Posttest	9	11.88	3.48	4	16	

While the mean for the reading pretest was 10.55 ($SD = 4.36$), the mean for the posttest was 11.88 ($SD = 3.48$), indicating a very slight increase. Table 26 presents detailed information regarding the mean rank and sum of ranks.

Table 26

Web-Based Group's reading pretest and posttest scores

Test	Rank	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Reading Pretest	Negative Ranks	3	4.50	13.50		
Reading Posttest	Positive Ranks	5	4.50	22.50	-.632	.527
	Ties	1				
	Total	9				

Note. * $p < 0.05$

As it can be seen in the table, five (55.55%) participants received higher scores on the reading posttest, yet three (33.33%) participants' posttest scores were lower compared to their pretest

scores. One (11.11%) of the participant's posttest score remained the same as her posttest score.

4.2.4. Research question four: Is there a significant difference among the reading posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group?

The fourth research question sought to answer whether there was a significant difference among the reading posttest scores of the CLG, CoLG, and WBG or not. To this end, a Kruskal-Wallis H Test, “the nonparametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA and an extension of the Mann-Whitney U test” (<https://statistics.laerd.com/spss-tutorials/kruskal-wallis-h-test-using-spss-statistics.php>), was performed. The analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference among reading posttest scores of all groups, $\chi^2(2) = 2.034$, $p = .362$, $df = 2$, with a mean rank of 10.00 for the CLG, 14.85 for the CoLG, and 14.72 for the WBG (See Table 27).

Table 27

Comparison of Critical Literacy Group's, Conventional Literacy Group's, and Web-Based Group's reading posttest scores

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	SD	χ^2	p
Reading Posttest	CLG	7	10			
	CoLG	10	14.85	5.49	2.034	.362
	WBG	9	14.72			
	Total	26				

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; WBG: Web-Based Group.
* $p < 0.05$

4.2.5. Research question five: Does the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?

The fifth research question investigated if the explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach affected adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills or not. A Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test indicated that the CLG's CCTST posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their CCTST pretest scores, $Z = -.365$, p

= .715, $p > 0.05$. Table 28 shows the descriptive statistics regarding the pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the CLG. While the mean for the CCTST pretest was 64.14 ($SD = 1.95$), the mean for the posttest was 63.57 ($SD = 2.82$), which showed a very slight decrease.

Table 28

Descriptive statistics regarding Critical Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores

Test	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	p
Pretest	7	64.14	1.95	61	66	.715
Posttest	7	63.57	2.82	58	66	

Two (28.57%) of the participants' posttest scores were lower than their pretest results compared to their pretest scores. On the other hand, two (28.57%) participants' posttest scores were higher. However, there was no change in the posttest scores of three (42.85%) participants (See Table 29).

Table 29

Critical Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores

Test	Rank	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
CCTST Pretest	Negative Ranks	2	3.00	6.00	-.365	.715
CCTST Posttest	Positive Ranks	2	2.00	4.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	7				

Note. * $p < 0.05$

Table 30 displays the participants' pretest and posttest critical thinking skills scores.

Table 30

Comparison of Critical Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores by critical thinking skills

P	ID	CCTST Pretest Scores								CCTST Posttest Scores							
		A	I	I	E	E	I	D	O	A	I	I	E	E	I	D	O
1	926295	70	68	66	67	68	69	66	65	70	74	69	63	68	66	69	65
2	926796	60	81	69	63	68	71	66	66	65	61	64	59	61	61	61	58
4	926798	70	68	75	55	55	69	66	65	70	81	75	59	55	66	71	66
5	926799	55	81	64	63	61	69	64	64	65	68	61	71	61	69	64	64
6	926800	70	61	64	63	68	61	69	62	60	61	64	67	61	66	64	62
7	926801	60	68	61	63	68	69	58	61	75	74	66	67	74	74	64	66
9	926807	75	61	75	63	61	71	66	66	65	68	72	59	61	61	71	64

Note: P: Participant; A: Analysis; I: Interpretation; I: Inference; E: Evaluation; E: Explanation; I: Induction; D: Deduction; O: Overall.

As the table shows, the CCTST overall scores of the CLG in the pretest ranged from 61 to 66. The posttest overall scores, on the other hand, ranged from 58 to 66. The analysis of the data in terms of the specific critical thinking skills displayed that participants received the highest pretest scores from Interpretation, Inference, and Induction. The highest posttest scores were, however, Interpretation, Inference, and Analysis. There was a slight decrease participants' scores in Interpretation, Inference, and Induction. In the pretest, the area to target for growth included Evaluation while the area to target for growth for posttest was Explanation. Figure 14 provides a comparison of participants' individual pretest scores by critical thinking skills.

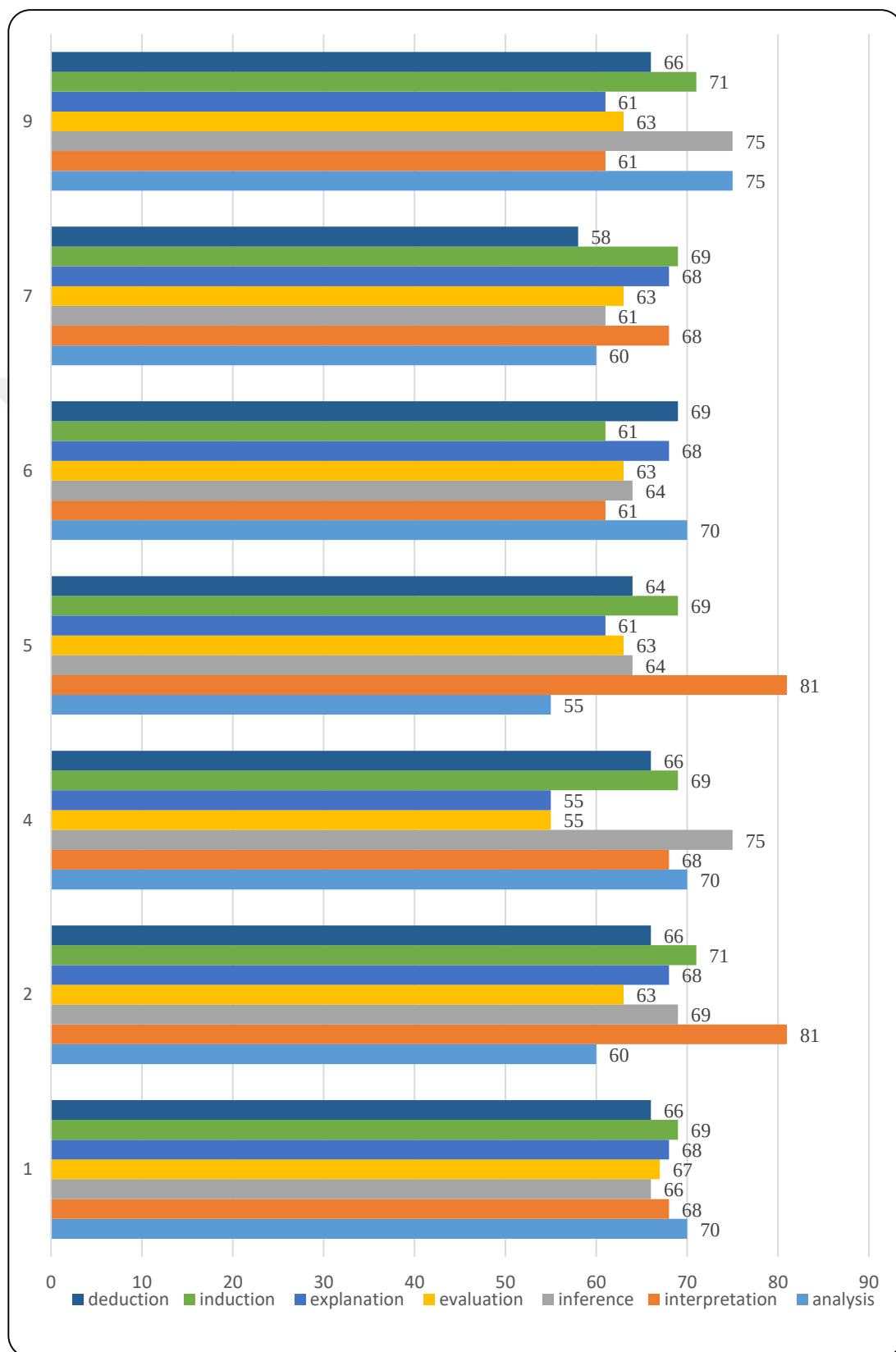


Figure 14. Critical Literacy Group's CCTST pretest scores by critical thinking skills.

Two of the participants' (Participants 2 and 5) Interpretation score was 81, which was the highest score attained in the pretest. Two participants (Participants 4 and 5), on the other hand, received 55, which was the lowest score attained in the pretest. Analysis, Explanation, and Evaluation were the areas to target for growth for these participants.

Figure 15 provides a comparison of participants' individual posttest scores by critical thinking skills. One of the participants (Participant 4) received 81 for Interpretation as the highest score in the posttest. Similar to the pretest, the lowest score in the posttest was 55, which was attained for Explanation.



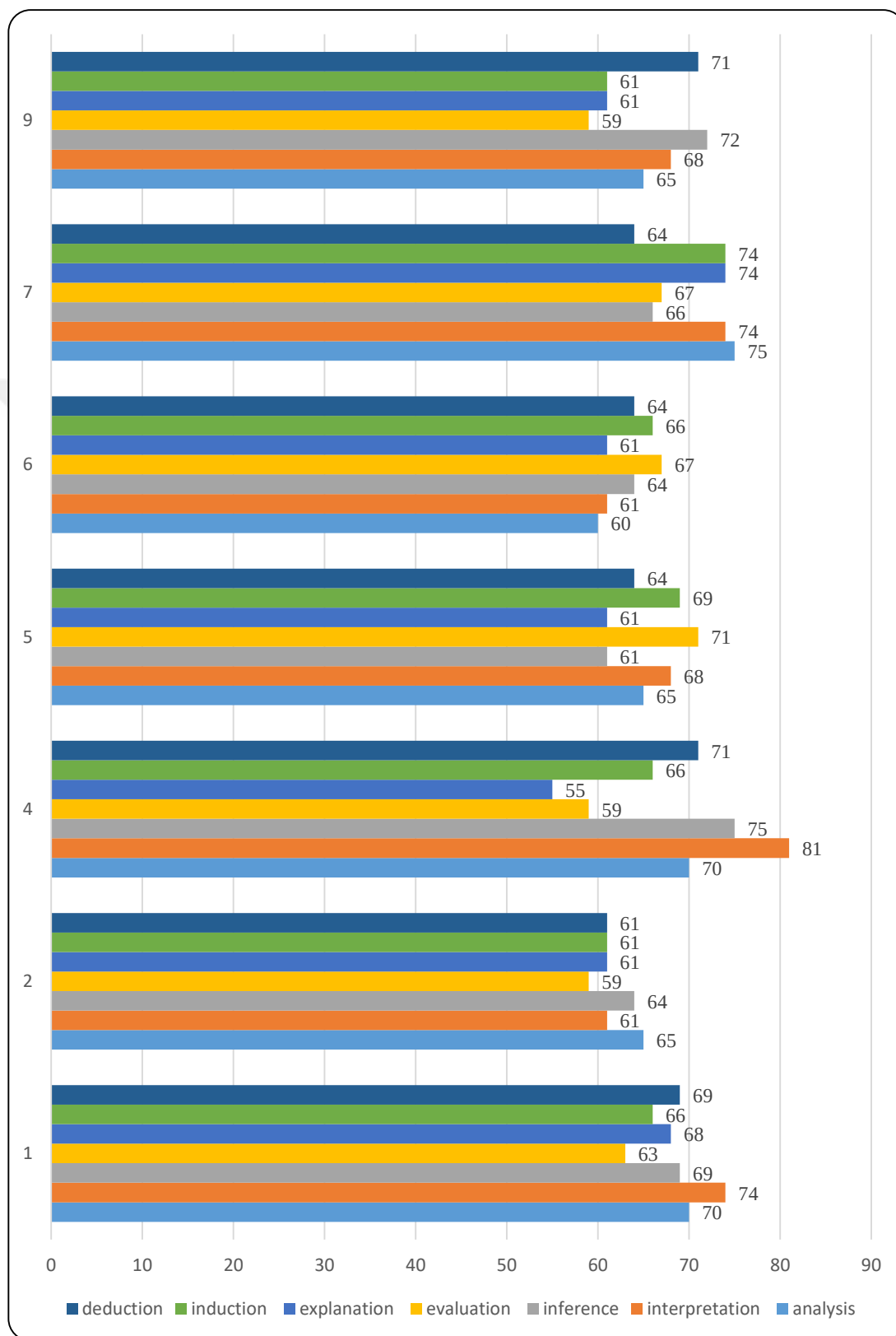


Figure 15. Critical Literacy Group's CCTST posttest scores by critical thinking skills.

Qualitative descriptors (i.e., *Not Manifested*: 50-62; *Weak*: 63-69; *Moderate*: 70-78; *Strong*: 79-85; *Superior*: >86) are used to interpret the CCTST overall scores in terms of their relative strength (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). As Figure 16 shows, the qualitative descriptor for five participants' overall score was interpreted as *Weak* both in the pretest and posttest. The qualitative descriptor for two participants' pretest and posttest overall scores was *Not Manifested*.

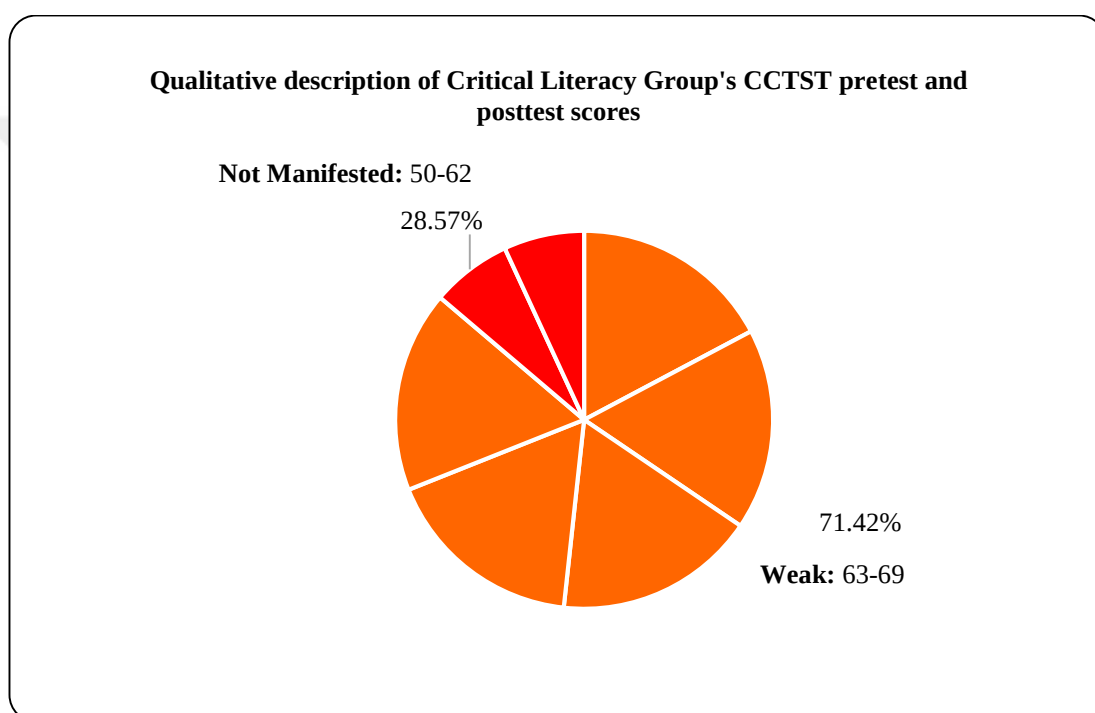


Figure 16. Qualitative description of Critical Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores.

4.2.6. Research question six: Does conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?

The sixth research question investigated if conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach had an impact on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills or not. The results showed that the posttest scores of the CoLG participants were higher than their pretest scores. However, this difference was not significant statistically. Table 31 displays descriptive statistics regarding the CoLG's CCTST pretest and posttest scores.

Table 31

Descriptive statistics regarding Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores

Test	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	p
Pretest	10	62.50	3.50	57.00	68.00	.239
Posttest	10	64	4.26	59.00	71.00	

As shown in the table, the mean for the CCTST pretest was 62.50 ($SD = 3.50$) while the mean for the posttest was 64 ($SD = 4.26$). A Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the CoLG's CT pretest and posttest scores, $Z = -1.178$, $p = .239$, $p > 0.05$ (See Table 32).

Table 32

Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores

Test	Rank	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
CCTST Pretest	Negative Ranks	4	4.00	16.00	-1.178	.239
CCTST Posttest	Positive Ranks	6	6.50	39.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				

Note. * $p < 0.05$

Six (60%) participants received higher scores on the posttest. However, four (40%) participants' posttest scores were lower compared to their pretest scores. Table 33 displays the CoLG's participants' pretest and posttest critical thinking skills scores.

Table 33

Comparison of Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores by critical thinking skills

P	ID	CCTST Pretest Scores								CCTST Posttest Scores							
		A	I	I	E	E	I	D	O	A	I	I	E	E	I	D	O
1	926776	65	81	69	59	55	71	64	65	60	81	64	63	61	61	69	62
3	926778	55	61	61	55	55	58	61	57	65	61	61	63	55	61	66	61
4	926779	75	55	64	55	55	58	64	58	65	68	61	63	61	66	61	61
5	926781	70	61	66	63	61	66	66	64	55	74	64	55	55	61	64	59
7	926785	65	81	66	71	74	79	61	68	75	68	72	75	81	79	66	71
8	926786	70	55	66	59	55	61	66	61	60	68	72	63	55	69	66	65
9	926788	80	68	75	59	61	69	69	66	75	74	75	55	55	61	74	65
10	926789	70	61	69	59	61	64	64	61	65	68	75	67	61	74	69	69
11	926791	55	55	64	67	61	71	56	61	60	61	61	67	68	66	58	59
12	926792	70	68	75	55	55	71	61	64	70	61	75	71	74	69	71	68

Note: P: Participant; A: Analysis; I: Interpretation; I: Inference; E: Evaluation; E: Explanation; I: Induction; D: Deduction; O: Overall.

As the table displays, the CCTST overall scores of the CoLG in the pretest ranged from 57 to 68. With a slight increase, the posttest overall scores ranged from 59 to 71. The data analysis regarding the specific critical thinking skills indicated that participants received the highest pretest scores from Analysis, Inference, and Induction. The highest posttest scores were Interpretation, Inference, and Induction. There was a slight decrease solely in participants' Analysis scores. Both in the pretests and posttests, the area to target for growth included Evaluation and Explanation. Figure 17 provides a comparison of participants' individual pretest scores by critical thinking skills.

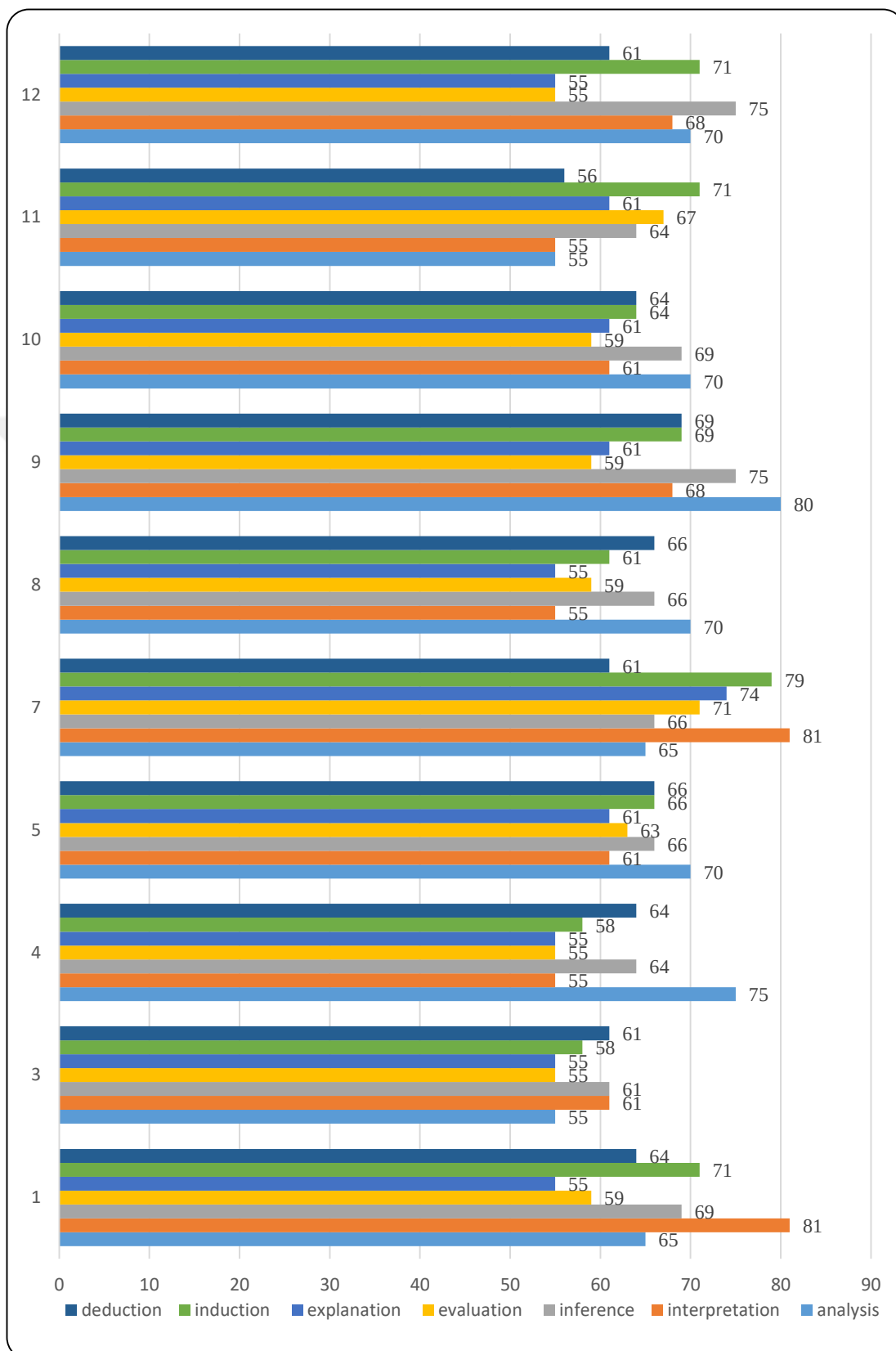


Figure 17. Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST pretest scores by critical thinking skills.

As the figure shows, three participants (Participants 1, 7, and 9) received relatively higher scores for Interpretation and Analysis, which are 80 and 81, compared to the other participants in the group. For the majority of the participants (60%), the lowest score in the pretest was 55, which was obtained for Explanation. Figure 18 shows the qualitative description of the CoLG's CCTST pretest scores.

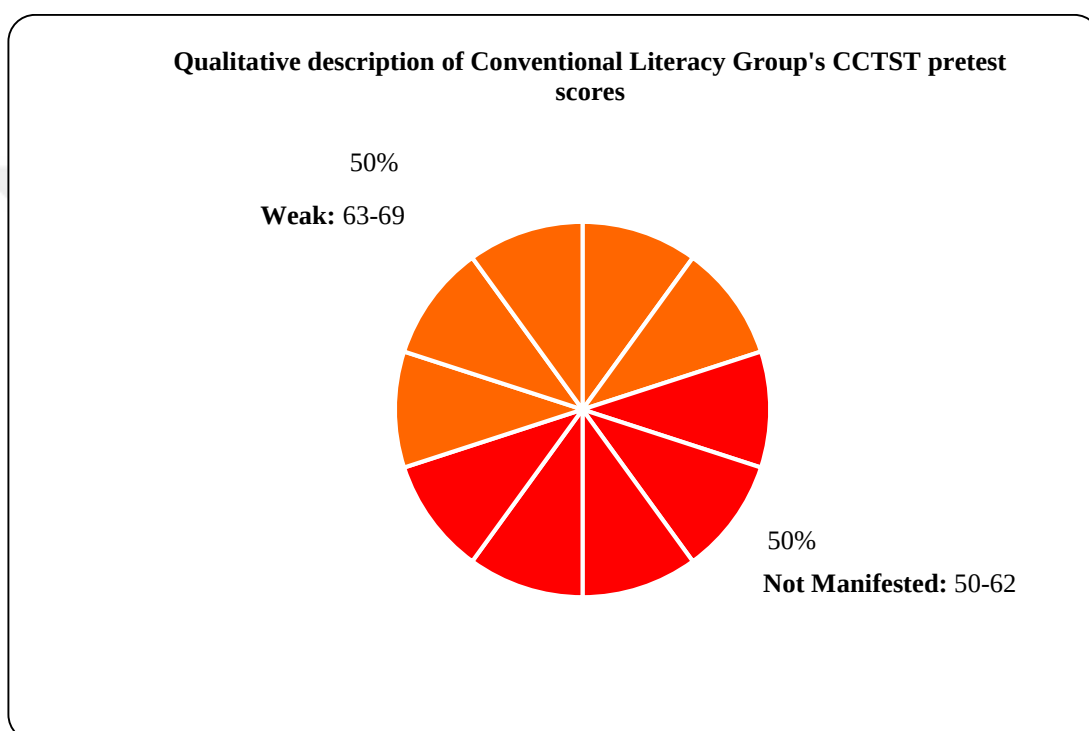


Figure 18. Qualitative description of Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST pretest scores.

The qualitative descriptor for five (50%) participants' overall score was *Weak* while it was *Not Manifested* for the remaining five (50%) participants.

Figure 19 displays Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST posttest scores by critical thinking skills.

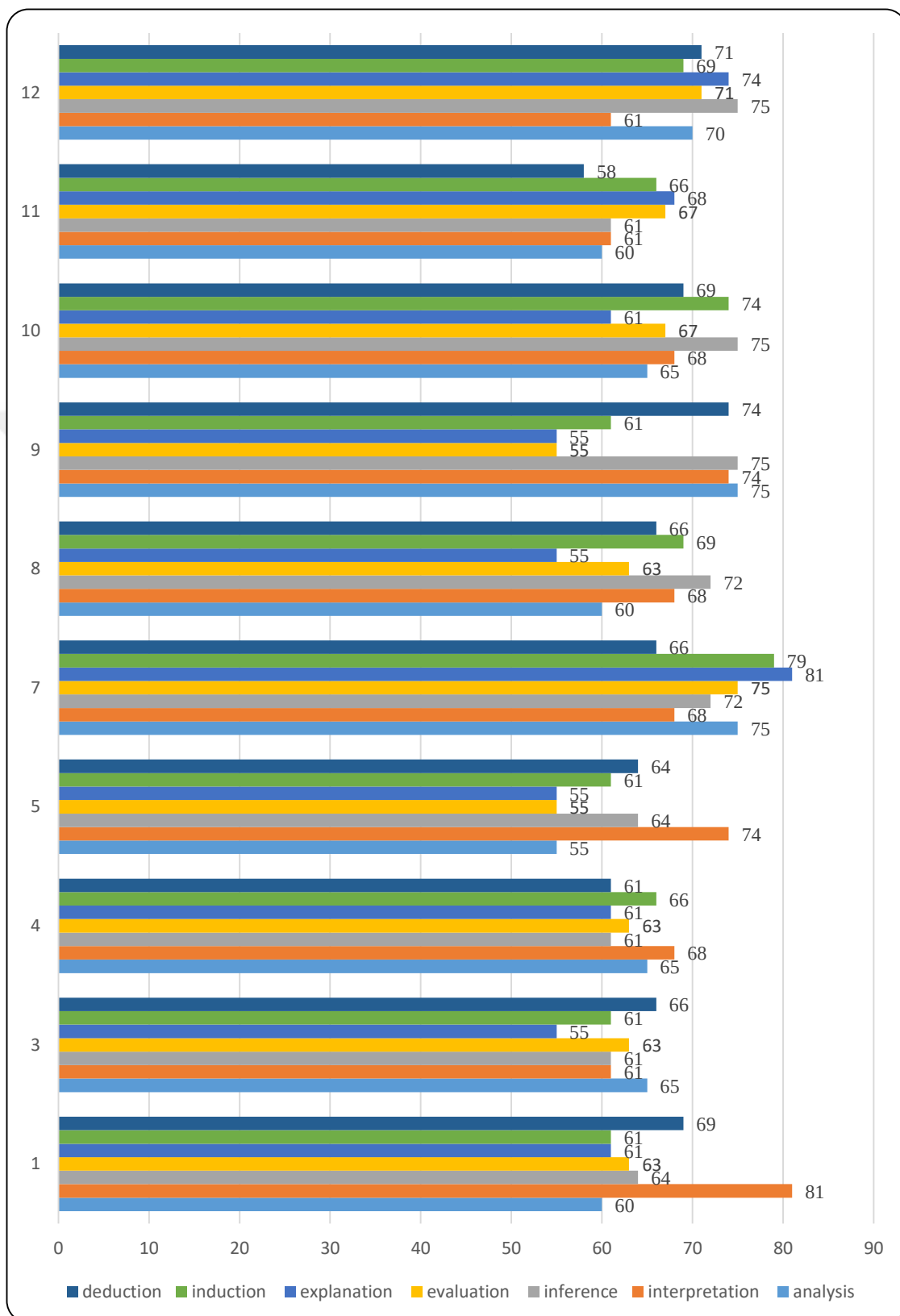


Figure 19. Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST posttest scores by critical thinking skills.

In the posttest, only two of the participants attained 81, which was the highest score, for Interpretation and Explanation, respectively. Similar to the pretest, the lowest score, which was 55, was for Explanation in the posttest. As shown in Figure 20, the qualitative descriptor for five (50%) participants' overall score was *Not Manifested*, and for four (40%) participants, the qualitative descriptor was *Weak*. Only one participant (10%) attained a score whose qualitative descriptor was *Moderate*.

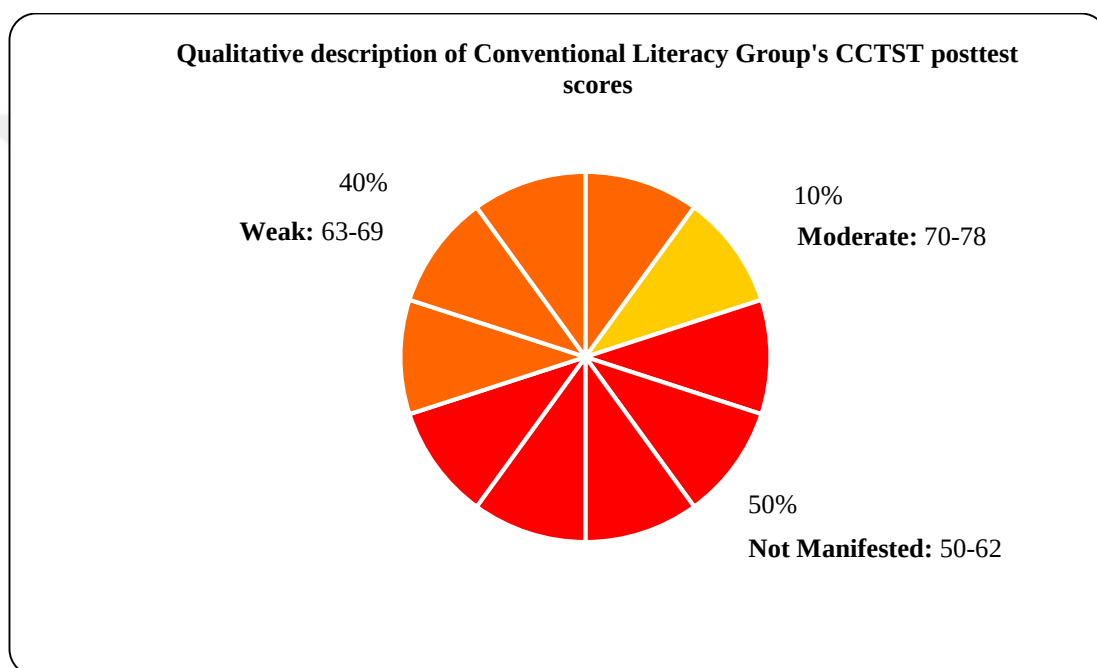


Figure 20. Qualitative description of Conventional Literacy Group's CCTST posttest scores.

4.2.7. Research question seven: Does a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affect adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?

The seventh research question addressed if web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach affected adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills or not. A Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test did not reveal a statistically significant difference between reading pretest and posttest scores of the participants in the WBG, $Z = -.297$, $p = .766$. Table 34 displays descriptive statistics regarding the WBG's CCTST pretest and posttest scores.

Table 34

Descriptive statistics regarding Web-Based Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores

Test	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	p
Pretest	9	65.11	5.60	59	75	.766
Posttest	9	64.88	4.37	59	72	

Table 35 displays that the mean for the CCTST pretest was 65.11 ($SD = 5.60$). However, the mean for the posttest was 64.88 ($SD = 4.37$).

Table 35

Web-Based Group's CCTST pretest and posttest scores

Test	Rank	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
CCTST Pretest	Negative Ranks	3	6.67	20.00	-.297	.766
CCTST Posttest	Positive Ranks	6	4.17	25.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	9				

Note. * $p < 0.05$

Six (66.66%) participants had higher posttest scores, whereas three (33.33%) participants' scores were lower compared to their pretest scores. Table 36 presents detailed information pertaining to the WBG participants' pretest and posttest critical thinking skills scores.

Table 36

Comparison of Web-Based Group's CCTST pretest and posttest test scores by critical thinking skills

P	ID	CCTST Pretest Scores								CCTST Posttest Scores							
		A	I	I	E	E	I	D	O	A	I	I	E	E	I	D	O
1	926755	60	68	58	67	68	71	56	61	65	55	64	71	68	66	64	62
2	926757	70	87	78	67	68	79	74	75	65	74	75	67	74	71	71	69
4	926760	70	68	66	55	55	64	64	61	70	61	61	59	55	61	64	59
5	926762	70	87	78	71	81	77	74	73	60	61	64	67	74	64	64	61
6	926763	70	55	66	55	55	61	64	59	70	61	72	63	61	69	64	64
7	926764	65	68	61	63	68	61	66	61	75	61	64	59	61	64	66	62
9	926766	65	68	69	67	74	69	69	66	75	68	72	71	74	74	69	69
10	926767	70	87	72	55	55	71	66	66	75	81	78	63	61	69	79	72
11	926768	65	68	72	59	61	69	64	64	70	68	72	63	61	66	71	66

Note: P: Participant; A: Analysis; I: Interpretation; I: Inference; E: Evaluation; E: Explanation; I: Induction; D: Deduction; O: Overall.

As the table displays, the CCTST overall scores of the WBG in the pretest ranged from 59 to 75. The posttest overall scores ranged from 59 to 72. The data analysis regarding the specific critical thinking skills indicated that participants received the highest pretest scores from Interpretation, Induction, and Inference. On the other hand, the highest posttest scores were Analysis, Inference, and Deduction. Compared to the pretest scores, there was a decrease in participants' Interpretation and Induction scores. Similar to CoLG, the areas to target for growth included Evaluation and Explanation both in the pretests and posttests. Figure 21 provides a comparison of participants' individual pretest scores by critical thinking skills.

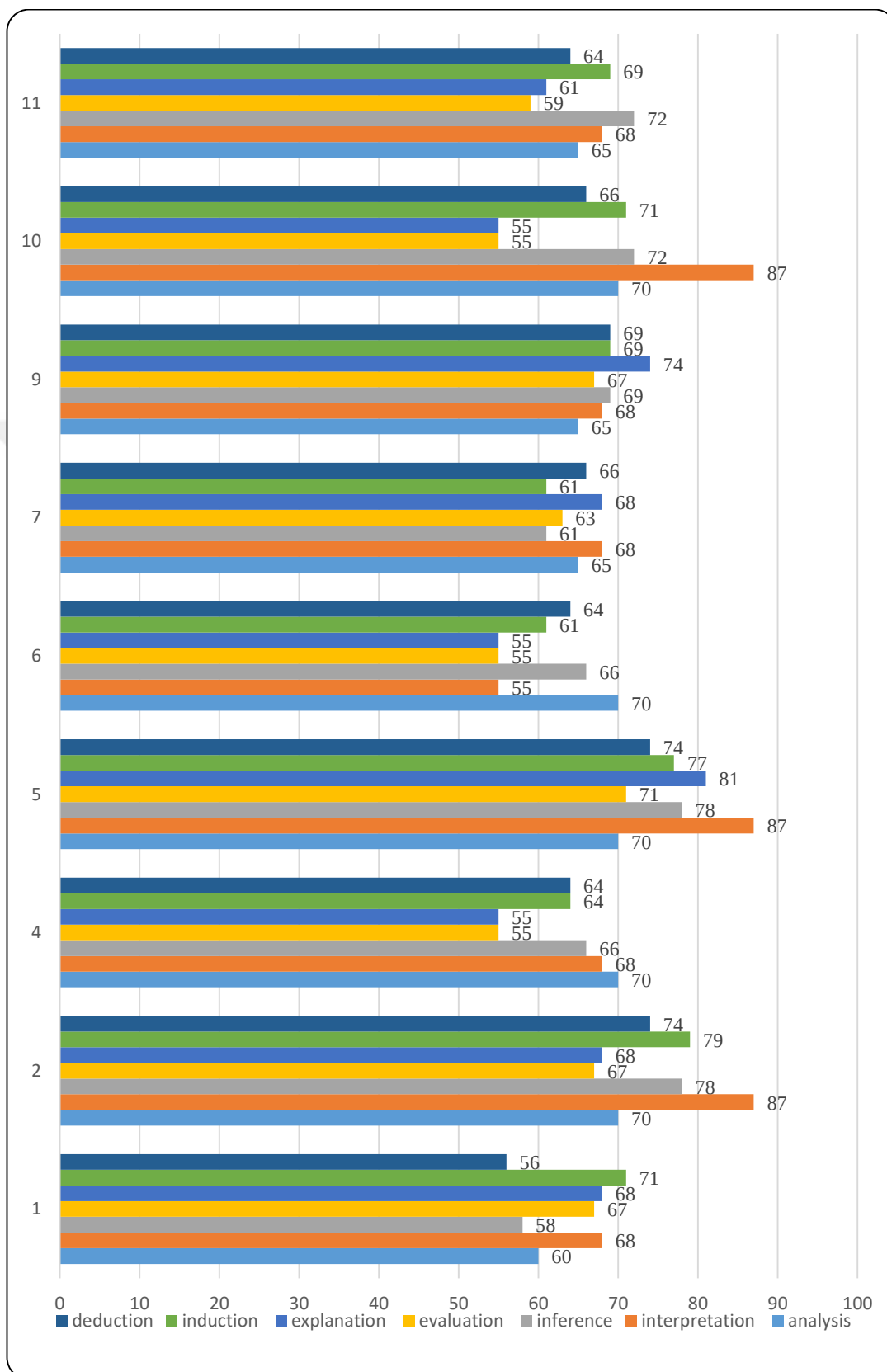


Figure 21. Web-Based Group's CCTST pretest test scores by critical thinking skills.

As the figure shows, three participants (Participants 2, 5, and 10) received the highest score for Interpretation, which was 87, compared to the other participants in the group. Different from Control Group 1, only three of the participants (33.33%) attained 55, being the lowest score in the pretest. Figure 22 shows the qualitative description of the WBG's CCTST pretest scores.

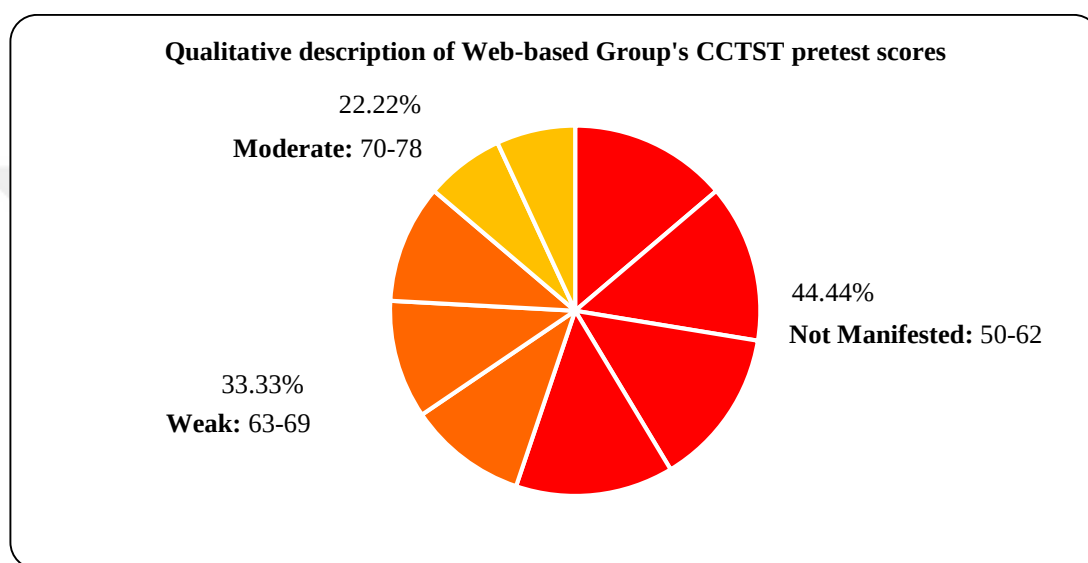


Figure 22. Qualitative description of Web-Based Group's CCTST pretest scores.

As shown in Figure 23, the qualitative descriptor for four (44.44%) participants' overall score was *Not Manifested*, and for three (33.33%) participants, the qualitative descriptor was *Weak*. Only two participants (22.22%) in the WBG attained a score, whose qualitative descriptor was *Moderate*.

Figure 23 displays Web-Based Group's CCTST posttest scores by critical thinking skills.

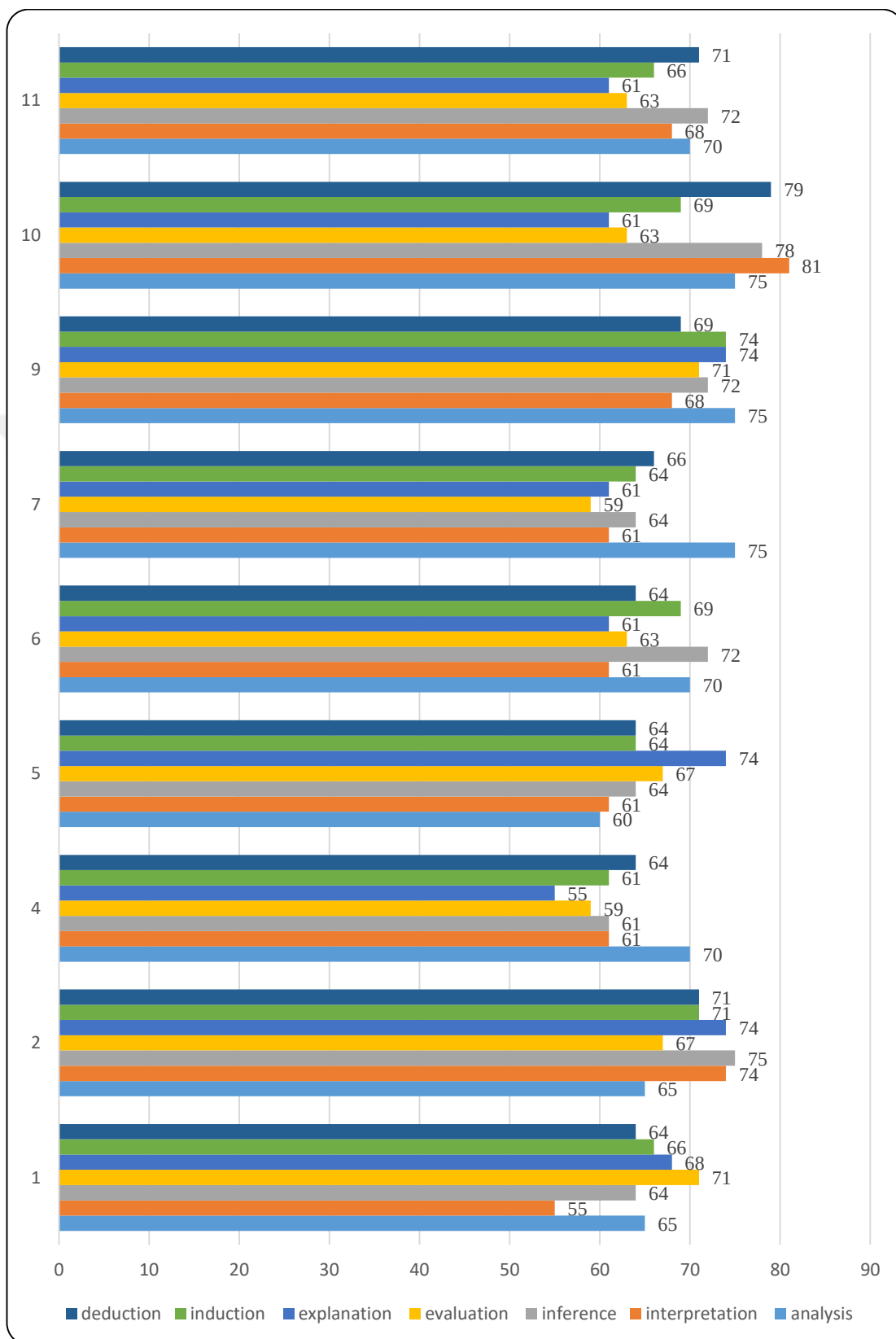


Figure 23. Web-Based Group's CCTST posttest test scores by critical thinking skills.

Only one of the WBG participants (Participant 10) received 81 for Interpretation, which was the highest score in the posttest. As for the lowest score, only two participants (Participants 1 and 4) attained 55 in the posttest, which were for Interpretation and Explanation. Figure 24 shows that the qualitative descriptor for four (44.44%) participants' overall score was *Not Manifested*, and for four (44.44%) participants, the qualitative descriptor was *Weak*. Only one participant (11.11%) attained a score, whose qualitative descriptor was *Moderate*.

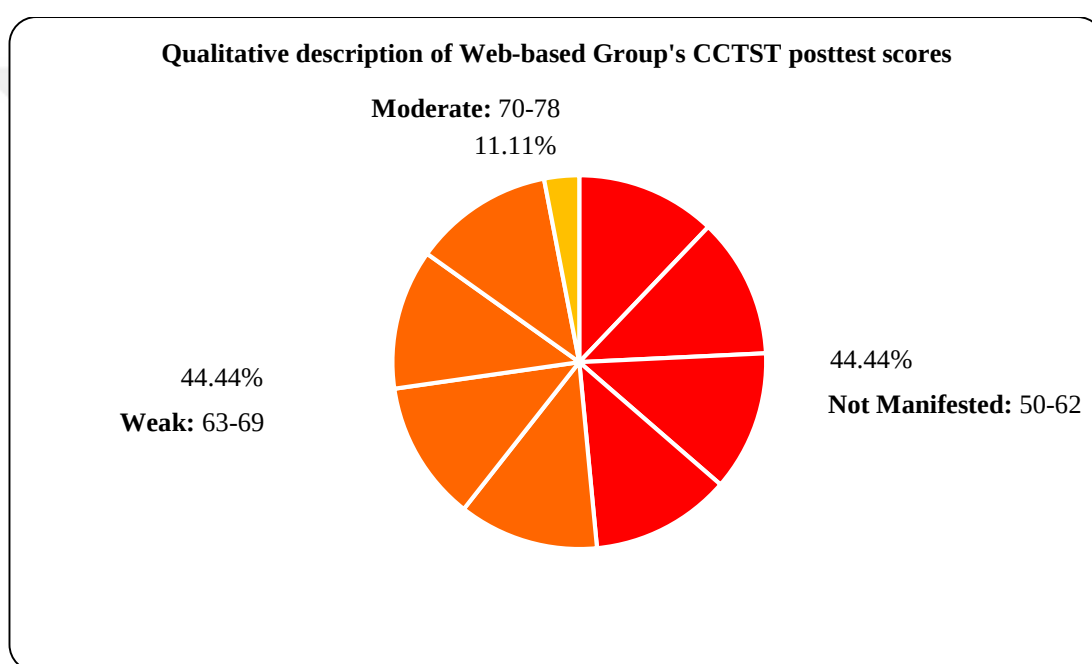


Figure 24. Qualitative description of Web-Based Group's CCTST posttest scores.

4.2.8. Research question eight: Is there a significant difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group?

The eighth research question investigated if there was a significant difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the CLG, CoLG, and WBG or not. Hence, a Kruskal-Wallis H Test was employed. The results did not yield a statistically significant difference among the CCTST posttest scores of all groups, $\chi^2(2) = .324$, $p = .850$, $df = 2$, with a mean rank of 12.93 for the CLG, 12.85 for the CoLG, and 14.67 for the WBG as presented in Table 37.

Table 37

Comparison of Critical Literacy Group's, Conventional Literacy Group's, and Web-Based Group's CCTST posttest scores

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	SD	χ^2	p
CCTST Posttest	CLG	7	12.93			
	CoLG	10	12.85	3.85	.324	.850
	WBG	9	14.67			
	Total	26				

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; WBG: Web-Based Group.
*p<0.05

4.2.9. Research question nine: Is there a relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores?

The ninth research question aimed to reveal whether there was a relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores or not. To this end, a Pearson Correlation Coefficient was employed. Table 38 presents the findings.

Table 38

Relationship between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores

Test	Group	N	Mean	SD	r	p
Reading Posttest CCTST Posttest	CLG	7	8.85	6.06	.045	.924
		7	63.57	2.82		
Reading Posttest CCTST Posttest	CoLG	10	13.50	6.20	-.151	.677
		10	64.00	4.26		
Reading Posttest CCTST Posttest	WBG	9	11.88	3.48	.369	.329
		9	64.88	4.37		
Reading Posttest CCTST Posttest	All Groups	26	11.69	5.49	.044	.829
			64.19	3.85		

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; WBG: Web-Based Group.
 * $p < 0.05$

The analysis did not yield a statistically significant relationship between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores. As the table shows, the statistical analysis revealed that there was a very weak correlation, or there was almost no association between the CLG participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = .045$, $p = .924$. As for the CoLG, there was a weak relationship between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = -.151$, $p = .677$. However, the analysis suggested that the variables had an inverse relationship. That is, when one variable decreased, the other increased, or when one variable increased, the other decreased. Finally, there was a moderate positive correlation between the WBG participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = .369$, $p = .329$. On the whole, when the analysis was computed for all study groups, there was a very weak correlation, or there was almost no association between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = .044$, $p = .829$.

4.2.10. Research question ten: Does gender play a role in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills?

The tenth research question investigated whether gender played a role in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills or not. This research question was addressed using a Mann-Whitney U Test. The analysis did not yield a statistically significant difference between female and male participants' critical literacy skills in any of the groups. The test indicated that the

female participants' posttest scores were not statistically different from the male participants' posttest scores in the CLG, $U = 4.00$, $p = .693$. Similarly, there were no significant differences between the female and male participants' posttest scores in the CoLG, $U = 10.00$, $p = .598$. Finally, the analysis revealed similar results for the WBG. The female participants' posttest scores were not statistically different from the male participants' posttest scores, $U = 9.50$, $p = .902$. These results suggested that the null hypothesis could not be rejected. Table 39 provides information on the comparison of all study groups' critical literacy posttest scores by gender.

Table 39

Comparison of Critical Literacy Group's, Conventional Literacy Group's, and Web-Based Group's CCTST posttest scores by gender

Test	Group	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
CCTST Posttest	CLG	Female	5	4.20	21.00	4.00	-.394	.693
		Male	2	3.50	7.00			
	CoLG	Female	5	6.00	30.00	10.00	-.527	.598
		Male	5	5.00	25.00			
	WBG	Female	4	4.88	19.50	9.50	-.124	.902
		Male	5	5.10	25.50			
	Total	Female	14					
		Male	12					

Note: CLG: Critical Literacy Group; CoLG: Conventional Literacy Group; WBG: Web-Based Group.
* $p < 0.05$

4.2.11. Research question eleven: What are the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language?

The eleventh research question, which was the final research question, aimed to reveal the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language. Focus group interviews which attempted to glean information on participants' perceptions of critical literacy skills while learning English were undertaken after the quantitative data were collected. The interviews were administered in English. Eight participants (Participants 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, and 11) from the CLG volunteered to participate in the interviews. Nine questions, four of which were open-response items, were asked in the

interviews. Thematic coding was employed to analyze the data which came from the focus group interviews. Table 40 presents the themes emerged from the participants' responses.

Table 40

Participants' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills

Theme		f	%
Benefits of the study	▪ Taking a good test.	1	12.5
	▪ Learning what to think in the exams.	1	12.5
	▪ Reading different texts, learning new information, gaining new perspectives.	3	37.5
	▪ Opportunities for improving our English and reading skills.	3	37.5
Total		8	100
Reasons for the usefulness of the study	▪ Positive impact on exams.	4	50
	▪ Usefulness of studying.	1	12.5
	▪ Thinking critically and being able to comment on many things.	1	12.5
	▪ Gaining new perspectives while reading.	1	12.5
	▪ Improving reading skills.	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Skills gained throughout/after the study	▪ Being more strategic in the exams.	1	12.5
	▪ Better reading skills, expansion in vocabulary knowledge, and enhanced comprehension.	4	50
	▪ Enhanced CT skills and becoming more critical.	2	25
	▪ Paying more attention to text while reading.	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Relevance of target skills in learners' departments	▪ Reading department-related articles and learning new things.	4	50
	▪ Using the skills taught in the Erasmus exams.	1	12.5
	▪ Analyzing the results of experiments.	1	12.5
	▪ Reading faster.	1	12.5
	▪ Writing articles.	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Relevance of target skills in learners' future lives	▪ Using the target skills in daily/education/business life.	3	37.5
	▪ All aspects of life.	2	25
	▪ Doing academic career.	1	12.5
	▪ Using the target skills when a problem is encountered.	1	12.5
	▪ Analyzing and interpreting information while reading articles.	1	12.5
Total		8	100

The best aspect of the study	▪ Learning new vocabulary items and improving reading skills.	2	25
	▪ Incentives.	2	25
	▪ Applying CT.	1	12.5
	▪ The focus the study provided.	1	12.5
	▪ Gaining new perspectives.	1	12.5
	▪ All aspects of the study.	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Learners' preferred reading texts (genres)	▪ Narrative.	2	25
	▪ Scientific.	2	25
	▪ Descriptive.	1	12.5
	▪ Explanatory.	1	12.5
	▪ Comparison & contrast.	1	12.5
	▪ Persuasive.	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Learners' perceptions of the most important critical reading skill(s)	▪ Analysis as the most important skill for understanding (the purpose of a text) and for business/education life.	6	75
	▪ All of them.	1	12.5
	▪ Evaluation, explanation, and inference.	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Issues to consider	▪ Using shorter texts.	1	12.5
	▪ Using easier texts.	1	12.5
	▪ None.	6	75
Total		8	100

In a nutshell, participants' responses indicated that they perceived critical reading skills to be essential not only for learning English but also for their departments and future lives. The responses also showed that being equipped with these skills and improving critical reading skills enabled learners to have improved scores from the exams. By reading new texts and learning new information, they stated that they could gain new perspectives in all aspects of life. Thus, they would be able to think critically and comment on various issues. This provided them with opportunities for improving their English skills along with the reading skills. The skills participants declared they had gained throughout or after the study involved better reading skills, enhanced attention while reading a text, expansion in vocabulary knowledge, and enhanced comprehension as well as enhanced critical thinking skills, which helped them become more critical individuals.

As for the relevance of the target skills for their departments, they stated that they would be utilizing these skills when reading/writing department-related articles and learning new things. They also reported that they would use the target skills taught both in the future exams they would take and for the experiments they would conduct. The majority of the

participants stated that they would be using the target skills in all aspects of their lives, including their daily, education, academic, and business lives. In addition, they declared that they would be using critical reading skills to analyze and interpret information while reading articles and solving the problems encountered. From the participants' perspectives, the best aspects of the study included learning new vocabulary items, improving their reading skills, incentives offered at the end of the study, opportunities to apply critical thinking skills, the focus the study provided, and, finally, gaining new perspectives. Participants' preferred genres involved narratives, scientific, descriptive, explanatory, comparison and contrast, and persuasive texts. Participants' responses also indicated that analysis was perceived as the most important critical thinking skill, for they used this skill in order to understand the purpose of a text in their academic and business lives. Besides analysis, participants listed evaluation, explanation, and inference as the essential critical thinking skills. Learners proposed using texts that were shorter and easier to promote a more fruitful critical reading instruction.

4.3. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the research questions, data analysis procedures and findings. First, the findings that derived from quantitative data were presented. The chapter then provided data coming from focus group interviews.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore whether genre-based reading instruction that aimed to teach critical literacy skills had any impact on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension levels and critical literacy skills or not. In addition, the effects of conventional literacy instruction and web-based exposure on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension levels and critical literacy skills were investigated. In addition, the relationship between learners' reading and critical thinking scores was examined. Finally, the study sought to explore the role gender played in learners' critical literacy skills and the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language.

To this end, a reading comprehension test and an online critical thinking skills test were used as the pretests and posttests. Because the study had an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, focus group interviews were administered to reveal learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language after the administration of posttests. This final chapter firstly presents a brief summary of the findings in line with the research questions followed by a detailed discussion of the results. Then pedagogical implications for educators and learners and limitations of the study are provided. The chapter concludes with suggestions for further research on the relevant subjects.

5.2. Summary and Discussion of Results

This study was conducted at the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) of a state university, located in the western part of Turkey, where the medium of instruction is English. Participants in the study included 26 preparatory year students who were studying their second year of English at the preparatory school. Data sources included pretest and posttest scores of a reading test and an online critical thinking test as well as focus group interviews. Quantitative data were analyzed through the SPSS software, Version 22, to research the impact of a four-week genre-based reading instruction on learners' critical literacy skills, and thematic coding was employed to analyze the qualitative data regarding the CLG participants' (N = 8) perceptions of critical literacy. The summary and discussion of the research findings are presented below in line with the research questions of the study and in context of literature related to reading and critical literacy. First, the discussion regarding reading comprehension will be presented. Next, the discussion with regard to critical literacy will be provided.

5.2.1. Reading comprehension

The first, second, and third research questions of the study addressed the impact of instruction with different foci on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension. The fourth research question explored the difference among the reading posttest scores of the participants from all the study groups, namely the CLG, CoLG, and WBG participants.

Research question one: The effect of explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension

A four-week genre-based reading instruction designed to teach critical literacy skills did not result in a statistically significant change in the CLG's reading posttest scores. In other words, the posttest reading scores ($M = 8.85$) of the CLG were not statistically significantly higher than their pretest scores ($M = 8.14$). Nearly half of the participants (42.85%) had a decrease in their reading comprehension scores. 42.85% of the participants, on the other hand, had improved reading comprehension scores in the posttest. 14.28% of the participants' posttest scores remained the same as the pretest scores. Hence, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

The findings of the present study did not corroborate the results of the studies that have recently been conducted in different EFL contexts (Abbasian & Malaee, 2016; Hazaea & Alzubi, 2017; Rashidi & Asgharzadeh, 2012). The findings of the present study were not in line with Abbasian and Malaee's (2016) study which aimed to investigate the impact of explicit teaching of some Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) techniques on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. The results indicated that the experimental group instructed to read critically obtained higher scores compared to the control group. The study did not support the findings of Hazaea and Alzubi's (2017) quasi-experimental study conducted in a Saudi Arabian tertiary context to explore the effect of CDA instruction on EFL analytical reading practices as well since the results of this study indicated significant effects on the analytical practices (i.e., description, interpretation and explanation). In other words, a fourteen-week discourse-based instruction enabled the participants, who were preparatory year students, to improve reading skills to go beyond the text rather than merely reading the text. In addition, the critical reading approach Rashidi and Asgharzadeh (2012) adopted in their empirical study, which was based on CDA, had a significantly positive effect on female high school students' reading comprehension.

The implemented curriculum in the present study aimed to put the emphasis on both the conventional literacy skills and critical literacy skills. Thus, the lesson plans were designed in accordance with Luke and Freebody's Four Resources Model (1999). Skill-based literacy

was combined with critical literacy skills in order to accomplish the model (Exley & Dooley, 2015, as cited in Huh, 2016). That is to say, four components of text engagement, namely code breaking, text participating, text using, and text critiquing were used in the instruction of CLG. During the four-week genre-based instruction, two class hours were allocated for each reading text. This short intervention process may have been perceived to be insufficient and may not have permitted learners to practice the targeted literacy skills effectively.

Research question two: The effect of conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension

The data analysis yielded similar results for the CoLG regarding the effect of conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension levels. Although the reading posttest mean score ($M = 13.5$) was higher compared to the pretest mean score ($M = 9.80$), participants' reading posttest scores were not statistically significantly higher than their reading pretest scores. The majority of the participants (70%) received improved scores on the reading posttest, whereas there was a decrease in the posttest scores of the two participants (20%). Moreover, one (10%) of the participants' posttest score remained the same as the pretest score.

The results revealed that the genre-based reading curriculum which put the emphasis on conventional literacy skills aided most of the participants to enhance their reading comprehension skills. Through the tasks implemented to break the codes, participate in texts, and use texts (Luke & Freebody, 1999), learners could engage more with the texts and, thus, could boost their comprehension. In other words, the dynamic integration of code breaking, text participating, and text using enabled learners to become better readers.

Research question three: The effect of a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension

Regarding the effect of the web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension, the analysis did not indicate a statistically significant difference between the WBG participants' reading pretest and posttest scores in spite of the slight increase in the Web-Based Group's reading posttest mean score ($M = 11.88$) compared to the pretest mean score ($M = 10.55$). 55.55% of the participants obtained higher scores on the reading posttest while there was a decrease in the 33.33% of the participants' posttest scores. 11.11% of the participants had no change in their posttest scores, however.

The results showed that the majority of the participants benefited from the self-study sessions pertaining to reading comprehension. Web-based exposure to reading texts, tasks, and

course materials provided learners with autonomy, which enabled them to expend more time and effort on the texts and tasks based on their interests and needs. Zafarian and Nemati's (2016) study revealed a significant positive relationship between learner autonomy and the EFL learners' reading comprehension. Similarly, Zarei and Gahremani's (2010) study indicated a positive relationship between learners' autonomy and their ability in reading comprehension. Learner autonomy, as a concept, first emerged in the mid-1970s in the context of innovative foreign language learning programs which were designed for adult learners (Harding-Esch 1977; Holec 1981, as cited in Benson & Huang, 2008). According to Holec (1981), autonomy is the "ability to take charge of one's own learning", and this ability "is not inborn but must be acquired either by 'natural' means or (as most often happens) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way" (p. 3, as cited in Little, 2006). In the national curricula of 1990s, however, "learner autonomy was dressed in borrowed terms", which were "independent learning and "critical thinking" (Little, 2007, p. 14). In other words, in these newly emerging learner-centered theories deriving from constructivist learning theories, learners were doing things by themselves and for themselves (Little, 2007).

Furthermore, the use of technology may have had a positive impact on the learners' motivation as it affects the quality of input positively (Brett & González-Lloret, 2009). In Prensky's (2001) terms, today's learners are "digital natives", that is, they are "'native speakers" of the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet" (p.1). Hence, having access to the materials through a website may have boosted participants' motivation by providing them with more responsibility and control over their learning process. In addition to the use of technology, the participants of this group had more time to read the texts and complete the tasks, contrary to the CLG and CoLG participants, and this may have provided them with more opportunities for learning and reflection.

Research question four: The difference among the reading posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group

The fourth research question addressed whether there was a significant difference among the reading posttest scores of the CLG, CoLG, and WBG or not. The analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference among the study groups' reading posttest scores. The mean ranks were 10.00, 14.85, and 14.72, respectively. The CLG obtained the lowest mean rank regarding the reading posttest scores. Indeed, this group had the lowest pretest mean score (8.14) as well. The pretest mean scores for the CoLG and WBG were 9.80 and 10.55, respectively. The CoLG, on the other hand, obtained the highest posttest mean rank. Focusing solely on the conventional literacy skills, thus, having a more effective instructor's

guidance and scaffolding throughout the instruction, and learning actively through pairwork/groupwork may have contributed to and facilitated the learning process for the participants in the CoLG, which may have led to enhanced levels of reading comprehension. Scaffolding, or in Donato's (2000) terms, "instructional conversation" (as cited in Ellis, 2008), derives from Sociocultural Theory (Ellis, 2008). According to Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976, as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 235) scaffolding entails the following features:

- recruiting interest in the task
- simplifying the task
- maintaining pursuit of the goal
- marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been proposed and the ideal solution
- controlling frustration during problem solving
- demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed.

Thus, through "pedagogic interaction" (Ellis, 2008, p. 528), the instructor and learners could negotiate on meaning for curricular purposes, which promotes the targeted learning outcomes. As for active learning, Açıkgöz (2008) states that it has gained recent interest in education since there is a need for lifelong learners today, traditional approaches do not address learners' needs, and the recent developments in education require active learners. The results of the present study were in line with Koç's (2007) study, which investigated the effect of the use of active learning, indicated that active learning methods used in the instruction of the experimental group had a positive impact on participants' reading comprehension.

5.2.2. Critical literacy

The fifth, sixth, and seventh research questions of the study examined the impact of different kinds of instruction on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills. The eighth research question investigated the difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the CLG, CoLG, and WBG participants, and the ninth research question aimed to reveal the relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores. The tenth research question examined the role gender played in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills. Lastly, the eleventh research question aimed at exploring the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language.

Research question five: The effect of explicit instruction of critical literacy skills with a genre-based on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills

Similar to the findings of the first research question, the analysis did not reveal significant differences between participants' CCTST pretest and posttest scores. In other

words, the CLG's CCTST posttest scores ($M = 63.57$) were not statistically significantly higher than their CCTST pretest scores ($M = 64.14$) despite the fact that the results indicated a very slight decrease in the participants' posttest scores. While 28.57% of the participants' scores were higher, and 28.57% of the participants' scores were lower in the CCTST posttest, there was no change in the 42.85% of the participants' CCTST posttest scores.

As for the specific critical thinking skills, participants received the highest pretest scores from Interpretation ($M = 69.71$), Induction ($M = 68.43$), and Inference ($M = 67.71$). However, in the posttest, participants' Analysis ($M = 67.14$) scores were also among the highest scores in addition to Interpretation ($M = 69.57$) and Inference ($M = 67.29$). However, there was a slight decrease in participants' Interpretation ($M = 69.57$), Inference ($M = 67.29$), and Induction ($M = 66.14$) scores. In the pretest, the area to target for growth included Evaluation ($M = 62.43$) while the area to target for growth for posttest was Explanation, whose posttest mean score ($M = 63.00$) was lower compared to the pretest mean score ($M = 64.14$). When participants' individual scores were analyzed, the highest score attained in the pretest was 81, whereas the lowest score was 55. Interpretation was the skill which had the highest score (81). On the other hand, Analysis, Explanation, and Evaluation were the areas to target for growth for the participants who received the lowest pretest scores. Similar to the pretest results, the highest score received in the posttest was 81, which was attained for Interpretation. The lowest score in the posttest was 55, which was attained for Explanation, however.

In order to interpret the CCTST overall scores regarding their relative strength, Qualitative descriptors (i.e., *Not Manifested*: 50-62; *Weak*: 63-69; *Moderate*: 70-78; *Strong*: 79-85; *Superior*: >86) are used (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020). The majority of the participants' (71.42%) overall score was interpreted as *Weak* both in the pretest and posttest. The qualitative descriptor for two of the participants' (28.57%) pretest and posttest overall score was *Not Manifested*, which was the lowest qualitative descriptor. Overall, none of the participants in the CLG could receive scores that could be interpreted as *Moderate*, *Strong*, or *Superior*.

In the present study, solely sixteen class hours (i.e., 720 minutes in total) could be allocated for the instruction of critical literacy skills. The short duration of the educational intervention may have resulted in the slight or no difference in participants' pretest and posttest scores. These results are in line with Facione's (1990) report showing that non-native native English learners did not have improved CCTST scores as a result of a semester-long course in critical thinking. Furthermore, recent studies indicated an increase in students' CCTST scores over one quarter or one semester (Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011). The stability or decrease in

the participants' CCTST posttest scores may also be interpreted as a sign of confusion. During the intervention, the focus was on both conventional and critical literacy skills, which may have caused some cognitive load on students. Learners may not have been able to improve both conventional literacy skills and critical literacy skills in such a limited period of time. A number of scholars (see e.g., Arburn, 1999; Boyadjian-Samawi, 2006; Gelven, 1997; Lierman, 1997; Teixeira, 2001, as cited in Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011) advocate that extended durations of treatment are needed in order to develop participants' critical thinking skills. In brief, long-term and extended treatment periods may enhance the likelihood that learners have statistically significant gains in terms of critical reading.

In addition, the participants in this group had lower levels of motivation compared to the other groups involved in the study, for the critical literacy skills being taught would not be tested in the final exam they would take at the end of the academic year to be able to study at their departments. Four of the eight participants whose data were excluded from the final data either due to inadequate test completion time or response rate were in the CLG, which could be interpreted as a sign of a decline in participants' motivation. In addition, it is stated in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide (2020) that a significant drop in the true scores (or percentiles) at posttest is rarely observed since critical thinking skills can only be lost over a short period of time due to the presence of specific problems, including cognitive injury or chemical impairment. Thus, such scores, in most cases, tend to be "false scores", which is "the result of a failure to give or to be able to give best effort" (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 41). When the CLG participants' individual difference scores were calculated, it was observed that one of the participants had an 8-point difference in the posttest score while the other participant had a two-point difference. This indicates that not all the participants could give their best effort in the CCTST posttest.

Participants' lower levels of motivation, language comprehension issues, participants' relatively weaker reading abilities may be proposed as the potential causes of these posttest scores. Since the participants were repeat students, who were studying their second year of English at the preparatory school, the priority for them was passing the proficiency exam. In the case of a re-failure to attain a proficiency exam score lower than the required score (i.e., 60/100), students would be placed in a department whose medium of instruction was Turkish, either at the institute or any university on their demand. Therefore, participants in the CLG may have perceived the skills being taught as irrelevant with regard to their immediate educational needs. Only 28.57% of the participants received higher CCTST posttest scores, and as for reading comprehension, the CLG obtained the lowest mean rank regarding the

reading posttest scores when compared with the other groups involved in the study. There was a very slight increase (below 1 point) in the posttest mean score of the CLG. It could be interpreted that lower levels of reading comprehension may have caused a slight or almost no increase in the CCTST posttest scores as well.

As stated in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide (2020), “score improvement of even one point for a given individual signifies that this individual correctly analyzed a scenario and identified the correct response while not falling victim to other common reasoning errors presented in other response choices” (p. 39). In this sense, although the results did not reveal significant differences in the participants’ CCTST posttest scores, 28.57% of the participants attained improved posttest scores after the treatment.

Research question six: The effect of conventional literacy instruction with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners’ critical literacy skills

With regard to the effect of conventional literacy instruction on the CoLG participants’ critical literacy skills, there was no statistically significant difference between the CoLG’s critical thinking pretest and posttest scores. Although the CoLG participants’ posttest mean score ($M = 64$) was higher than their pretest mean score ($M = 62.50$), this difference was not significant statistically. The CoLG was the only study group which had improved CCTST posttest mean score. There was an increase in the posttest scores of 60% of the participants. However, 40% of the participants’ posttest scores were lower compared to their pretest scores.

The pretest CCTST overall scores of the CoLG ranged from 57 to 68. The posttest overall scores, however, ranged from 59 to 71, which indicated a slight increase compared to the pretest overall scores. Participants in this group received the highest pretest scores from Analysis ($M = 67.50$), Inference ($M = 67.50$), and Induction ($M = 66.80$). Similarly, the highest posttest scores were Interpretation ($M = 68.40$), Inference ($M = 68$), and Induction ($M = 66.70$). There was a decrease only in participants’ Analysis ($M = 65$) scores. The area to target to improve involved Evaluation and Explanation both in the pretests and posttests. The pretest mean scores were, 60.2 and 59.3, and the posttest mean scores were 64.2 and 62.6, respectively. 30% of the participants’ Interpretation and Analysis scores (80-81) were relatively higher. For 60% of the participants, the lowest score in the pretest was 55, which was obtained for Explanation. Half of the participants’ CCTST pretest overall score was interpreted as *Weak* while it was interpreted as *Not Manifested* for the remaining half. In the posttest, only 20% of the participants attained the highest score for Interpretation and Explanation. The lowest posttest score, 55, was for Explanation. With regard to the qualitative descriptors, the majority of the participants’ (50%) overall score was interpreted as *Not*

Manifested, for 40% of the participants the qualitative descriptor was *Weak*. This was lower compared to the CLG, in which 71.42% of the participants' pretest and posttest scores were interpreted as *Weak*. Different from the CLG, only one participant from the CoLG obtained a posttest score which was interpreted as *Moderate*.

70% of the participants in this group received higher scores on the reading posttest scores, which is indicative of enhanced comprehension skills through genre-based reading instruction and conventional literacy practices. This may have led to improved scores in the posttest for the majority of participants (60%). Plus, the CoLG participants were highly motivated throughout the instruction process due to the relevance between the reading tasks implemented throughout the intervention and the final exam that would be administered. Higher levels of motivation they possessed to learn English and more effort they exerted into learning during the learning process may have resulted in the improvement in their posttest scores over their pretest scores.

It is stated in the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide (2020) that a mean score improvement of one point from pretest to posttest indicates an educationally significant improvement for the group. This degree of gain will result in a statistically significant result ($p < .05$) for larger samples. However, in smaller samples, the gain is required to be approximately 2 points to be indicative of a statistically significant result ($p < .05$ level and beyond). On the whole, "a 1.0-point improvement in the group mean signifies that on average everyone in the group no longer made at least one of the common reasoning errors that result in a flawed problem analysis, inference, decision, and/or evaluation" (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 40). In light of this, it was observed that the participants of the CoLG could achieve a 1.5-point score gain in the CCTST posttest, and this could be interpreted as an educationally significant improvement for the study group that only received a four-week conventional literacy instruction. "Raising a group by a point is not educationally trivial, although it often takes a reasonably sized sample to demonstrate this in a statistical test" (the CCTST User Manual and Resource Guide, 2020, p. 40).

Research question seven: The effect of a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills

Regarding the effect of a web-based exposure to critical literacy materials prepared with a genre-based approach on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills, data analysis did not reveal a statistically significant difference between reading pretest and posttest scores of the WBG participants. The mean for the CCTST pretest was 65.11 for the WBG. However, there was a slight decrease in the posttest mean score ($M = 64.88$). 66.66% of the participants'

posttest scores were higher, but 33.33% of the participants received lower scores in the posttest. The CCTST pretest overall scores of the WBG ranged from 59 to 75. Similar to the pretest results, the posttest overall scores ranged from 59 to 72. Concerning the dianti, participants' highest pretest scores were for Interpretation ($M = 72.89$), Induction ($M = 69.11$), and Inference ($M = 68.89$). Unlike the pretests, the highest posttest scores were obtained for Analysis ($M = 69.44$), Inference ($M = 69.11$), and Deduction ($M = 68.00$), however. It was also observed that there was a decrease in participants' Interpretation ($M = 65.56$) and Induction ($M = 67.11$) posttest scores. The areas to target for growth included Evaluation and Explanation both in the pretests and posttests, which was also observed for the CoLG. The pretest mean scores for these skills were 62.11 and 65.00, and the posttest mean scores were 64.78 and 65.44, respectively.

33.33% of the participants' highest scores was for Interpretation. Different from the CoLG, only 33.33 % attained 55, which was for Evaluation and Explanation, as the lowest score in the pretest. As for the qualitative descriptors, different from the other study groups, 44.44% of the participants' CCTST pretest scores were interpreted as *Not Manifested* in this group, and 33.33% of the participants' scores were *Weak*. Finally, the qualitative descriptor for the 22.22% of the participants' scores was *Moderate*. Based on these descriptors, it could be concluded that the CoLG surpassed both of the other two groups in relation to their CCTST pretest scores. Regarding the posttest scores, only 11.11% of the WBG participants obtained 81 for Interpretation as the highest score in the posttest. 22.22 % of the participants received the lowest posttest score for Interpretation and Explanation, which was 55. Similar to pretests, 44.44% of participants' CCTST posttest overall score was interpreted as *Not Manifested*. However, with an increase, the qualitative descriptor for 44.44% of the participants was *Weak*. Different from the pretests, only 11.11% of the WBG participants attained a score interpreted as *Moderate*.

Research question eight: The difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the Critical Literacy Group, Conventional Literacy Group, and Web-Based Group

The eighth research question examined whether there was a significant difference among the critical thinking posttest scores of the CLG, CoLG, and WBG participants or not. The results did not indicate a statistically significant difference among the CCTST posttest scores of the study groups. The mean ranks were 12.93, 12.85, and 14.67, respectively. The WBG attained the highest CCTST posttest mean rank, whereas the CoLG attained the lowest mean rank.

In conclusion, the present study did not yield statistically significant gains on the CCTST posttest due to the small sample size, the lack of learners' previous (educational) experience and practice in critical thinking, and the relevance of the skills being taught. Indeed, a meta-analysis of empirical studies (Abrami et al., 2008) revealed mixed results regarding the instruction of critical thinking skills. It was observed that explicit teaching has larger effects on the development of critical thinking compared to implicit instruction. A more recent study (Bensley & Spero, 2014) also indicated the effectiveness of the explicit teaching of critical thinking skills, including analysis of arguments and critical reading skills as there was a significant improvement in college students' use of critical thinking skills and metacognition. Zhao, Pandian, and Singh (2016) assert that in order for an effective critical thinking instruction, direct instruction, a supportive classroom atmosphere, and frequent practice that involves opportunities for student interaction are crucial.

Research question nine: The relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores

The ninth research question investigated the relationship between learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking scores. The results did not indicate a statistically significant relationship between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores. The statistical analysis showed that there was a very weak correlation, or there was almost no association between the CLG participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = .045$, $p = .924$. As for the CoLG, there was also a weak relationship between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = -.151$, $p = .677$. However, the analysis of the data suggested that the variables had an inverse relationship. To put it simply, when one variable decreased, the other increased, or when one variable increased, the other decreased. Finally, there was a moderate positive correlation between the WBG participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = .369$, $p = .329$. Overall, the analysis computed for all groups displayed that there was a very weak correlation, or there was almost no association between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, $r = .044$, $p = .829$.

The findings with regard to the relationship between reading comprehension and critical thinking were not in line with Aloqaili's (2012) theoretical study, which suggested that there was a well-established relationship between the former and the latter, based on the Schema Theory. As opposed to traditional views of reading comprehension, an interactive approach is adopted in this theory. Thorndike (1917) asserts that reading is "an act of thinking, evaluating, inventing, demonstrating and verifying in order to comprehend what is being presented" (as cited in To-Dutka, 1989). In other words, a process-based approach is needed

to teach reading, and learners should be taught techniques, including activating learners' prior knowledge, making inferences, and using critical thinking (Aloqaili, 2012) to become more skilled readers. In Aloqaili's definition of reading comprehension, the meaning is constructed by the reader through interactive processes which relate the reader's critical thinking, prior knowledge, and inference-making. Therefore, learners should be provided with opportunities to construct rather than reproduce while reading, as, in this view, the reader, not the text, is placed at the center. According to Norris and Phillips (1987), "critical thinking is the process which the reader uses to comprehend" (as cited in Aloqaili, 2012, p. 38). It is thinking critically that enables learners to activate their prior knowledge; thus, critical thinking is crucial for reading comprehension. Indeed, it is stated in Schema Theory that reading comprehension itself is a process of critical thinking. In a nutshell, although the present study did not reveal a strong correlation between reading comprehension and critical thinking, they are interdependent.

Research question ten: The role of gender in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills

The tenth research question aimed to investigate the role gender played in adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills. The analysis did not reveal a statistically significant difference between female ($N = 14$) and male ($N = 12$) participants' critical literacy skills in any of the study groups. That is, the female participants' posttest scores were not statistically different from the male participants' scores in the CLG. In brief, the results suggested that the null hypothesis was retained.

These findings were in line with Maltepe's (2016) study, which investigated if there was a significant difference between the critical reading levels of female and male Turkish and Turkish language and literature pre-service teachers or not. The study also yielded similar results to Semerci and Semerci's (2017) study, the participants of which were teacher candidates. No differences were observed between the female and male prospective teachers' critical literacy mean scores. However, the findings did not corroborate Leach and Good's study (2011), which revealed significant differences in the participants' CCTST scores based on gender. The findings of this study indicated that gender had a significant influence upon the means of the skills measured in the CCTST. The present study did not support the outcomes of the PISA (2009) survey which showed that a female learners outperformed the male learners in critical reading skills (Dianti, 2016).

Although the statistical analysis did not indicate any significant differences between the two groups, when overall scores were analyzed by gender, it was observed that female participants' CCTST pretest mean score was 64.29. Male participants' pretest mean score, on

the other hand, was 63.33. Female participants' CCTST posttest mean score was 64.43, which indicated a very slight increase (+ 0.19). Male participants' posttest mean score, however, was 63.92, with a slight increase (+ 0.59). 50% of the female participants had improved posttest scores. Two of these participants were from the CLG, three of them were from the CoLG, and two of them were from the WBG. However, 42.85% of the participants had a decrease in their posttest scores. Finally, one (7.15%) of the female participants, who was a participant of the CLG, neither had an increase nor a decrease in her posttest score. Different from the female participants, 58.33% of the male participants had improved scores in the posttest. 25% of the male participants, however, had a decrease in their scores in the posttest. Lastly, 16.66% of the participants, who were from the CLG, had no change in their posttest scores. The highest gain in the posttest scores for female participants was +8. This dramatic increase was observed in the CoLG. In comparison, the highest gain in the posttest scores for male participants was +5, which was attained by one of the WBG participants. To conclude, when the results of both genders were compared, male participants performed better than female participants in the posttest.

The analysis of the pretest mean scores for the individual critical thinking skills revealed that female participants received the highest scores for Interpretation ($M = 70.64$), Inference ($M = 69.43$), and Induction ($M = 69.14$). The lowest score female participants obtained from pretest was for Evaluation ($M = 61.00$). With regard to male participants, the highest pretest scores were gained for Analysis ($M = 67.92$), Interpretation ($M = 66.75$), and Induction ($M = 66.75$). Similar to female participants, the lowest pretest score of male participants was for Evaluation ($M = 62.00$). The posttest mean score analyses showed that female participants received the highest scores for Interpretation ($M = 68.71$), Inference ($M = 68.57$), and Deduction ($M = 67.14$). They received the lowest mean score for Explanation ($M = 63.93$). In contrast, male participants' highest posttest scores were for Inference ($M = 67.75$), Analysis ($M = 67.50$), and Deduction ($M = 66.67$). When the male participants' lowest posttest mean scores were examined, it was observed that Evaluation was the skill with the lowest mean score ($M = 63.42$) similar to the case of female participants. On the whole, the participants' Interpretation scores were higher both in the pretest and posttest regardless of their gender. However, both female and male participants' Explanation and Evaluation scores were low not only in the pretest but also in the posttest, which confirms the findings of Dianti's (2016) study.

Research question eleven: The adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language

The final research question aimed at exploring the adult EFL learners' perceptions of the importance of critical literacy skills in learning a foreign language. The themes emerged from the participants' responses involved the benefits of the study, the reasons for the usefulness of the study, the skills gained throughout/after the study, the relevance of the target skills in learners' departments and future lives, the best aspect of the study, learners' preferred genres, and learners' perceptions of the most important critical reading skill(s). What is more, issues to be considered were analyzed.

With regard to the benefits of the study, the majority of the participants' responses showed that by reading a variety of texts, they could grasp new information, which also helped them gain new perspectives. In addition, learners stated that they had opportunities not only for improving their reading skills but also their English. The responses revealed that the tests administered were perceived to be decent. Learners, who were educated in an exam-oriented culture, also stated that the study enabled them to learn what they should think in the exams.

Pertaining to the usefulness of the study, half of the participants declared that the study had a positive impact on their exams. In addition, the participants reported that studying was beneficial for them. While reading, they could consider multiple viewpoints. The responses revealed that they could think critically and, thus, could comment on various topics.

As for the skills gained, 50% of the participants stated that they had improved reading skills, enhanced vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. 25% of the participants mentioned enhanced critical thinking skills, which enabled them to become more critical. Moreover, they reported that they could pay more attention to the texts in the reading process, and they could be more strategic learners in the exams.

Concerning the relevance of the target skills in learners' departments, half of the participants' responses showed that they perceived the skills taught relevant as they would use them to read articles related to their departments and learn new things in the future. In addition, their responses indicated that participants considered the target skill to be relevant for the Erasmus exams they would take in the future to be able to go abroad in order to pursue their academic studies at international universities/colleges. Participants declared that they would benefit from the skills taught while writing articles in their departments and analyzing the results of the experiments conducted as well. Finally, they reported that these skills would also be beneficial for them in terms of gaining fluency in reading. Plus, participants stated that they considered the target skills to be relevant in their daily lives as well as their education and business lives. Some of the participants, on the other hand, believed these skills would be

relevant while doing academic career, solving a problem they encountered, or analyzing and interpreting information when reading articles.

Learning new vocabulary items and improving reading skills were mentioned as the best aspect of the study by some of the participants. For some of the participants, incentives (i.e., home-made pastries and chocolate bars) were the best aspect of the study. One of the participants declared that they could apply critical thinking while another stated that the study provided them with a focus. One of the participants reported that they could also gain new perspectives. Finally, a few of the participants stated that the study was useful in all aspects.

Regarding the preferred genres, half of the participants' responses showed that learners preferred to study narrative and scientific texts more compared to the other genres. In addition, the responses revealed a preference for descriptive, explanatory, comparison and contrast, and persuasive texts.

As for the learners' perceptions of the most important critical reading skills, 75% of the participants stated that analysis was the most essential skill both for understanding (the purpose of a text) and for business/education life. Although one of the participants specifically referred to Evaluation, Explanation, and Inference, another participant asserted that all of the critical reading skills were equally important.

Lastly, with regard to the issues to be considered, the majority of the participants did not report any issues. However, a few of the participants reported the length and the difficulty level of the texts among the issues to be considered.

These results support the findings of the prior research. Studies conducted to reveal participants' perceptions of critical literacy are scarce, and most of these studies reflect teachers' (e.g., Curdt-Christiansen, 2010) or prospective/preservice teachers' (e.g., Cho, 2015; Norris, Lucas, & Prudhoe, 2012; Zireva, 2014) perceptions of critical literacy. In these studies, critical literacy has mainly been perceived to be beneficial by the participants in the sense that it enhances learners' critical thinking skills, helps them take different perspectives to analyze issues and problems they encounter, and increases their awareness of the cultures other than that of their own. However, its relevance has been questioned by some of the participants since it is not tested as a part of the exams learners are required to take. As for learners' perceptions, the participants in the previously conducted studies (see e.g., Ko & Wang, 2013; Petek, 2018) declared that they viewed critical literacy as a vital component of education.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

As a small-scale study, the current study explored the impact of genre-based reading instruction on adult EFL learners' critical literacy skills and their perceptions of the importance

of critical literacy skills. Although the results did not produce statistically significant results, the findings showed that a critical literacy approach to the instruction of reading through a variety of genres not only led to enhanced comprehension of texts but also to increased critical awareness for some of the participants. Hence, this study has a pedagogical significance in terms of an EFL reading curriculum which places critical literacy at the core. The EFL instructors should design curricula with an emphasis on the development of learners' critical literacy as well as the development of discrete language skills (Luke & Freebody, 1999).

In light of these findings, the following pedagogical suggestions are put forward for the EFL teachers who wish to emphasize critical literacy in the reading curriculum:

To begin with, both conventional and critical literacy practices should be incorporated into the reading curriculum. This serves as the initial step in reading instruction in providing the learners who have lower levels of proficiency with assistance. Huh (2016) suggests that a holistic approach between critical literacy and conventional skill instructions would assist EFL learners to cope with the cognitive challenges as it has been reported to help ESL learners in previous research studies (e.g., Exley & Dooley, 2015; Lau, 2013, as cited in Huh, 2016). However, more time should be allocated for the instruction of texts since the curriculum emphasizes both conventional and critical literacy skills. Regarding the specific critical thinking skills, critical literacy practices should be implemented with a focus on the critical thinking skills which learners need to develop (e.g., Explanation and Evaluation). Judging the value of the information and ideas presented (see Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Krathwol, 2002)) and assessing the credibility of information (Facione, 2015) are more challenging compared to the other critical thinking skills; thus, these higher-order skills require a special emphasis.

Second, a genre-based approach to reading has a positive impact on learners' motivation. It not only adds variety to the lesson but also provides the basis for the critical analysis of the language used in different genres presented through authentic materials. However, the length of the texts should also be taken into account while designing the teaching materials as long texts may hinder learners' comprehension of texts and, as a result, lead to a decrease in learners' motivation. Furthermore, learners' future academic studies should be considered in the selection of the genres to be taught.

Third, learners should be provided with a democratic and supportive learning atmosphere where multiple perspectives are valued and respected. They should carry out tasks that foster high-order thinking skills in pairs or small groups because this will create opportunities for them to voice and ponder upon multiple viewpoints. Debela and Fang (2008)

propose problem-based tasks, discussion, and the use of small groups as some of the specific techniques which can be used to teach critical thinking. These techniques are also referred to as effective techniques in teaching foreign languages. Problem posing, questioning, textual analysis, and dialogue help learners adopt and develop a critical stance. Instead of passively consuming the texts, learners should actively discover information and ideas while reading to become active and critical readers by analyzing, synthesizing, drawing inferences, forming interpretations, and evaluating in collaboration with their peers (Lestari, 2015). As a result, learners are able to become more confident and skilled readers (Ebrahimi & Rahimi, 2013).

Finally, the instructor should set a model for students by adopting a questioning stance towards texts. This guidance provided by the instructor is of great importance, particularly in cultures in which learners have limited or no prior experience in learning critical thinking skills. Moreover, while modelling, the instructor should describe what critical thinking is and break critical thinking into steps so that learners can fully grasp it (Debela & Fang, 2008). In this way, they may be able to improve their critical literacy skills and become critical thinkers. As Debela and Fang (2008) put it, critical thinking can be taught and learned as it is a process; that is, it is a skill which improves through practice.

Smith (1977) suggests “(a) instructors’ praise, encouragement or use of student ideas; (b) the amount of interaction among students; and (c) the amount and cognitive level of student participation” as the instructor-influenced factors which have a positive effect on college students’ critical thinking scores (as cited in Zhao et al., 2016, p. 18). According to Bailin et al. (1999), the following are involved in effective critical thinking instruction:

- (a) engaging students in tasks or activities that require the skills of judgment or assessment; (b) helping students develop intellectual resources (e.g., knowledge of critical thinking principles, dispositions or habits of minds to use critical thinking skills) for dealing with these tasks; and (c) providing a favorable environment where critical enquiry is valued and students are encouraged to think critically. (as cited in Zhao et al., 2016, p. 18)

In a similar vein, Mathews and Lowe (2011) state that “introducing critical thinking skills related to content domain, providing ample opportunities to practice the skills, inclusion of students in classroom decision-making, and creating an emotionally safe learning environment” among the characteristics of effective critical thinking instruction (as cited in Zhao et al., 2016, p. 18). To sum up, effective critical thinking instruction can easily be attained when all these are taken into consideration.

5.4. Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to the preparatory year students studying at the School of Foreign Languages, at a state university. The participants of the study included 26 students, which was a relatively small sample. Thus, the results of this explanatory sequential mixed methods study cannot be generalized to all EFL learning contexts. Furthermore, the study was conducted with the participation of repeat students who were convenience samples. Because these students were studying their second year of English in the preparatory school, they were not as proficient as the non-remedial B1 level groups, they were more exam-oriented, and they had lower levels of motivation compared to the mainstream students, studying their first year of English at the school. What is more, as repeat students, they had different learning needs; therefore, critical literacy education was not relevant to their immediate learning needs. Plus, due to the strict curriculum and time constraints, the treatment was limited to only four weeks, excluding the pretests and posttests. In order to effectively teach critical thinking skills, extended periods of instruction time are needed. Lastly, owing to a change in the assessment calendar of the school, the study and posttests could be administered a week later than previously planned. This delay also had a negative impact on the participants' motivation. In conclusion, the obstacles encountered in the present study involved the limited English proficiency level of the participants, the irrelevance of critical literacy practices to learners' immediate learning needs, low levels of student motivation, the small sample size, and time constraints.

5.5. Conclusion and Suggestions for Further Research

To conclude, the results revealed that a four-week genre-based reading instruction designed to teach critical literacy skills did not result in a statistically significant change in the CLG reading and CCTST posttest scores. Similarly, there was no statistically significant difference between the CoLG's reading and critical thinking pretest and posttest scores. The results did not indicate a statistically significant difference between the WBG participants' reading and CCTST pretest and posttest scores as well. The comparison of the reading and CCTST posttest scores showed that there was no statistically significant difference among the study groups' posttest scores. As for the relationship between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores, the results displayed that there was a very weak correlation or almost no association between participants' reading and CCTST posttest scores. Lastly, there was no statistically significant difference between female and male participants' critical literacy skills in any of the study groups.

With regard to learners' perceptions, their responses revealed that they could grasp new information and gain new perspectives by reading a variety of texts throughout the study.

Thus, they could improve not only their reading skills but also their English. Furthermore, the tests used in the study were perceived to be decent. In addition, learners stated that the study was beneficial since it enabled them to learn what to think in the exams. They declared that the study had a positive impact on their exams as well. Studying different texts helped them consider multiple viewpoints, think critically, and comment on various topics. Improved reading skills, enhanced vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and enhanced critical thinking skills were among the skills participants reported they gained. Participants also stated that could pay more attention to the texts in the reading process; they could, thus, be more strategic learners in the exams.

In addition, participants' responses indicated that they perceived the skills taught relevant as they would use these skills in their daily lives, academic studies, and business lives. They reported that these skills; namely learning new vocabulary items, improving reading skills, gaining new perspectives, applying critical thinking, and having a focus, would be beneficial for them in terms of gaining fluency in reading. With regard to the preferred genres, narrative and scientific texts were preferred more compared to the other genres although participants also stated a preference for descriptive, explanatory, comparison and contrast, and persuasive texts. Regarding learners' perceptions of the most important critical reading skills, analysis was perceived to be the most essential skill both for understanding (the purpose of a text) and for business/education life. Finally, the length and the difficulty level of the texts were among the issues proposed to be considered.

In the current study, the treatment curriculum could be offered as an add-on owing to the strict preparatory school curriculum. To be precise, critical literacy skills have not been integrated into the school curriculum. Huh (2016) points out that in EFL contexts, critical literacy practices have been mainly implemented as an add-on to curricula which had a skills-based orientation and, hence, put the emphasis more on surface-level comprehension and less on cognitively demanding literacy tasks. In their study, Al Ghamdi and Deraney (2013) propose that critical thinking should not be taught as a stand-alone course to develop learners' critical thinking skills. Instead, it should be embedded or integrated into the whole curriculum. "Greater pre- to post-test gains on a variety of standardized critical thinking tests than a typical stand-alone critical thinking/informal logic course" could be observed when critical thinking was taught with an integrated approach (Hatcher, 2006, p. 248). Therefore, rather than an "instructional" approach, a "programmatic" approach should be adopted in the design of the instructional intervention (Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011). Tosuncuoğlu (2018) states that programmed efforts are needed to teach critical thinking skills within not only teacher but also

student education programs. As Batı and Kaplan (2015) assert, “critical thinking is not an easily attainable skill” (p. 53), so further research with a more ample sampling, an extended intervention and a continual instruction period is required to reach clearer and more definite conclusions, for critical reading skills involve interconnected skills (Lestari, 2015).

Furthermore, in order to observe the effects of critical literacy instruction, a similar study should be conducted with a larger sample size and with a highly motivated group of participants who are more proficient in English. The study should be extended to other Turkish universities where the medium of instruction is English to reach a more comprehensive picture of learners’ critical thinking skills, learners’ perceptions of the importance of critical literacy, and the effectiveness of critical literacy instruction. Instructors’ perceptions and the strategies they use to teach critical literacy skills should be investigated further as well. Similar studies could be conducted with the participation of high school, undergraduate, or postgraduate students. Plus, the qualitative data could be collected from all the participants who take part in the study to have a more comprehensive understanding of the results.

Papadopoulos and Griva (2017) state that encouraging learners’ critical language awareness in a foreign language context has recently become a prevailing research subject. Learners who are critically literate not only comprehend the texts they read but also critique the messages conveyed in these texts and identify whose perspective and knowledge are being privileged (Norris, Lucas, & Prudhoe, 2012). In this sense, having critical literacy as a core concept on today’s teaching agenda is crucial. Empirical studies (see e.g., Davidson & Dunham, 1997; Liu & Guo, 2006) have shown that training and guidance lead to advancement in EFL learners’ critical thinking skills (as cited in Zhao et al., 2016). A number of studies have displayed that critical literacy could be a part of the EFL curriculum and make prodigious contributions to the learning process (see e.g., Huang, 2011; Izadinia & Abednia, 2010; Ko & Wang, 2009; Ko, 2010; Ko, 2013a; Ko, 2013b; Ko & Wang, 2013; Kuo, 2013). However, more research studies in EFL contexts need to be conducted to explore critical literacy and more effective critical literacy pedagogies, which are among the core concepts of the 21st century (language) education, to equip learners with the critical thinking skills required to navigate in this text- and media-saturated world.

All in all, as Luke (2007) states, for the knowledge society individuals, critical literacy is

a ‘new basic’ required in contemporary society. Being critically literate enables learners to navigate through the numerous texts available to them while questioning what the text claims and its authority. Students examine how the text aims to influence the reader, and how they can use the text to

imagine other possible perspectives. (Retrieved from [http://www.edugains.ca/resourcesLIT/BoysLiteracy/BoysLiteracyDVD/4The me/5TodaysWorldDemandsCriticallyLiterateLearners.pdf](http://www.edugains.ca/resourcesLIT/BoysLiteracy/BoysLiteracyDVD/4The%5TodaysWorldDemandsCriticallyLiterateLearners.pdf))

Hence, EFL practices should not merely aim at improving four language skills, they should also develop learners' critical awareness skills and reasoning abilities (i.e., examining authors' intentions and viewpoints, questioning, juxtaposing, reconstructing and exploring multiple perspectives) (Alagözlü, 2006; Papadopoulos & Griva, 2017). When they practice critical literacy skills, learners are also able to develop their ability in English (Kuo, 2013). With enhanced critical thinking skills and increased critical language awareness, learners could realize how language may be utilized to create social realities, interpret the meanings conveyed in the texts they are exposed to, and express and justify their viewpoints on various genres (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2017; Sander, 2016). As has been stated in the "PISA 2018: Insights and Interpretations" document, reading has evolved in today's digital society and thus "is no longer mainly about extracting information; it is about constructing knowledge, thinking critically and making well-founded judgements" (Schleicher, 2018).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Curriculum Vitae

STUDENT'S CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information			
Name-Surname	Havva KURT TAŞPINAR		
Email Address/Web Page	havyakurttaspinar@gmail.com		
Languages	English, German		
Specialization	Applied Linguistics		
Education			
	University	Department	Year
Bachelor's Degree	Anadolu University	English Language Teaching	2000
Master's Degree	İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University	Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language	2004
M.A. Thesis Title	Teachers' and Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Task-related Motivational Strategy Use and Students' Motivation Levels		
M.A. Thesis Supervisor	Dr. Kimberly TRIMBLE		
Academic Studies			
ARTICLES *1) Kurt Taşpınar, H., & Çubukçu, F. (2020). The impact of critical literacy instruction on adult EFL learners' reading comprehension. <i>Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)</i>, 3(1), 34-55. 2) Kurt Taşpınar, H., & Külekçi, G. (2018). GRIT: An essential ingredient of success in the EFL classroom. <i>International Journal of Languages' Education and Teaching</i>, 6(3), 208-226. 3) Kurt Taşpınar, H. (2018). The syntactic puzzle for non-native speakers: Garden path sentences. <i>Journal of Foreign Language Education and Technology</i>, 3(1), 234-254. 4) Kurt Taşpınar, H. (2017). Epistemic modality in academic writing: A discipline-based analysis. <i>The Literacy Trek</i>, 3(1), 47-65. BOOK CHAPTERS 1) Kurt Taşpınar, H. (2019). Critical reading. In F. Çubukçu. (Ed.), <i>Critical thinking: Theory and practice</i> (pp. 1-21), Ankara: Pegem Akademi. PROCEEDINGS *1) Kurt Taşpınar, H., & Çubukçu, F. "The Effect of Genre-Based Reading Instruction on Critical Literacy Skills", III. International Conference Research in Applied Linguistics, October 24-26, 2019, Konya, Turkey.			

2) Kurt Taşpınar, H. “The World is My World: An Exploration of the 21st Century Language Learner”. 1st International Conference on Educational Theory and Research – ICETR 2016: Transitions in Higher Education, İzmir University of Economics, February 11-13, 2016, İzmir, Turkey.

3) Kurt Taşpınar, H. “Would You Like to Join My Speaking Circle?”. 2007 Conference of the International Society for Language Studies, April 2-4, 2007, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA.

4) Yılmaz, E. & Kurt Taşpınar, H. “Self-efficacy: A Triggering Force for Persistence and Success”, 2nd Bilkent MA TEFL Reunion Conference, May 20-21, 2004, Ankara, Turkey.

5) Kurt Taşpınar, H. “Teacher and Student Perceptions of Task-related Motivational Strategy Use”. The Future is Now: The 14th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, July 24-29, 2005, Madison, Wisconsin, USA.

Membership to Scientific Societies

None

Awards

None

APPENDIX 2. Permissions for Research

FORMAL PERMISSION OF THE ETHICS COMMITTEE



DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
T.C.
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı

E-İmzalıdır

08/05/2019

Sayı : 15563195-302.08.01-E.36224
Konu : Uygulama İzni (Havva KURT TAŞPINAR)

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : a) 24.04.2019 tarihli ve 67493393-302.08.01-879 sayılı yazınız.
b) İzmir Yüksek Teknoloji Enstitüsü Rektörlüğünün 07.05.2019 tarihli ve 63694649-044-E.1755 sayılı yazısı.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Doktora Programı öğrencisi Havva KURT TAŞPINAR'ın "The Impact of Genre-Based Reading Instruction on Adult EFL Learners' Critical Literacy Skills" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulama yapma isteğinin, gönüllü katılımının esas alınması koşuluyla uygun görüldüğüne dair İzmir Yüksek Teknoloji Enstitüsü Rektörlüğü'nden alınan ilgi (b) yazı fotokopisi ilişikte gönderilmektedir.

Bilgilerinize ve gereğini arz ederim.

Metin ÇAĞLAR
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanı

Ek : İlgi Yazı Sureti (1 Sayfa)



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Tel: 0(232) 412 1212 Elektronik Ağ: www.deu.edu.tr
Kep Adresi: dokuzeyuluniversitesi@hs01.kep.tr

Bilgi İçin İrtibat:
Dilek ÇETİNOZ
Dahili: 0232 412 14 26
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Bu belge 5070 sayılı e-İmza Kanununa göre Metin ÇAĞLAR tarafından 08.05.2019 tarihinde e-imzalanmıştır.
Evrakınızı <http://dogrulama.deu.edu.tr> linkinden 01F14FA4X9 kodu ile doğrulayabilirsiniz.

FORMAL PERMISSION OF THE UNIVERSITY

KEP 07.05.2019 E.1755





T.C.
İZMİR YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ ENSTİTÜSÜ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Yazı İşleri Şube Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 63694649-044
Konu : Uygulama İzni

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığına)
Cumhuriyet Bulvarı No:144 PK:35210 Alsancak-Konak/İZMİR

İlgi : 26.04.2019 tarih ve E.32888 sayılı yazınız.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Doktora Programı öğrencisi Havva KURT TAŞPINAR'ın "The Impact of Genre-Based Reading Instruction on Adult EFL Learners' Critical Literacy Skills" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında, uygulama yapma isteğini belirten ilgi yazınız Enstitümüze ulaşmıştır.

Söz konusu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulama yapma isteğiniz, gönüllü katılımının esas alınması koşuluyla uygun bulunmuştur.

Ancak; uygulama yapma sürecinde kurumsal herhangi bir desteğin (yönlendirme, mekansal düzenleme, fiziksel ve bilişim teknolojileri altyapılarının kullanılması vb.) sağlanamayacağının bilgi edinilmesi hususunu arz ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof.Dr. Yusuf BARAN
Rektör

Fıraka Doğrulamak İçin : https://etyz.iyte.edu.tr/en/Vision/Validate_Doc.aspx?V=BENF9FK11

Adres: İzmir Yüksek Teknoloji Enstitüsü 1. Etaz, İzmir 35430 Türkiye
Telefon 0 232 750 6913 Faks 0 232 750 6035
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Bilgi için: Ödeme 1/21/19
Envanir: Bilgi İşlemci İşlemci
Tel No: 003137506018

Bu belge 5070 sayılı e-İmza Kanununa göre Metin CAGLAR tarafından 08.05.2019 tarihinde e-imzalanmıştır.
Evraflarını <https://doerulama.deu.edu.tr/> linkinden 01F14FA4X9 kodu ile doerulavabilirsiniz.

WRITTEN PERMISSION FOR THE INSTRUMENTS

HAVVA KURT TAŞPINAR



RE: CCTST

From: **Ariel Yeung**

To: **HAVVA KURT TAŞPINAR**

15 January, 2019 03:07

 Taspinar, Havva...190114160328.1.pdf (66.7 KB) [Download](#) | [Remove](#)

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Dear Havva,

Congratulations! Your application has been approved.

Attached are excerpts from the CCTST user manual along with a quote for 140 prepaid online CCTST assessments. Paper and pencil version is not available overseas. The quote reflects our doctoral dissertation price of \$9.80 USD per instrument use license (minimum purchase to qualify for discount is 50 uses). There is also a one-time set up fee of \$165 USD.

The online instrument use licenses are valid for 12 months from date of purchase. All scoring will be performed by Insight Assessment through our e-testing system.

To see a full version of the CCTST, a preview pack is available for \$45.00 USD. It includes 2 online uses of the instrument plus a copy of its full test manual. It will allow you to experience the instrument just like an online test taker and see your scored results at the conclusion of the assessment. Preview Packs may be purchased separately before committing to any other products.

I have also attached a copy of our FAX Order Form. You can fill in your payment information and fax the form to us at 1-650-692-0141. Alternatively, you can scan the completed order form and email it back to us. If you just want to purchase the preview pack only indicate that on the order form.

If you have any questions feel free to contact me. Have a great day!!

Ariel

Ariel Yeung
 Customer Relations Specialist
 1-650-697-5628
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APPENDIX 3. Consent Form

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ ETİK KURULU

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Bu formun amacı katılmanız rica edilen araştırma ile ilgili olarak sizi bilgilendirmek ve katılmanız ile ilgili izin almaktır.

Bu kapsamda “The Impact of Genre-based Reading Instruction on Adult EFL Learners’ Critical Literacy Skills” başlıklı araştırma “Prof. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU ve Öğr. Gör. Havva KURT TAŞPINAR” tarafından **gönüllü katılımcılarla** yürütülmektedir. Araştırma sırasında sizden alınacak bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Araştırma sürecinde konu ile ilgili her türlü soru ve görüşleriniz için aşağıda iletişim bilgisi bulunan araştırmacıyla görüşebilirsiniz. Bu araştırmaya **katılmama** hakkınız bulunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda çalışmaya katıldıktan sonra çalışmadan **çıkabilirsiniz**. Bu formu onaylamanız, **araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz** anlamına gelecektir.

Araştırmayla İlgili Bilgiler:

Araştırmanın Amacı: İngilizceyi Yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yetişkin öğrenenlerin okuduğunu anlama ve eleştirel okuma becerilerinin geliştirilmesi.

Araştırmanın Nedeni: Eleştirel düşünme ve okumanın 21. yüzyıl becerileri arasındaki önemi, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yetişkin öğrencilerin eleştirel okuryazarlık becerilerinin geliştirilmesine ihtiyaç duyulması, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yetişkin öğrencilerle eleştirel okuma konusunda yapılmış olan çalışma sayısının yeterli sayıda olmaması.

Süresi: 6 hafta

Araştırmanın Yürütüleceği Yer: İzmir Yüksek Teknoloji Enstitüsü, Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu

Çalışmaya Katılım Onayı:

Katılmam beklenen çalışmanın amacını, nedenini, katılmam gereken süreyi ve yeri ile ilgili bilgileri okudum ve gönüllü olarak çalışma süresince üzerime düşen sorumlulukları anladım. Çalışma ile ilgili ayrıntılı açıklamalar sözlü olarak araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı. Bu çalışma ile ilgili faydalar ve riskler ile ilgili bilgilendirildim.

Bu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının (Islak imzası ile)

Adı-Soyadı:

İmzası:

Araştırmacının

Adı-Soyadı: Havva KURT TAŞPINAR

e-posta: havvakurt@iyte.edu.tr

İmzası:

APPENDIX 4. The Reading Pretest and Posttest**CLASS/DEPARTMENT:****DATE:** __/__/2019**AGE:****DURATION: 60 minutes****TIME SPENT FOR LEARNING ENGLISH:****SCORE:** __/45 pts.

Directions: This exam measures your ability to understand academic passages in English.

- ❖ The exam is divided into separately timed parts.
- ❖ There are three passages in the exam.
- ❖ You should allow 20 minutes to read each passage and answer the questions about it.
- ❖ Each question is worth 1 point, except the last question.

A. Read the following passage and answer the questions accordingly.**Feeding Habits of East African Herbivores**

Buffalo, zebras, wildebeests, topi, and Thomson's gazelles live in huge groups that together make up some 90 percent of the total weight of mammals living on the Serengeti Plain of East Africa. They are all herbivores (plant-eating animals), and they all appear to be living on the same diet of grasses, herbs, and small bushes. This appearance, however, is illusory. When biologist Richard Bell and his colleagues analyzed the stomach contents of four of the five species (they did not study buffalo), they found that each species was living on a different part of the vegetation. The different vegetational parts differ in their food qualities: lower down, there are succulent, nutritious leaves; higher up are the harder stems. There are also sparsely distributed, highly nutritious fruits, and Bell found that only the Thomson's gazelles eat much of these. The other three species differ in the proportion of lower leaves and higher stems that they eat: zebras eat the most stem matter, wildebeests eat the most leaves, and topi are intermediate.

How are we to understand their feeding preferences? The answer lies in two associated differences among the species, in their digestive systems, and body sizes. According to their digestive systems, these herbivores can be divided into two categories: the nonruminants (such as the zebra, which has a digestive system like a horse) and the ruminants (such as the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle, which are like the cow). Nonruminants cannot extract much energy from the hard parts of a plant; however, this is more than made up for by the fast speed at which food passes through their guts. Thus, when there is only a short supply of poor-quality food, the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle enjoy an advantage. They are ruminants and have a

special structure (the rumen) in their stomachs, which contains microorganisms that can break down the hard parts of plants. Food passes only slowly through the ruminant's gut because ruminating –digesting the hard parts- takes time. The ruminant continually regurgitates food from its stomach back to its mouth to chew it up further (that is what a cow is doing when “chewing cud”). Only when it has been chewed up and digested almost to a liquid can the food pass through the rumen and on through the gut. Larger particles cannot pass through until they have been chewed down to size. Therefore, when food is in short supply, a ruminant can last longer than a nonruminant because it can derive more energy out of the same food. The difference can partially explain the eating habits of the Serengeti herbivores. The zebra chooses areas where there is more low-quality food. It migrates first to unexploited areas and chomps the abundant low-quality stems before moving on. It is a fast-in/fast-out feeder, relying on a high output of incompletely digested food. By the time the wildebeests (and other ruminants) arrive, the grazing and trampling of the zebras will have worn the vegetation down. As the ruminants then set to work, they eat down to the lower, leafier parts of the vegetation. All of this fits in with the differences in stomach contents with which we began.

The other part of the explanation is body size. Larger animals require more food than smaller animals, but smaller animals have a higher metabolic rate. Smaller animals can therefore live where there is less food, provided that such food is of high energy content. That is why the smallest of the herbivores, Thomson's gazelle, lives on fruit that is very nutritious but too thin on the ground to support a larger animal. By contrast, the large zebra lives on the masses of low-quality stem material.

The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory habits. The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall. The other species do likewise. But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. The larger, less fastidious feeders, the zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest species of all, Thomson's gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.

P Buffalo, zebras, wildebeests, topi, and Thomson’s gazelles live in huge groups that
A together make up some 90 percent of the total weight of mammals living on the
R Serengeti Plain of East Africa. They are all herbivores (plant-eating animals), and
A they all appear to be living on the same diet of grasses, herbs, and small bushes.
G This appearance, however, is **illusory**. When biologist Richard Bell and his
R colleagues analyzed the stomach contents of four of the five species (they did not
A study buffalo), they found that each species was living on a different part of the
P vegetation. The different vegetational parts differ in their food qualities: lower
H down, there are succulent, nutritious leaves; higher up are the harder stems. There
1 are also **sparsely** distributed, highly nutritious fruits, and Bell found that only the
Thomson’s gazelles eat much of these. The other three species differ in the
proportion of lower leaves and higher stems that they eat: zebras eat the most stem
matter, wildebeests eat the most leaves, and topi are intermediate.

Directions: Mark your answer by filling in the oval next to your choice.

1. The word “**illusory**” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- ☐ definite
- ☐ illuminating
- ☐ misleading
- ☐ exceptional

2. The word “**sparsely**” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- ☐ widely
- ☐ thinly
- ☐ clearly
- ☐ freshly

3. Which of the following questions about Richard Bell’s research is NOT answered in paragraph 1?

- ☐ Which of the herbivores studied is the only one to eat much fruit?
- ☐ Which part of the plants do wildebeests prefer to eat?
- ☐ Where did the study of herbivores’ eating habits take place?
- ☐ Why were buffalo excluded from the research study?

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How are we to understand their feeding preferences? The answer lies in two associated differences among the species, in their digestive systems, and body sizes. According to their digestive systems, these herbivores can be divided into two categories: the nonruminants (such as the zebra, which has a digestive system like a horse) and the ruminants (such as the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle, which are like the cow). Nonruminants cannot extract much energy from the hard parts of a plant; however, this is more than made up for by the fast speed at which food passes through their guts. Thus, when there is only a short supply of poor-quality food, the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle enjoy an advantage. They are ruminants and have a special structure (the rumen) in their stomachs, which contains microorganisms that can break down the hard parts of plants. Food passes only slowly through the ruminant's gut because ruminating—digesting the hard parts—takes time. The ruminant continually regurgitates food from its stomach back to its mouth to chew it up further (that is what a cow is doing when “chewing cud”). Only when it has been chewed up and digested almost to a liquid can the food pass through the rumen and on through the gut. Larger particles cannot pass through until they have been chewed down to size. Therefore, when food is in short supply, a ruminant can last longer than a nonruminant because it can derive more energy out of the same food. The difference can partially explain the eating habits of the Serengeti herbivores. The zebra chooses areas where there is more low-quality food. It migrates first to unexploited areas and chomps the abundant low-quality stems before moving on. It is a fast-in/fast-out feeder, relying on a high output of incompletely digested food. By the time the wildebeests (and other ruminants) arrive, the grazing and trampling of the zebras will have worn the vegetation down. As the ruminants then set to work, they eat down to the lower, leafier parts of the vegetation. All of this fits in with the differences in stomach contents with which we began.

4. The word “associated” in the passage is closest in meaning to
 - obvious
 - significant
 - expected
 - connected

5. The author mentions the cow and the horse in paragraph 2 in order to
 - distinguish the functioning of their digestive systems from those of East African mammals
 - emphasize that their relatively large body size leads them to have feeding practices similar to those of East African mammals
 - illustrate differences between ruminants and nonruminants through the use of animals likely to be familiar to most readers
 - emphasize similarities between the diets of cows and horses and the diets of East African mammals

6. According to paragraph 2, which of the following herbivores has to eat large quantities of plant stems because it gains relatively little energy from each given quantity of this food?
 - The gazelle
 - The wildebeest
 - The zebra
 - The topi

7. Paragraph 2 suggests that which of the following is one of the most important factors in determining differences in feeding

preferences of East African herbivores?

- The availability of certain foods
- The differences in stomach structure
- The physical nature of vegetation in the environment
- The ability to migrate when food supplies are low

8. According to paragraph 2, all of the following are true of East African gazelles

EXCEPT:

- They digest their food very quickly.
- Microorganisms help them digest their food.
- They are unable to digest large food particles unless these are chewed down considerably.
- They survive well even if the food supplies are not abundant.

P The other part of the explanation is body size. Larger animals require more food
A than smaller animals, but smaller animals have a higher metabolic rate. Smaller
R animals can therefore live where there is less food, **provided that** such food is of
A high energy content. That is why the smallest of the herbivores, Thomson's
G gazelle, lives on fruit that is very nutritious but too thin on the ground to support a
R larger animal. By contrast, the large zebra lives on the masses of low-quality stem
A material.

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9. The phrase "provided that" in the passage is closest in meaning to

- as long as
- unless
- as if
- even though

P The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory
A habits. The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall. The
R other species do likewise. But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals
A migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. The larger, less **fastidious** feeders, the
G zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest
R species of all, Thomson's gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the
A preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to
P suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.
H

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10. The word “fastidious” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- rapid
- determined
- flexible
- demanding

11. According to paragraph 4, which of the following mammals exhibits a feeding behavior that is beneficial to the other herbivores that share the same habits?

- Topi
- Zebra
- Wildebeest
- Gazelle

12. According to the passage, which of the following is true of wildebeests?

- They eat more stem matter than zebras do.
- They are able to digest large food particles if the food is of a high quality.
- They tend to choose feeding areas in which the vegetation has been worn down.
- They are likely to choose low-quality food to eat in periods when the quantity of rainfall is low.

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The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory habits. The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall.

The other species do likewise. But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. The larger, less fastidious feeders, the zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest species of all, Thomson’s gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.

13. Look at the four squares (■) that indicate where the following sentence could be added to the passage.

The sequence in which they migrate correlates with their body size.

Where would this sentences best fit?

- The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory habits. **The sequence in which they migrate correlates with their body size.** The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall.
- The other species do likewise. ■ But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. ■ The larger, less fastidious feeders, the zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest species of all, Thomson’s gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.

- The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory habits. ■ The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall. **The sequence in which they migrate correlates with their body size.** The other species do likewise. ■ But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. ■ The larger, less fastidious feeders, the zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest species of all, Thomson's gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.
- The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory habits. ■ The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall. ■ The other species do likewise. **The sequence in which they migrate correlates with their body size.** But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. ■ The larger, less fastidious feeders, the zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest species of all, Thomson's gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.
- The differences in feeding preferences lead, in turn, to differences in migratory habits. ■ The wildebeests follow, in their migration, the pattern of local rainfall. ■ The other species do likewise. ■ But when a new area is fueled by rain, the mammals migrate toward it in a set order to exploit it. **The sequence in which they migrate correlates with their body size.** The larger, less fastidious feeders, the zebras, move in first; the choosier, smaller wildebeests come later; and the smallest species of all, Thomson's gazelle, arrives last. The later species all depend on the preparations of the earlier one, for the actions of the zebra alter the vegetation to suit the stomachs of the wildebeest, topi, and gazelle.

14. Directions: An introductory sentence for a brief summary of the passage is provided below. Complete the summary by selecting the THREE answer choices that express the most important ideas in the passage. Write only the **NUMBER** of the answer choices. Some sentences do not belong in the summary because they express ideas that are not presented in the passage or are minor details in the passage. **This question is worth 2 points.**

East African herbivores, though they all live in the same environment, have a range of feeding preferences.

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Answer Choices

1. The survival of East African mammals depends more than anything else on the quantity of highly nutritious fruits that they are able to find.
2. An herbivore's size and metabolic rate affect the kinds of food and the quantities of food it needs to eat.
3. Zebras and wildebeests rarely compete for the same food resources in the same locations.
4. The different digestive systems of herbivores explain their feeding preferences.
5. Migratory habits are influenced by feeding preferences.
6. Patterns in the migratory habits of East African herbivores are hard to establish.

B. Read the following passage and answer the questions accordingly.**Loie Fuller**

The United States dancer Loie Fuller (1862-1928) found theatrical dance in the late nineteenth century artistically unfulfilling. She considered herself an artist rather than a mere entertainer, and she, in turn, attracted the notice of other artists

Fuller devised a type of dance that focused on the shifting play of lights and colors on the voluminous skirts and draperies she wore, which she kept in constant motion principally through the movements of her arms, sometimes extended with wands concealed under her costumes. She rejected the technical virtuosity of movement in ballet, the most prestigious form of theatrical dance at that time, perhaps because her formal dance training was minimal. Although her earlier theatrical career had included stints as an actress, she was not primarily interested in storytelling or expressing emotions through dance; the drama of her dancing emanated from her visual effects.

Although she discovered and introduced her art in the United States, she achieved her greatest glory in Paris, where she was engaged by the Folies Bergère in 1892 and soon became "La Loie," the darling of the Parisian audiences. Many of her dances represented elements or natural objects – Fire, the Lily, the Butterfly, and so on – and thus accorded well with the fashionable Art Nouveau style, which emphasized nature imagery and fluid, sinuous lines. Her dancing also attracted the attention of French poets and painters of the period, for it appealed to their liking for mystery, their belief in art for art's sake, a nineteenth-century idea that art is valuable in itself rather than because it may have some moral or educational benefit, and their efforts to synthesize form and content.

Fuller had scientific learnings and constantly experimented with electrical lighting (which was then in its infancy), colored gels, slide projections, and other aspects of stage technology. She invented and patented special arrangements of mirrors and concocted

chemical dyes for her draperies. Her interest in color and light paralleled the research of several artists of the period, notably the painter Seurat, famed for his Pointillist technique of creating a sense of shapes and light on canvas by applying extremely small dots of color rather than by painting lines. One of Fuller's major inventions was underlighting, in which she stood on a pane of frosted glass illuminated from underneath. This was particularly effective in her *Fire Dance* (1895), performed to the music of Richard Wagner's "Ride of the Valkyries." The dance caught the eye of artist Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec, who depicted it in a lithograph.

As her technological expertise grew more sophisticated, so did the other aspects of her dances. Although she gave little thought to music in her earliest dances, she later used scores by Gluck, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner, eventually graduating to Stravinsky, Fauré, Debussy, and Mussorgsky, composers who were then considered progressive. She began to address more ambitious themes in her dances such as *The Sea*, in which her dancers invisibly agitated a huge expense of silk, played upon by colored lights. Always open to scientific and technological innovations, she befriended the scientists Marie and Pierre Curie upon their discovery of radium and created *Radium Dance*, which simulated the phosphorescence of that element. She both appeared in films – then in an early stage of development – and made them herself; the hero of her fairy-tale film *Le Lys de la Vie* (1919) was played by René Clair, later a leading film director.

At the Paris Exposition in 1900, she had her own theater, where, in addition to her own dances, she presented pantomimes by the Japanese actress Sada Yocco. She assembled an all-female company at this time and established a school around 1908, but neither survived her. Although she is remembered today chiefly for her innovations in stage lighting, her activities also touched Isadora Duncan and Ruth St. Denis, two other United States dancers who were experimenting with new types of dance. She sponsored Duncan's first appearance in Europe. Her theater at the Paris Exposition was visited by St. Denis, who found new ideas about stagecraft in Fuller's work and fresh sources for her art in Sada Yocco's plays. In 1924, St. Denis paid tribute to Fuller with the duet *Valse à la Loie*.

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The United States dancer Loie Fuller (1862-1928) found theatrical dance in the late nineteenth century artistically unfulfilling. She considered herself an artist rather than a mere entertainer, and she, in turn, attracted the notice of other artists.

Directions: Mark your answer by filling in the oval next to your choice.

1. What can be inferred from paragraph 1 about theatrical dance in the late nineteenth century?

- ☐ It influenced many artists outside of the field of dance.
- ☐ It was very similar to theatrical dance of the early nineteenth century.
- ☐ It was more a form of entertainment than a form of serious art.
- ☐ It was a relatively new art form in the United States.

P Fuller devised a type of dance that focused on the shifting play of lights and colors
A on the voluminous skirts and draperies she wore, which she kept in constant
R motion principally through the movements of her arms, sometimes extended with
A wands concealed under her costumes. She rejected the technical virtuosity of
G movement in ballet, the most **prestigious** form of theatrical dance at that time,
R perhaps because her formal dance training was minimal. Although her earlier
A theatrical career had included stints as an actress, she was not primarily interested
P in storytelling or expressing emotions through dance; the drama of her dancing
H emanated from her visual effects.

2

2. According to paragraph 2, all of the following are characteristic of Fuller's type of dance EXCEPT:

- ☐ experimentation using color
- ☐ large and full costumes
- ☐ continuous movement of her costumes
- ☐ technical virtuosity of movement

3. The word "**prestigious**" in the passage is closest in meaning to

- ☐ highly rewarded
- ☐ financially rewarding
- ☐ demanding
- ☐ serious

4. Which of the sentences below best expresses the essential information in the highlighted sentence in the passage? Incorrect choices change the meaning in important ways or leave out essential information.

- ☐ Fuller was more interested in dance's visual impact than its narrative or emotional possibilities.
- ☐ Fuller used visual effects to dramatize the stories and emotions expressed in her work.
- ☐ Fuller believed that the drama of her dancing sprang from her emotional style of storytelling.
- ☐ Fuller's focus on the visual effects of dance resulted from her early theatrical training as an actress.

P Although she discovered and introduced her art in the United States, she achieved
A her greatest glory in Paris, where she was **engaged** by the Folies Bergère in 1892
R and soon became “La Loie,” the darling of the Parisian audiences. Many of her
A dances represented elements or natural objects –Fire, the Lily, the Butterfly, and
G so on – and thus accorded well with the fashionable Art Nouveau style, which
R emphasized nature imagery and fluid, sinuous lines. Her dancing also attracted the
A attention of French poets and painters of the period, for it appealed to their liking
P for mystery, their belief in art for art’s sake, a nineteenth-century idea that art is
H valuable in itself rather than because it may have some moral or educational
benefit, and their efforts to **synthesize** form and content.

3

5. The word “**engaged**” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- noticed
- praised
- hired
- attracted

6. The word “**synthesize**” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- improve
- define
- simplify
- integrate

7. According to paragraph 3, why was Fuller’s work well received in Paris?

- Parisian audiences were particularly interested in artists and artistic movements from the United States.
- Influential poets tried to interest dancers in Fuller’s work when she arrived in Paris.
- Fuller’s work at this time borrowed directly from French artists working in other media.
- Fuller’s dances were in harmony with the artistic values already present in Paris.

P Fuller had scientific learnings and constantly experimented with electrical lighting
A (which was then in its infancy), colored gels, slide projections, and other aspects
R of stage technology. She invented and patented special arrangements of mirrors
A and concocted chemical dyes for her draperies. Her interest in color and light
G paralleled the research of several artists of the period, notably the painter Seurat,
R famed for his Pointillist technique of creating a sense of shapes and light on canvas
A by applying extremely small dots of color rather than by painting lines. One of
P Fuller’s major inventions was underlighting, in which she stood on a pane of
H frosted glass illuminated from underneath. This was particularly effective in her
Fire Dance (1895), performed to the music of Richard Wagner’s “Ride of the
Valkyries.” The dance caught the eye of artist Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec, who
depicted it in a lithograph.

4

8. According to paragraph 4, Fuller's *Fire Dance* was notable in part for its

- use of colored gels to illuminate glass
- used of dyes and paints to create an image of fire
- technique of lighting the dancer from beneath
- draperies with small dots resembling the Pointillist technique of Seurat

P As her technological expertise grew more sophisticated, so did the other aspects
A of her dances. Although she gave little thought to music in her earliest dances, she
R later used scores by Gluck, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner, eventually
A graduating to Stravinsky, Fauré, Debussy, and Mussorgsky, composers who were
G then considered progressive. She began to address more ambitious themes in her
R dances such as *The Sea*, in which her dancers invisibly agitated a huge expense of
A silk, played upon by colored lights. Always open to scientific and technological
P innovations, she befriended the scientists Marie and Pierre Curie upon their
H discovery of radium and created *Radium Dance*, which simulated the
 phosphorescence of that element. She both appeared in films – then in an early
 stage of development – and made them herself; the hero of her fairy-tale film *Le*
5 *Lys de la Vie* (1919) was played by René Clair, later a leading film director.

9. Why does the author mention Fuller's "*The Sea*"?

- To point out a dance of fuller's in which music did not play an important role
- To explain why fuller sometimes used music by progressive composers
- To illustrate a particular way in which fuller developed as an artist
- To illustrate how fuller's interest in science was reflected in her work

10. The word "agitated" in the passage is closest in meaning to

- emerged from beneath
- created movement in
- arranged themselves in
- pretended to be

P At the Paris Exposition in 1900, she had her own theater, where, in addition to her
A own dances, she presented pantomimes by the Japanese actress Sada Yocco. She
R assembled an all-female company at this time and established a school around
A 1908, but neither survived her. Although she is remembered today chiefly for her
G innovations in stage lighting, her activities also touched Isadora Duncan and Ruth
R St. Denis, two other United States dancers who were experimenting with new types
A of dance. She sponsored Duncan's first appearance in Europe. Her theater at the
P Paris Exposition was visited by St. Denis, who found new ideas about stagecraft
H in Fuller's work and fresh sources for her art in Sada Yocco's plays. In 1924, St,
 Denis paid tribute to Fuller with the duet *Valse à la Loie*.

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11. According to paragraph 6, what was true of Fuller's theater at the Paris Exposition?

- It presented some works that were not by Fuller.
- It featured performances by prominent male as well as female dancers.
- It became a famous school that is still named in honor of Fuller.
- It continued to operate as a theater after Fuller died.

12. The passage mentions which of the following as a dance of Fuller's that was set to music?

- *Fire Dance*
- *Radium Dance*
- *Le Lys de la Vie*
- *Valse à la Loie*

P As her technological expertise grew more sophisticated, so did the other aspects
A of her dances. ■ Although she gave little thought to music in her earliest dances,
R she later used scores by Gluck, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner,
A eventually graduating to Stravinsky, Fauré, Debussy, and Mussorgsky, composers
G who were then considered progressive. ■ She began to address more ambitious
R themes in her dances such as *The Sea*, in which her dancers invisibly agitated a
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P and technological innovations, she befriended the scientists Marie and Pierre Curie
H upon their discovery of radium and created *Radium Dance*, which simulated the
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5 ■ She both appeared in films – then in an early stage of development – and
 made them herself; the hero of her fairy-tale film *Le Lys de la Vie* (1919) was
 played by René Clair, later a leading film director.

13. Look at the four squares (■) that indicate where the following sentence could be added to the passage.

For all her originality in dance, her interests expanded beyond it into newly emerging artistic media.

Where would this sentence best fit?

- As her technological expertise grew more sophisticated, so did the other aspects of her dances. **For all her originality in dance, her interests expanded beyond it into newly emerging artistic media.** Although she gave little thought to music in her earliest dances, she later used scores by Gluck, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner, eventually graduating to Stravinsky, Fauré, Debussy, and Mussorgsky, composers who were then considered progressive. ■ She began to address more ambitious themes in her dances such as *The Sea*, in which her dancers invisibly agitated a huge expense of silk, played upon by colored lights. ■ Always open to scientific and technological innovations, she befriended the scientists Marie and Pierre Curie upon their discovery of radium and created *Radium Dance*, which simulated the phosphorescence of that element. ■ She both appeared in films – then in an early stage of development – and made them herself; the hero of her fairy-tale film *Le Lys de la Vie* (1919) was played by René Clair, later a leading film director.

- As her technological expertise grew more sophisticated, so did the other aspects of her dances. ■ Although she gave little thought to music in her earliest dances, she later used scores by Gluck, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner, eventually graduating to Stravinsky, Fauré, Debussy, and Mussorgsky, composers who were then considered progressive. **For all her originality in dance, her interests expanded beyond it into newly emerging artistic media.** She began to address more ambitious themes in her dances such as *The Sea*, in which her dancers invisibly agitated a huge expense of silk, played upon by colored lights. ■ Always open to scientific and technological innovations, she befriended the scientists Marie and Pierre Curie upon their discovery of radium and created *Radium Dance*, which simulated the phosphorescence of that element. ■ She both appeared in films – then in an early stage of development – and made them herself; the hero of her fairy-tale film *Le Lys de la Vie* (1919) was played by René Clair, later a leading film director.
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- As her technological expertise grew more sophisticated, so did the other aspects of her dances. ■ Although she gave little thought to music in her earliest dances, she later used scores by Gluck, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner, eventually graduating to Stravinsky, Fauré, Debussy, and Mussorgsky, composers who were then considered progressive. ■ She began to address more ambitious themes in her dances such as *The Sea*, in which her dancers invisibly agitated a huge expense of silk, played upon by colored lights. ■ Always open to scientific and technological innovations, she befriended the scientists Marie and Pierre Curie upon their discovery of radium and created *Radium Dance*, which simulated the phosphorescence of that element. **For all her originality in dance, her interests expanded beyond it into newly emerging artistic media.** She both appeared in films – then in an early stage of development – and made them herself; the hero of her fairy-tale film *Le Lys de la Vie* (1919) was played by René Clair, later a leading film director.

14. Directions: An introductory sentence for a brief summary of the passage is provided below. Complete the summary by selecting the THREE answer choices that express the most important ideas in the passage. Write only the **NUMBER** of the answer choices. Some sentences do not belong in the summary because they express ideas that are not presented in the passage or are minor details in the passage. **This question is worth 2 points.**

Loie Fuller was an important and innovative dancer.

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Answer Choices

1. Fuller believed that audiences in the late nineteenth century had lost interest in most theatrical dance.
2. Fuller transformed dance in part by creating dance interpretations of works by poets and painters.
3. Fuller’s work influenced a number of other dancers who were interested in experimental dance.
4. Fuller introduced any technical innovations to the staging of theatrical dance.
5. Fuller continued to develop throughout her career, creating more complex works and exploring new artistic media.
6. By the 1920s, Fuller’s theater at the Paris Exposition had become the world center for innovative dance.

C. Read the following passage and answer the questions accordingly.

Green Icebergs

Icebergs are massive blocks of ice, irregular in shape; they float with only about 12 percent of their mass above the sea surface. They are formed by glaciers—large rivers of ice that begin inland in the snows of Greenland, Antarctica, and Alaska—and move slowly toward the sea. The forward movement, the melting at the base of the glacier where it meets the ocean, and waves and tidal action cause blocks of ice to break off and float out to sea.

Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun above the horizon. However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.

One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions. Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. Recent expeditions have taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical

ice samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different solution to the problem.

The ice shelf cores, with a total length of 215 meters (705 feet), were long enough to penetrate through glacial ice—which is formed from the compaction of snow and contains air bubbles—and to continue into the clear, bubble-free ice formed from seawater that freezes onto the bottom of the glacial ice. The properties of this clear sea ice were very similar to the ice from the green iceberg. The scientists concluded that green icebergs form when a two-layer block of shelf ice breaks away and capsizes (turns upside down), exposing the bubble-free shelf ice that was formed from seawater.

A green iceberg that stranded just west of the Amery Ice Shelf showed two distinct layers: bubbly blue-white ice and bubble-free green ice separated by a one-meter-long ice layer containing sediments. The green ice portion was textured by seawater erosion. Where cracks were present, the color was light green because of light scattering; where no cracks were present, the color was dark green. No air bubbles were present in the green ice, suggesting that ice was not formed from the compression of snow but instead from the freezing of seawater. Large concentrations of single-celled organisms with green pigments (coloring substances) occur along the edges of the ice shelves in this region, and the seawater is rich in their decomposing organic material. The green iceberg did not contain large amounts of particles from these organisms, but the ice had accumulated dissolved organic matter from the seawater. It appears that unlike salt, dissolved organic substances are not excluded from the ice in the freezing process. Analysis shows that the dissolved organic material absorbs enough blue wavelengths from solar light to make the ice appear green.

Chemical evidence shows that platelets (minute flat portions) of ice form in the water and then accrete and stick to the bottom of the ice shelf to form a slush (partially melted snow). The slush is compacted by an unknown mechanism and solid, bubble-free ice is formed from water high in soluble organic substances. When an iceberg separates from the ice shelf and capsizes, the green ice is exposed.

The Amery Ice Shelf appears to be uniquely suited to the production of green icebergs. Once detached from the ice shelf, these bergs drift in the currents and wind systems surrounding Antarctica and can be found scattered among Antarctica's less colorful icebergs.

P
A
R
A
G
R
A
P
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1

Icebergs are massive blocks of ice, irregular in shape; they float with only about 12 percent of their mass above the sea surface. They are formed by glaciers—large rivers of ice that begin inland in the snows of Greenland, Antarctica, and Alaska—and move slowly toward the sea. The forward movement, the melting at the base of the glacier where it meets the ocean, and waves and tidal action cause blocks of ice to break off and float out to sea.

1. According to paragraph 1, all of the following are true of icebergs EXCEPT:

- They do not have a regular shape.
- They are formed where glaciers meet the ocean.
- Most of their mass is above the sea surface.
- Waves and tides cause them to break off glaciers.

P
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A
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2

Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun above the horizon. However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.

2. According to paragraph 2, what causes icebergs to sometimes appear dark or opaque?

- A heavy cloud cover
- The presence of gravel and bits of rock
- The low angle of the Sun above the horizon
- The presence of large cracks in their surface

P
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One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions. Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. Recent expeditions have taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical ice samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different solution to the problem.

3. Which of the sentences below best expresses the essential information in the highlighted sentences in the passage? Incorrect choices change the meaning in important ways or leave out essential information.

- One explanation notes that green icebergs stand out among other icebergs under a great variety of light conditions, but this is attributed to an optical illusion.
- One explanation for the color of green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion that occurs when the light from a near-horizon red Sun shines on a blue iceberg.
- One explanation for the green icebergs attributes their color to a great variety of light conditions, but green icebergs stand out best among other icebergs when illuminated by a near-horizon red Sun.
- One explanation attributes the color of green icebergs to an optical illusion under special light conditions, but green icebergs appear distinct from other icebergs under a great variety of light conditions.

P
A
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A
G
R
A
P
H

The ice shelf cores, with a total length of 215 meters (705 feet), were long enough to penetrate through glacial ice—which is formed from the compaction of snow and contains air bubbles—and to continue into the clear, bubble-free ice formed from seawater that freezes onto the bottom of the glacial ice. The properties of this clear sea ice were very similar to the ice from the green iceberg. The scientists concluded that green icebergs form when a two-layer block of shelf ice breaks away and capsizes (turns upside down), exposing the bubble-free shelf ice that was formed from seawater.

4

4. The word “penetrate” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- collect
- pierce
- melt
- endure

5. According to paragraph 4, how is glacial ice formed?

- By the compaction of snow
- By the freezing of seawater on the bottom of the ice shelves
- By breaking away from the ice shelf
- By the capsizing of a two-layer block of shelf ice

6. According to paragraph 4, ice shelf cores helped scientists explain the formation of green icebergs by showing that

- the ice at the bottom of green icebergs is bubble-free formed from frozen seawater
- bubble-free ice is found at the top of the ice shelf.
- glacial ice is lighter and floats better than sea ice
- the clear sea ice at the bottom of the ice shelf is similar to ice from a green iceberg

P A green iceberg that stranded just west of the Amery Ice Shelf showed two distinct
A layers: bubbly blue-white ice and bubble-free green ice separated by a one-meter-
R long ice layer containing sediments. The green ice portion was textured by
A seawater erosion. Where cracks were present, the color was light green because of
G light scattering; where no cracks were present, the color was dark green. No air
R bubbles were present in the green ice, suggesting that ice was not formed from the
A compression of snow but instead from the freezing of seawater. Large
P concentrations of single-celled organisms with green pigments (coloring
H substances) occur along the edges of the ice shelves in this region, and the seawater
 is rich in their decomposing organic material. The green iceberg did not contain
5 large amounts of particles from these organisms, but the ice had accumulated
 dissolved organic matter from the seawater. It appears that unlike salt, dissolved
 organic substances are not excluded from the ice in the freezing process. Analysis
 shows that the dissolved organic material absorbs enough blue wavelengths from
 solar light to make the ice appear green.

7. Why does the author mention that “The green ice portion was textured by seawater erosion”?

- To explain why cracks in the iceberg appeared light green instead of dark green
- To suggest that green ice is more easily eroded by seawater than white ice is
- To support the idea that the green ice had been the bottom layer before capsizing
- To explain how the air bubbles had been removed from the green ice

8. The word “accumulated” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- collected
- frozen
- released
- covered

9. The word “excluded” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- kept out
- compressed
- damaged
- gathered together

P Chemical evidence shows that platelets (minute flat portions) of ice form in the
A water and then accrete and stick to the bottom of the ice shelf to form a slush
R (partially melted snow). The slush is compacted by an unknown mechanism and
A solid, bubble-free ice is formed from water high in soluble organic substances.
G When an iceberg separates from the ice shelf and capsizes, the green ice is
R exposed.
A
P
H

10. The word “accrete” in the passage is closest in meaning to

- advance
- transfer
- flatten out
- come together

11. Which of the following is NOT explained in the passage?

- Why blocks of ice break off where glaciers meet the ocean
- Why blocks of shelf ice sometimes capsize after breaking off
- Why green icebergs are commonly produced in some parts of Antarctica
- Why green icebergs contain large amounts of dissolved organic pigments

12. The passage supports which of the following statements about the Amery Ice Shelf?

- The Amery Ice Shelf produces only green icebergs.
- The Amery Ice Shelf produces green icebergs because its ice contains high levels of metallic compounds such as copper and iron.
- The Amery Ice Shelf produces green icebergs because the seawater is rich in a particular kind of soluble organic material.
- No green icebergs are found far from the Amery Ice Shelf.

P Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or
A opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with
R changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or
A evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun
G above the horizon. ■ However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported
R seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery
A Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.
P
H ■ One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion
S when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among
 white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions.
2 ■ Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels
& of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. ■ Recent expeditions have
3 taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical ice
 samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the
 Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different
 solution to the problem.

13. Look at the four squares (■) that indicate where the following sentence could be added to the passage.

Scientists have differed as to whether icebergs appear in green as a result of light conditions or because of something in the ice itself.

Where would this sentence best fit?

- Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun above the horizon. ■ **Scientists have differed as to whether icebergs appear in green as a result of light conditions or because of something in the ice itself.** However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.

■ One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions. ■ Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. ■ Recent expeditions have taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical ice samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different solution to the problem.

- Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun above the horizon. ■ However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.

Scientists have differed as to whether icebergs appear in green as a result of light conditions or because of something in the ice itself. One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions. ■ Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. ■ Recent expeditions have taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical ice samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different solution to the problem.

- Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun above the horizon. ■ However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.

■ One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions. **Scientists have differed as to whether icebergs appear in green as a result of light conditions or because of something in the ice itself.** Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. ■ Recent expeditions have taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical ice samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different solution to the problem.

- Icebergs are ordinarily blue to white, although they sometimes appear dark or opaque because they carry gravel and bits of rock. They may change color with changing light conditions and cloud cover, glowing pink or gold in the morning or evening light, but this color change is generally related to the low angle of the Sun above the horizon. ■ However, travelers to Antarctica have repeatedly reported seeing green icebergs in the Weddell Sea and, more commonly, close to the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica.

■ One explanation for green icebergs attributes their color to an optical illusion when blue ice is illuminated by near-horizon red Sun, but green stand out among white and blue icebergs under a great variety of light conditions. ■ Another suggestion is that the color might be related to ice with high levels of metallic compounds, including copper and iron. **Scientists have differed as to whether icebergs appear in green as a result of light conditions or because of something in the ice itself.**

Recent expeditions have taken ice samples from green icebergs and ice cores—vertical, cylindrical ice samples reaching down to great depths—from the glacial ice shelves along the Antarctic continent. Analyses of these cores and samples provide a different solution to the problem.

14. Directions: An introductory sentence for a brief summary of the passage is provided below. Complete the summary by selecting the **THREE** answer choices that express the most important ideas in the passage. Write only the **NUMBER** of the answer choices. Some sentences do not belong in the summary because they express ideas that are not presented in the passage or are minor details in the passage. **This question is worth 2 points.**

Several suggestions, ranging from light conditions to the presence of metallic compounds, have been offered to explain why some icebergs appear green.

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Answer Choices

1. Ice cores used to determine that green icebergs were formed from the compaction of metallic compounds, including copper and iron.

2. All ice shelves can produce green icebergs, but the Amery Ice Shelf is especially well suited to do so.
3. Green icebergs form when a two-layer block of ice breaks away from a glacier and capsizes, exposing the bottom sea ice to view.
4. Ice cores and samples revealed that both ice shelves and a layer of bubbly glacial ice and a layer of bubble-free sea ice.
5. Green icebergs are white until they come into contact with seawater containing platelets and soluble organic green pigments.
6. In a green iceberg, the sea ice contains large concentrations of organic matter from the seawater.

STOP. This is the end of the exam.



APPENDIX 5. Sample CCTST Items

Instructions: *Form a reflective and reasoned judgment with regard to which choice is the best from among those offered.*

Background for Sample Thinking Skills Questions 1-3



For Sample Questions 1, 2 and 3 Please consider this information: A scientific study compared two matched groups of college women. The women in both groups were presented with information about the benefits of a healthy diet and regular exercise. The women in one group were paired up with one another and encouraged to work as two-person teams to help each other stick with the recommended healthy regimen of smart eating and regular vigorous exercise. The women in the other group were encouraged to use the same recommended regimen, but they were also advised to work at it individually, rather than with a partner or teammate. After 50 days the physical health and the well-being of all the women in both groups were evaluated. On average the women in the first group (with teammates) showed a 26 point improvement in measures of cardiopulmonary capacity, body strength, body fat reduction, and sense of well-being. On average the women in the other group (encouraged to work as individuals) showed a 17 point improvement on those same measures. Using statistical analyses the researchers determined that the probability that a difference of this size had occurred by chance was less than one in 1000.

Sample Thinking Skills Question #1.

If true, these research findings would tend to support which of the following assertions?

- A = A college woman cannot achieve optimal health functioning without a teammate.
- B = Universities should require all students living in campus residence halls to participate in a health regime of smart eating and regular vigorous exercise.
- C = A healthy diet will cause one to have better mental health and physical strength.
- D = This research study was funded by a corporation that makes exercise apparel.
- E = A regimen of smart eating and regular exercise is related to better health.

Sample Thinking Skills Question #2.

If the information given in the case above were true, which of the following hypotheses would not need to be ruled out in order to confidently claim that for the majority of young adults a

regimen of smart eating and regular vigorous exercise will result in significant improvements in one's overall health.

A = This study was about women, the findings cannot be generalized to include men.

B = Since the study began to solicit willing participants before the Research Ethics Review Committee of the college gave the research project its formal approval to gather data, the findings are invalid.

C = Some women in the study over-reported their compliance with the eating and exercise regimen, which led the researchers to underestimate the full impact of the regimen.

D = Since many of those studied described themselves as overweight or out of shape when the study began, a similar regimen will not benefit people who are healthier to start with.

E = The performance tests used to evaluate the health and well-being of females may not be appropriate for evaluating the health and well-being of males.

Sample Thinking Skills Question #3.

Consider the claim, "Working with a teammate or partners on a health regimen is better than working individually." Which of the following additional pieces of information would not weaken that claim?

A = Most of the women in the group that was encouraged to work individually actually worked with friends and partners who were not part of the study.

B = Most of the pairings and teams created in the first group (with teammates) fell apart after a few days and the women in that group actually worked individually.

C = There was something about the women in the first group (with teammates) that the researchers overlooked, thus invalidating the intended matching of the two groups.

D = Men are more likely to work alone, so any recommendation that men find a teammate or partner to support them in sticking with the regimen will be ignored.

E = The study was undertaken when there were no exams or major projects due, thus the results about working with a teammate do not apply to more stressful times of the year.

Sample Thinking Skills Question #4.



Three graduate school friends, Anna, Barbara, and Carol, graduated successfully. Being in the same program, the three often worked as a team on group assignments. Anna earned the special recognition of “pass with distinction” when she graduated. Carol and Barbara, although receiving their degrees, did not earn this special honor. A fourth student in the same graduate program, Deirdre, often said that the graduate program was poorly designed and not

difficult at all. Deirdre did not graduate, instead she was advised by the faculty to withdraw from the program because her work was below acceptable standards. Given this information only, it follows that

- A = Carol and Barbara deserved to receive “pass with distinction” like Anna.
- B = Barbara’s work in the program was superior to Carol’s.
- C = Barbara was jealous of the academic success her friend, Anna, enjoyed.
- D = Deirdre’s work in the program was below the quality of Carol’s work.
- E = Anna, being successful, will decide to enroll in another advanced graduate program

Sample Thinking Skills Question #5.



“I’ve heard many reasons why our nation should reduce its reliance on petroleum vehicle fuels. One is that relying on imported oil makes our economy dependent on the political whims of foreign rulers. Another is that other energy sources, like the possibility of hydrogen based fuels, are less harmful to the environment. And a third is that petroleum is not a renewable resource so when we’ve used it all up, it will be gone! But I don’t think we’re likely to use it all up

for at least another fifty years. And by then we’ll have invented new and better fuels and more fuel-efficient vehicles too. So that argument doesn’t worry me. And I don’t really believe the stuff about how foreign leaders can force our nation to change its policies simply by decreasing their oil production. Oil companies like Exxon have made record profits precisely in those times when the supply of foreign oil was reduced. I don’t see the big oil companies being very

interested in policy change when the money is rolling in. And for another, our nation has demonstrated that it is willing to wage war rather than to permit foreign leaders to push us around. So this whole thing about how we have to reduce our reliance on petroleum based gasoline, diesel, and jet fuel is bogus.” The speaker’s reasoning is best evaluated as

A = strong. It shows the arguments for reducing petroleum vehicle fuels are weak.
 B = strong. The speaker is very clear about what he believes and why he believes it.
 C = weak. The speaker probably owns stock in Exxon or some other oil company.
 D = weak. The speaker ignored the environmental argument entirely.

Sample Thinking Skills Question #6.



Using the phone at her desk, Sylvia in Corporate Sales consistently generates a very steady \$1500 per hour in gross revenue for her firm. After all of her firm’s costs have been subtracted, Sylvia’s sales amount to \$100 in bottom line (net) profits every 15 minutes. At 10:00 a.m. one day the desk phone Sylvia uses to make her sales calls breaks. Without the phone Sylvia cannot make any sales. Assume that Sylvia’s regular schedule is to begin making sales calls

at 8:00 a.m. Assume she works the phone for four hours, takes a one hour lunch exactly at noon, and then returns promptly to her desk for four more hours of afternoon sales. Sylvia loves her work and the broken phone is keeping her from it. If necessary she will try to repair the phone herself. Which of the following options would be in the best interest of Sylvia’s firm to remedy the broken phone problem?

A = Use Ed’s Phone Repair Shop down the street. Ed can replace Sylvia’s phone by 10:30 a.m. Ed will charge the firm \$500.

B = Assign Sylvia to a different project until her phone can be replaced with one from the firm’s current inventory. Replacing the phone is handled by the night shift.

C = Authorize Sylvia to buy a new phone during her lunch hour for \$75 knowing she can plug it in and have it working within a few minutes after she gets back to her desk at 1:00 p.m.

D = Ask Sylvia to try to repair her phone herself. She will probably complete the repair by 2:00 p.m.; or maybe later.

Retrieved from <https://www.insightassessment.com/article/sample-thinking-skills-questions>

APPENDIX 6. Sample Lesson Plans

1. LESSON PLAN 4-CRITICAL LITERACY INSTRUCTION

(Critical Literacy Group)

Instructor	: Havva KURT TAŞPINAR
Class/No. of Students	: R3/21
Language Proficiency Level	: B1
Course	: Integrated Skills
Duration	: 90 (45' + 45') minutes
Lesson	: Reading
Conceptual Unit	: Culture
Learning Outcomes	: to brainstorm reasons to read a descriptive text for gist and specific details to guess the meanings of the target words and match them w/ the pictures to complete a crossword puzzle to read a text critically to distinguish facts from opinions to ask questions to challenge to compare and contrast to complete a problem solving task considering advantages and disadvantages to identify concepts related to culture to analyze persuasive language use to identify concepts related to culture
Materials & Resources	: <i>The Brooklyn Bridge</i> Task sheets
Assessment	: Self-assessment, peer assessment, instructor assessment

PROCEDURE

WARM UP

- Greeting the students, introducing the “Menu of the Day” (i.e., details about the lesson) and explaining the learning objectives (5').

PRE-READING

Stage 1: Code Breaking

- **Vote For:** The instructor asks the students to brainstorm about three reasons to build bridges in groups of three. The instructor provides the students with pictures of different kinds of bridges and asks them to vote for their favorite type justifying their choices (5').

- The instructor informs the students on the title of the text (*The Brooklyn Bridge*) and asks the students what they know about the bridge (5’).

WHILE READING

Stage 2: Text Participating

- **Words and Pictures & Silent Reading:** The instructor provides the students with the visuals of the key vocabulary items from the text on a PPT slide. The instructor asks the students to read the text individually and match the pictures with the numbered vocabulary items in the text. The instructor provides the answers on PPT slide, and the students check their answers (10’).
- **Crossword Puzzle:** The instructor provides the students with a crossword puzzle and asks them to complete the puzzle in pairs. The instructor provides the answers on PPT slide, the students check other pairs’ answers (10’).
- **Critical Questions:** The instructor provides the students with the critical reading questions about the text and asks them to answer these questions in pairs. The instructor provides the suggested answers on a PPT slide, and the students check their answers (10’).
- **Distinguishing Facts from Opinions:** The instructor provides the students with statements from the text and asks them to identify facts and opinions in pairs. The instructor provides the answers on PPT slide, the students check their answers (10’).

POST-READING

Stage 3: Text Using

- **Challenge!:** The instructor asks the students to write four questions to challenge the engineer (John Roebling) individually and asks them to compare their questions in pairs (10’).
- **Compare & Contrast:** The instructor asks the students to work in pairs and compare and contrast the bridges whose pictures have been given (5’).
- **Where to Locate a Bridge:** The instructor provides the students with the “**Cantilever City Map**” and the “**Consider All Factors Template**” and asks them to work in groups of three to decide where to locate a bridge (10’).

Stage 4: Text Critiquing

- **Spot the Difference:** The instructor asks the students to compare the two texts (*Amazing Prague* & *The Brooklyn Bridge*) (e.g., in terms of language use) (5’).

CLOSURE & WRAP UP:

▪ **Whole Class Discussion:** The instructor asks the students to discuss about the cultural information from the text that has surprised them. The instructor asks the students to rate their overall performance. The instructor revisits the learning objectives (5').

READING TEXT-The Brooklyn Bridge

The Brooklyn Bridge's **construction**¹ is one of the great achievements in United States history and helped pave the way for New York City's rapid **expansion**² in the 19th and 20th centuries. It was an undertaking that required extraordinary effort, sacrifice, and ingenuity by its designers as well as its builders to complete. Its completion was a feat of engineering that was unmatched in its time: it was the longest **suspension bridge**³ -the first to use steel-wire—and dominated the New York City skyline as the tallest structure in the western **hemisphere**⁴ (Hiden 476).

The idea of a bridge linking Manhattan to Brooklyn was first formalized in a **petition**⁵ to the state legislature in 1802 (Feuerstein 24). From the time Dutch settlers arrived in Brooklyn in 1636, there had been a need to travel between Manhattan and Brooklyn (Feuerstein 98). There were many factors that made constructing a bridge there difficult, though. The East River was a wide and busy waterway with large ships and was surrounded by a low-lying area. This required that the bridge have a high **clearance**⁶ to enable ships to enter, be longer than any bridge built before it and have a significant **curve**⁷. For these reasons, the idea for the bridge was continuously put off in favor of ferry services. Brooklyn's population continued to **swell**⁸ though, and between 1860 and 1870, it experienced a colossal increase from 266,000 to 396,000 (Feuerstein 19). The City of New York at the time consisted only of Manhattan, which had about double the population of Brooklyn. A bridge was seen as a way to relieve overcrowding in Manhattan, while at the same time aid in the expansion of Brooklyn.

A man named John Roebling came up with the idea for the bridge in 1855 when he became frustrated while waiting for a ferry in 1855 (Logson 341). Roebling was born in 1806 in Germany where he trained to be an engineer. He immigrated to the United States in 1831 and after a failed attempt at making a living as a farmer in Pennsylvania, he found work as a civil engineer (Logson 342). He originally worked on canals and in the process of designing them, he found that he needed better rope. He came up with a new design and method of creating flexible wire ropes and received a patent for this in 1842 (Logson 342). He quickly found additional uses for the invention, one of which was bridges. He completed his first major bridge in 1855, which was the Niagara River Gorge Bridge (Logson 344). After several more successful projects, Roebling began to lobby influential people in New York for a bridge he had designed to cross the East River. In 1867, an act was passed to raise funding for the bridge and two years later, the design for the Brooklyn Bridge was **approved**⁹. The same month the plans were approved, Roebling's foot was **crushed**¹⁰ by a ferry and he soon after died of tetanus (Logson 345). His son, Washington, took over and ground was broken on the bridge on January 3, 1870 (Logson 346).

The main design feature of the bridge was four fifteen-inch diameter steel **cables**¹¹ that would support the enormous expanse of the bridge, which was to be over 6000 feet (Switch 22). In order to support those cables, the towers had to be enormous and they had to be sunk to the bedrock below the East River. The method for digging the river bottom was to sink a wooden box using pressurized air and create an elevator so that workers could be lowered to the box which was called a **caisson**¹². In order to pressurize the air, other gases had to be used which were potentially toxic. At least two dozen people died during the construction, most of which

occurred from this phenomenon. Workers were raised to the surface too quickly and experienced what were referred to as **the bends**¹³. Roebling's son, Washington, was himself **paralyzed**¹⁴ due to this, after which point his wife took charge of the project (Switch 23). Granite finally reached 78 feet down on one side and 44 feet on the other and the towers were eventually finished in 1877.

The construction of the roadway began in 1878 and finally finished in 1882. By 1883, the longest suspension bridge in the world was finished after thirteen years of development and construction. The opening ceremony was attended by U.S. President Chester A. Arthur and was hailed as the 8th wonder of the world. Not long after Brooklyn became part of New York, the three other boroughs followed shortly thereafter. It far **surpassed**¹⁵ what was thought of as possible for bridges at the time and laid the foundation for the rapid expansion of bridge building throughout the country. It also allowed New York to expand rapidly by allowing the easy flow of traffic to and from Brooklyn and defined what we today think of as New York City.

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Feuerstein, Julie. The Great Old Brooklyn Bridge. New York: Bridge Express Press, 2012. Print.

Logson Gerald. The Maker's Hands: Brooklyn Bridge. Michigan: Burroughs Head Books, 2010. Print.

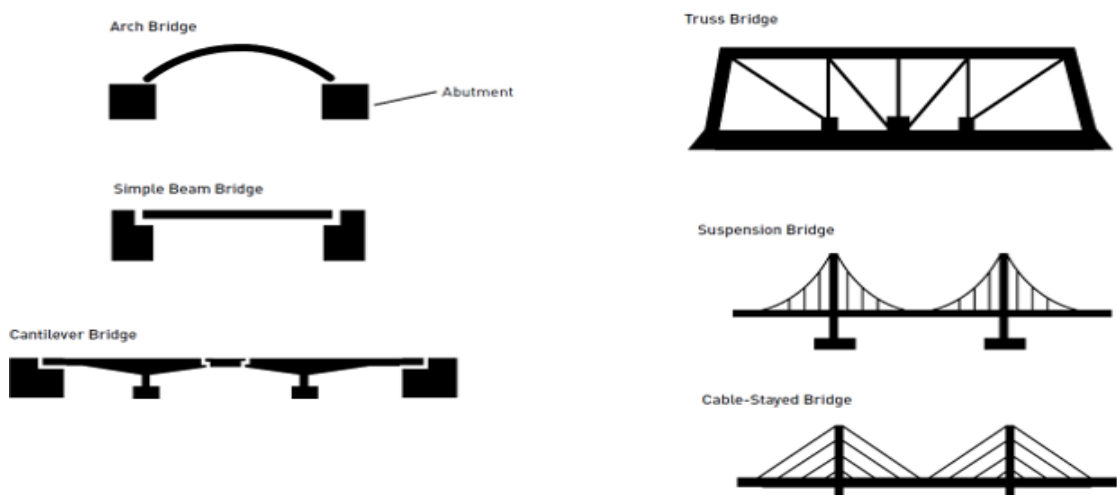
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<https://academichelp.net/samples/academics/essays/descriptive/brooklyn.html>

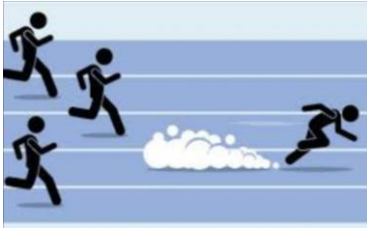
TASK 1. Vote For

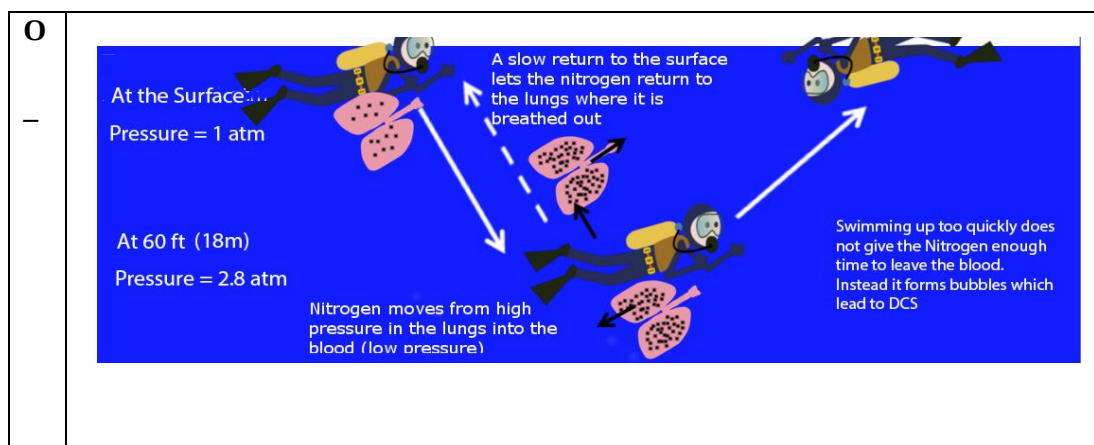
Choose your favorite type of bridge and justify your choice.



Retrieved from

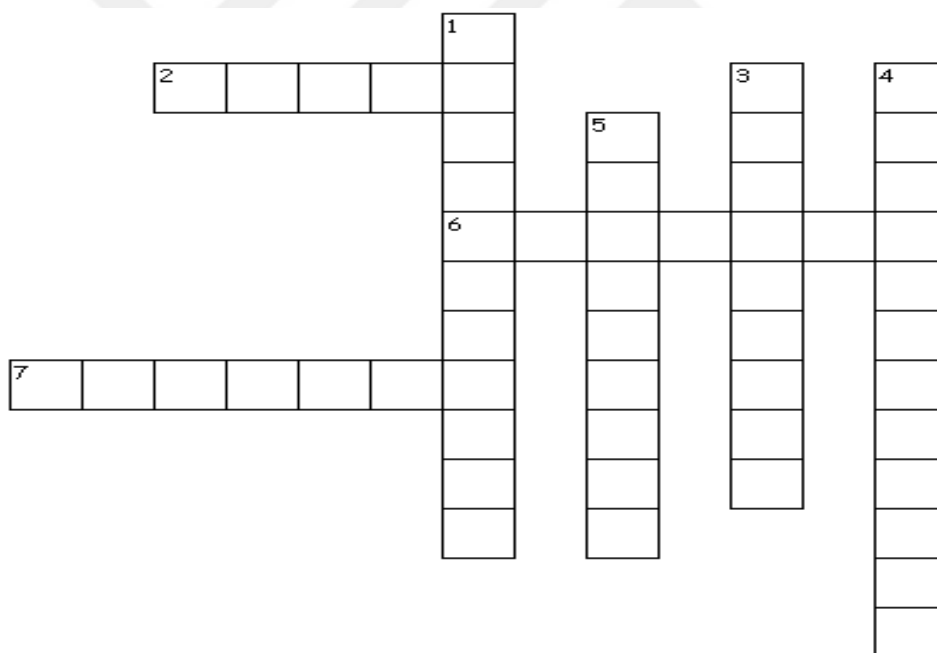
http://ccea.org.uk/sites/default/files/docs/curriculum/connected_learning/thematic_units/stem/tu_bridges.pdf

G —		H —	
I —		J —	
K —		L —	
M —		N —	



TASK 3. Complete the crossword puzzle with the numbered words from the text.

The Brooklyn Bridge



Across

2. This _____ attaches the printer to the computer.
 6. Our team's achievements _____ those of teams in earlier years.
 7. We had to wait months for the council to _____ our plans to extend the house.

Down

1. The equator divides the earth into the northern and southern _____.
 3. The rapid _____ of the software industry increased the need for more educated software engineers.
 4. The bridge is a marvelous work of engineering and _____.
 5. The accident left him _____ from the waist down.

TASK 4. Critical Reading Questions

Read the text critically and answer the following questions.

Interpretation:

1. Identify the phases of the process of the construction of the bridge.
2. In what ways, was the construction of the Brooklyn Bridge important?
3. According to the author, what aspects of the bridge make it unique?
4. Why did the bridge that would be constructed need to have a high clearance?

Analysis:

5. What does the author think about the Brooklyn Bridge? Provide evidence from the text.
6. What do you think the US officials thought about the construction of the bridge? Justify your answer.

Evaluation:

7. Do you think the author uses an objective or a subjective tone in the text? Justify your answer by referring to the text.
8. Do you think the construction of this bridge was important? Why/why not?

Inference:

9. What impact did the construction of the Brooklyn Bridge have on the construction of other bridges?
10. The construction of the bridge was completed despite the death of many people. Based on this information, what conclusion can be drawn about the construction of this bridge?
11. How do you think the bridge affected the lives of local people?
12. What would have happened if the Brooklyn Bridge had not been built?

Explanation:

13. Which words or expressions in the text were used to denote the significance of the bridge?
14. Do you think an invention can lead to other inventions? If so, how?

Self-regulation:

15. Compare your answers with the suggested answers on the PPT and rate how critical you are as a reader (3: very critical, 2: somewhat critical, 1: not critical).

TASK 5. Distinguishing Facts from Opinions

Read the following statements about the text. Write “F” if you think the statement is a *fact*, and write “O” if you think the statement is an *opinion*. Justify your answer.

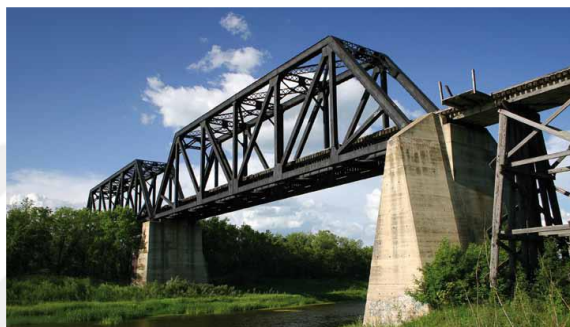
1. The construction of the Brooklyn Bridge is one of the great achievements in United States history. _____
2. The Brooklyn Bridge was the longest suspension bridge. _____
3. The East River was a wide and busy waterway with large ships and was surrounded by a low-lying area. _____
4. John Roebling originally worked on canals and while designing them, he found that he needed better rope. _____
5. He completed the Niagara River Gorge Bridge, which was his first major bridge, in 1855. _____
6. Roebling began to lobby influential people in New York for a bridge he had designed to cross the East River after several more successful projects. _____
7. The main design feature of the bridge were four fifteen-inch diameter steel cables that would support the enormous expanse of the bridge, which was to be over 6000 feet. _____
8. It also allowed New York to expand rapidly by allowing the easy flow of traffic to and from Brooklyn and defined what we today think of as New York City. _____

TASK 6. Challenge!

Write four questions to challenge the engineer (John Roebling) about the construction of the Brooklyn Bridge individually and compare your questions with your partners.

TASK 7. Compare and Contrast

Work in pairs and compare and contrast the bridges whose pictures have been given below.

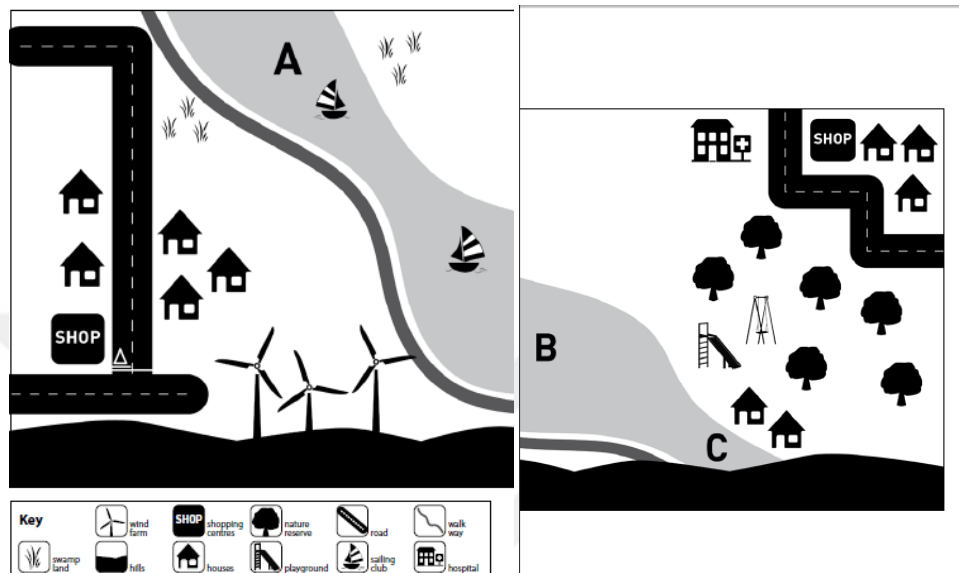
Golden Gate Bridge**Battle River Train Bridge****Sydney Harbor Bridge****Cable-Stayed Bridge**

Similarities:	Differences:
▪ ▪ ▪ ▪	▪ ▪ ▪ ▪

TASK 8. Where to Locate a Bridge

Study the Cantilever City Map and as a group, decide where to locate the bridge.

Cantilever City Map



Consider All Factors Template

Issue: Where to locate a bridge – A, B, or C?	
A	Advantage
	Disadvantage
	Interesting Factor
B	Advantage
	Disadvantage
	Interesting Factor
C	Advantage
	Disadvantage
	Interesting Factor

Our decision is: _____

Retrieved from

http://ccea.org.uk/sites/default/files/docs/curriculum/connected_learning/thematic_units/stem/tu_bridges.pdf

2. LESSON PLAN 2-CONVENTIONAL LITERACY INSTRUCTION

(Conventional Literacy Group)

Instructor	: Havva KURT TAŞPINAR
Class/No. of Students	: R2/20
Language Proficiency Level	: B1
Course	: Integrated Skills
Duration	: 90 (45' + 45') minutes
Lesson	: Reading
Conceptual Unit	: Culture
Learning Outcomes	: to watch a trailer and make predictions to read a story and match the words with their definitions to use the target words in context to read for specific details to change a story partly to identify concepts related to culture
Materials & Resources	: <i>The Bicycle</i> from <i>Persepolis</i> by Marjane Satrapi Task sheets
Assessment	: Self-assessment, peer assessment, instructor assessment

PROCEDURE

WARM UP

- Greeting the students, introducing the “Menu of the Day” (i.e., details about the lesson) and explaining the learning objectives (5’).

PRE-READING

Stage 1: Code Breaking

- **Whole Class Discussion:** The instructor writes *Persepolis* on the board and asks whether the students have heard it before or not (5’).
- **Predicting the Story:** The students watch the trailer of *Persepolis* and make predictions about the whole story/movie (i.e., the theme, the setting, characters etc.) (10’).

WHILE READING

Stage 2: Text Participating

- **Silent Reading & Guess the Words:** The instructor provides the students with a list of definitions of the words from the story and asks them to match the words with their definitions

while they are reading the text. The instructor asks the students to compare their answers in pairs. The instructor provides the answers on a PPT slide (15').

- **Vocabulary Boost:** The instructor asks the students to fill in the blanks in the given statements with the target vocabulary. The instructor provides the answers on a PPT slide and the students check their own answers (10').

- **Character ID Cards:** The instructor asks the students to read the story silently and individually. The instructor asks the students to work in pairs and create ID cards for the characters from the story. The students present their ideas to other pairs (two pairs in each group) (10').

- **True or False:** The instructor asks the students to decide whether the given statements about the story are True or False. The instructor provides the answers on a PPT slide, and the students check their answers (5').

- **Comprehension Questions:** The instructor asks the students to answer the comprehension questions in pairs. The instructor provides the answers on a PPT slide, and the students check their answers (10').

POST-READING

Stage 3: Text Using

- **Change It:** The instructor asks students to change three things in the story in groups of three. The students present their ideas to class (10').

CLOSURE & WRAP UP:

- **Whole Class Discussion:** The instructor asks the students to name three concepts from the story that are related to “culture”. The instructor asks the students to reflect on the story (5').

- The instructor asks the students to rate their overall performance. The instructor revisits the learning objectives (5').

READING TEXT 1: *The Bicycle* from *Persepolis* by Marjane Satrapi

THE BICYCLE



"AFTER A LONG SLEEP OF 2500 YEARS, THE REVOLUTION HAS FINALLY AWAKENED THE PEOPLE."



"2500 YEARS OF TYRANNY AND SUBMISSION" AS MY FATHER SAID.

FIRST OUR OWN EMPERORS.



THEN THE ARAB INVASION FROM THE WEST.



FOLLOWED BY THE MONGOLIAN INVASION FROM THE EAST.



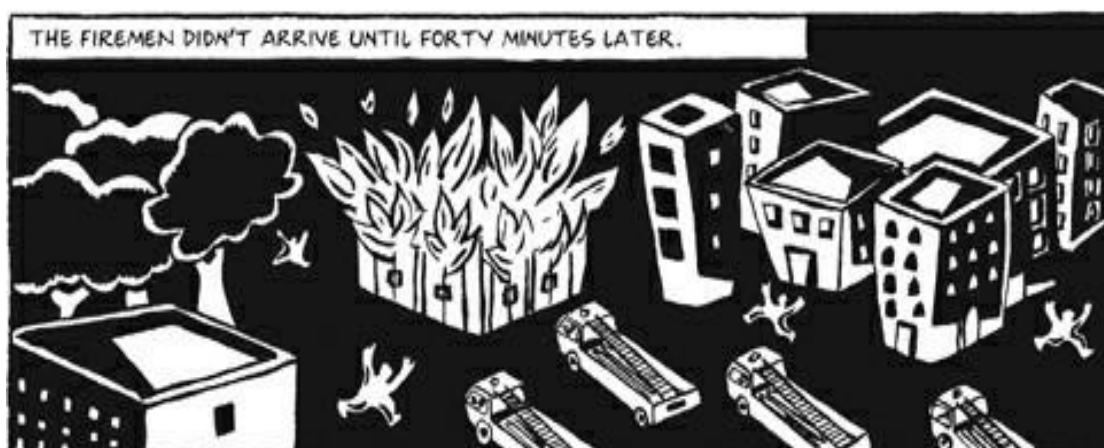
AND FINALLY MODERN IMPERIALISM.















TASK 1. Guess the Words

Read the story and match the definitions with the words from the story.

Words	Definitions	Answers
a. revolution (n.)	1. the act of killing a lot of people.	
b. prophet (n.)	2. to save someone from a dangerous or unpleasant situation.	
c. destiny (n.)	3. the act of accepting the power or authority of someone. else.	
d. demonstrate (v.)	4. a person who speaks for God and tells what will happen in the future.	
e. tyranny (n.)	5. the image of something. In a mirror, on a shiny surface or etc.	
f. submission (n.)	6. to make a public expression that you are not satisfied about something, especially by marching or having a meeting.	
g. invasion (n.)	7. a system in which a country rules other countries, something having used force to get power over them.	
h. imperialism (n.)	8. the things that will happen in the future.	
i. reflection (n.)	9. a change in the way a country is governed, usually to a different political system and often using violence or war.	
j. forbid (v.)	10. a situation in which a leader or government has too much power and uses that power in a cruel and unfair way.	
k. rescue (v.)	11. an occasion when an army or country uses force to enter and control of another country.	
l. victim (n.)	12. to refuse to allow something, especially officially.	
m. perpetrate (v.)	13. someone who has suffered the effects of violence, illness or bad luck.	
n. massacre (n.)	14. to commit a crime or a violent or harmful act.	

TASK 2. Vocabulary Boost

Read the sentences and fill in the blanks with the appropriate words. Make necessary changes.

demonstrate	revolution	submission	invasion	tyranny	forbid	victim
reflection	imperialism	destiny	prophet	rescue	perpetrate	massacre

1. The French _____ was a period of time in France when the people overthrew the monarchy and took control of the government.
2. In the Bible, Noah was the _____ who warned the people that God would bring flood to wipe out humanity because of all their thievery and deceit.
3. The _____ of our nation depends on this vote. The results will determine whether the country will have a bright or a dark future.
4. Thousands of people gathered to _____ against the new proposals.
5. The new president promised us this was a war against _____.
6. When the soldiers caught us, we all had to raise our arms in _____ without being able to reject.
7. They were planning to mount an _____ of the north of the country, which had oil reserves of approximately 6.5 billion barrels.
8. The minister accused the United States of economic _____.
9. I was really scared when I saw the _____ of the cat on the window.
10. Some religions _____ people to participate in politics. Thus, requiring people to vote violates their religious beliefs.
11. Luckily, they could _____ most of the passengers from the sinking ship.
12. International charity organizations provided the flood _____ with financial aid.
13. Half of all violent crimes in this country is _____ by people who have been drinking alcohol.
14. The authorities blame the guerrilla troops for the _____ of 2,000 women and children.

TASK 3. Character ID Cards

Read the story, choose at least three characters from the story, and prepare ID cards for them.

Character 1:	Character 2:	Character 3:
Description of the Character:	Description of the Character:	Description of the Character:
Your favorite quote by the character:	Your favorite quote by the character:	Your favorite quote by the character:

TASK 4. True or False

Read the statements below and decide if they are True or False.

1. The revolution has not changed anything in the country. _____
2. The author and her friends support the king. _____
3. Iran has long been experiencing tyranny and submission. _____
4. The Rex Cinema fire was set by the enemies. _____
5. Many Iranians were upset with the Shah's administration; as a result, they protested against the Shah. _____
6. It is stated in the story that in order for a revolution to be successful, all the citizens have to support it. _____

TASK 5. Comprehension Questions

Read the questions below and answer them according to the text.

1. What were the causes for the long period of tyranny and submission in the country?
2. What kind of books did Marjane read?
3. What did Marjane's parents decide to do after the incident?
4. What didn't Marjane's parents allow her to do? Why not?
5. What happened at the Rex Cinema?

TASK 6. Change It

Change three things in the story in groups of three and present your ideas to class.

3. LESSON PLAN 6-WEB-BASED INSTRUCTION (Web-Based Group)

Instructor	: Havva KURT TAŞPINAR
Class/No. of Students	: R1/20
Language Proficiency Level	: B1
Course	: Integrated Skills
Duration	: 90 (45'+ 45') minutes
Lesson	: Reading
Conceptual Unit	: Culture
Learning Outcomes	: to make predictions based on the photos to read a persuasive text for gist and specific details to read a text critically to guess the meanings of the target words and match them w/ their synonyms to match the target vocabulary items w/ the statements to prepare a fact file to identify concepts related to culture
Materials & Resources	: App/Website (<i>Edmodo</i>) <i>Why is Game of Thrones the greatest show of all time?</i> Task sheets
Assessment	: Self-assessment, instructor assessment

PROCEDURE

PRE-READING

Stage 1: Code Breaking

▪ **Guessing the Characters & Watching the Trailer:** The students look at the photos of some characters (of *Game of Thrones*) and guess who they are. The students then watch the trailer (Season 8) and guess what the TV series is about.

WHILE READING

Stage 2: Text Participating

▪ **Silent Reading & Matching Heading:** The students read the text individually and match the headings given with the paragraphs in the text. The students check their answers.

▪ **Words and Synonyms & Silent Reading:** The students match the synonyms with the key vocabulary items from the text. The students check their answers.

▪ **Vocabulary Boost:** The students fill in the blanks in the statements given with the vocabulary items. The students check their answers.

- **Comprehension and Critical Questions:** The students read the text and answer the comprehension and critical questions. The students check their answers.
- **Correct the Statements:** The students read the statements about the text, all of which are incorrect, and correct the mistakes in these statements. The students check their answers.

POST-READING

Stage 3: Text Using

- **Fact File:** The students make notes about the facts that have been presented after reading the text. Then they go online and do more research about the TV show to prepare a fact file.
- **Your Favourite:** The students make notes about their favorite TV shows.

CLOSURE & WRAP UP:

- The students identify the concepts related to culture in the text. They assign the text a score in terms of its persuasiveness (**3:** Very persuasive, **2:** Somewhat persuasive, **1:** Not persuasive) and reflect on the text.

READING TEXT- Why is *Game of Thrones* the greatest show of all time?

PAUL MOORE

Valar Morghulis if you disagree.



Drama, action, betrayal, murder, mystery, heroes and villains. All this without even mentioning the dragons!

Simply put, *Game of Thrones* is the greatest show of all time and if you haven't seen it yet then you're in for a real treat. With the Season 7 premiere quickly approaching on Sky Atlantic on July 17, here's why *Game of Thrones* rules the TV realm.

A Song of Fire and Ice.

Like any TV or film, the magic starts on the page and in the case of *Game of Thrones*, there's no denying that George R.R. Martin has managed to tap into some beloved elements of history, mythology and folklore. Martin's real genius lies in the fact that he somehow managed to combine a variety of influences and merge them into something that's exciting, addictive and beloved by audiences around the world. If you're not a *Game of Thrones* expert, now is the perfect time to catch up with the world's most beloved show on Sky Box Sets but you might already be familiar with certain themes. For example, it's clear that the gripping rivalry between the Starks and the Lannisters is inspired by the Wars of the Roses as the House of York and the House of Lancaster feuded for the English throne. The entire world is addicted to the quest for the Iron Throne, and after seeing the very first episode on Sky Box Sets, we promise that you will be too.



The North Remembers.

Without giving too much away, *Game of Thrones* has the finest plot in any TV show because audiences instantly become immersed in a vast and epic world without ever losing sight of the memorable characters that populate it.

With multiple feuding Houses, betrayal, quests for revenge and shifting alliances all occurring on a regular basis, there's rarely a moment to breathe because in Westeros, swords and words can be equally as deadly. Excitement, mystery and uncertainty shroud every minute, but there's far more to it than a razor-sharp plot. Incredible action, amazing one-liners and exciting twists develop at such a quick rate that you'll be begging to watch the next episode. Thank god that Sky Box Sets have every episode for you to catch up on! Every moment feels like it's a small piece in a superb jigsaw that's building towards the final answer, who's going to sit on the Iron Throne?

Westeros is Ireland

Fun fact, George R.R. Martin actually admitted that the design of Westeros is inspired by an inverted map of the UK and Ireland. In this case, The Wall would be Hadrian's Wall. See, the world's best show is inspired by our beautiful country! If that isn't enough to convince you, the locations that are used in *Game of Thrones* are absolutely stunning. Shot on location in Northern Ireland, Croatia, Iceland, Morocco and Spain, this is TV at its most epic and grandiose.

The characters

It's hard to choose one favourite character in *Game of Thrones* because everyone gets their moment to shine. Are you a fan of Daenerys as she tries to bring freedom to the Seven

Kingdoms? What about the noble and brave virtues of Jon Snow? Perhaps Tyrion and his sharp mind is what appeals to you most? Then again, who doesn't love a good villain and Game of Thrones has some epic ones! Unlike other shows, Game of Thrones has that unique ability to get viewers to invest their time into the characters on screen. Trust us, you'll be screaming in delight, cursing in anger and jumping with excitement as you follow these heroes and villains. And some people just say that it's just a show about dragons!

Acting

The greatest compliment that you could pay Game of Thrones is that there isn't a character who feels 'wasted' because every single person in the show - regardless of their time on screen - is memorable. Certain characters also have an uncanny ability to get under your skin, especially the villains. We defy any Game of Thrones fan to be completely at ease whenever they see Ramsay Bolton, Joffrey or Littlefinger. They're the very definition of someone that you love to hate. On the other side of this, you'll be emotionally invested in the fates of Jon Snow, Daenerys, Tyrion and the entire Stark family. There are heroes and villains on every side and after watching the very first episode of the show on Sky Box Sets, you'll be hooked!

Production values

We're delighted to see the return of Game of Thrones to Sky Atlantic, but in many ways, each episode could easily sit on the big screen at your local cinema because this show is epic in every sense of the word. Not only are the special effects and fight sequences top notch, but the cinematography is absolutely breathtaking. With every passing season, the scale and scope of the show only gets bigger. Truth be told, certain episodes like 'Hardhome', 'Watchers on the Wall', 'The Rains of Castamere' and 'Blackwater' have more spectacle, drama and jaw-dropping moments than 99% of the films that you would see in your local cinema. Game of Thrones has set the benchmark for what TV can do in a visual sense. It's unlike anything that you've ever seen before.

Popularity and fandom

Game of Thrones can no longer be categorised as 'just a TV show'. Simply put, George R.R. Martin's creation has become a cultural phenomenon that incites a level of devotion, love and passion that's usually only seen by massive Hollywood franchises or sports teams. Every week, people stop their daily lives because they're absolutely addicted to find out what happens next in Westeros. If you want further proof of its popularity, over 3.6 million people tuned in just to find out the premiere date of Season 7. Thankfully for us, the wait is nearly over. Winter is here and you can watch Game of Thrones on Sky Atlantic from July 17th.

Brought to you by Sky Box Sets.

Retrieved from <https://www.joe.ie/movies-tv/game-thrones-greatest-show-time-588806>

MATERIALS UPLOADED TO EDMODO**TASK 1. Guessing the Characters & Watching the Trailer**

Look at these photos and guess who they are.



Retrieved from <https://www.independent.co.uk/arts-entertainment/tv/game-of-thrones/game-of-thrones-characters-ranked-best-worst-cersei-lannister-jon-snow-sansa-arya-night-king-a8814316.html>

Now, watch the trailer (Season 8) and tell/guess what the TV series is about.

TASK 2. Matching Heading

Read the text and match the headings given with the paragraphs in the text. Then compare your answers in pairs.

- A. The characters
- B. Production values
- C. Westeros is Ireland
- D. Popularity and fandom
- E. Acting

Valar Morghulis if you disagree.



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1. _____

Fun fact, George R. R. Martin actually admitted that the design of Westeros is inspired by an inverted map of the UK and Ireland. In this case, The Wall would be Hadrian's Wall. See, the world's best show is inspired by our beautiful country! If that isn't enough to convince you, the locations that are used in *Game of Thrones* are absolutely stunning. Shot on location in Northern Ireland, Croatia, Iceland, Morocco and Spain, this is TV at its most epic and grandiose.

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Brought to you by Sky Box Sets.

Retrieved from <https://www.joe.ie/movies-tv/game-thrones-greatest-show-time-588806>

TASK 3. Words and Synonyms

Read the text individually and match the numbered vocabulary items in the text with their synonyms.

Word	Synonym
	union/cooperation
	challenge/oppose
	disloyalty
	much-loved
	anti-hero
	huge
	competition
	addicted
	turn
	combine

TASK 4. Vocabulary Boost

Read the following statements and fill in the blanks using the numbered words.

1. In some cultures, children are taught not to openly _____ their teachers.
2. Switzerland does not belong to any military _____.
3. If the drought continues, deaths will occur on a _____ scale.
4. I felt a sense of _____ when my friends refused to lend me money.
5. There's fierce _____ among the job applicants to get the job.
6. I was _____ after I watched the first two episodes of *The Big Bang Theory*.

TASK 5. Comprehension Questions

Read the following questions and answer them according to the text.

1. What makes George R. R. Martin's work unique?
2. What is one of the central themes of *Game of Thrones*?
3. According to the author, what makes it difficult to breathe while watching?
4. What is the design of Westeros been inspired by?
5. Why is it hard to choose a favorite character in *Game of Thrones*?

6. How does the author compare certain episodes, including 'Hardhome', 'Watchers on the Wall', 'The Rains of Castamere' and 'Blackwater' with the films that one would see in the local cinema?
7. Which question do the people who watch the show expect to be answered?
8. What does the author think about the locations that are used in the show? Provide evidence from the text.
9. What inferences can be made about the author? How can these inferences be made?
10. Why has the author written this text? Justify your answer.

TASK 6. Correct the Statements

Read the following statements about the text and correct them. There is one mistake in each statement.

1. You can understand certain themes in the show only if you are a *Game of Thrones* expert.
2. Although the TV show has the finest plot, it takes a while for audiences to become absorbed in *Game of Thrones*.
3. The author agrees that the show is unique due to dragons.
4. The show is appealing to many people only because it has villains that they love to hate.
5. Only the special effects and fight sequences in the show are absolutely breathtaking.
6. People who have been watching the show for a long time already know who's going to sit on the Iron Throne.

TASK 7. Fact File

Prepare a fact file about *Game of Thrones*.

First aired on	
Number of countries it is broadcast in	
Countries it has been filmed in	
Awards	
Number of seasons	
Other	

TASK 8. Your Favorite

Make notes about your favorite TV show answering the questions below and present it in your group.

What is the central theme?

Why is it your favorite TV show?

How long have you been watching it?

Why do you recommend watching it?



