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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE IMPACT OF CONCEPT BASED READING INSTRUCTION ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION AND REFLECTIVE THINKING SKILLS

AYŞE TOKAÇ KAN

DOKTORA TEZİ

DANIŞMAN:
PROF. DR. İSA KORKMAZ

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Öğrencinin		
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Yukarıda adı geçen öğrenci tarafından hazırlanan **An Investigation into the Impact of Concept-Based Reading Instruction on English Language Learners' Reading Comprehension and Reflective Thinking Skills** başlıklı bu çalışma **15/05/2018** tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği ile başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından doktora tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Jüri Üyesi	Prof. Dr. Hakan Sarı	
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Jüri Üyesi	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hüseyin Serçe	

Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Ahmet Keleşoğlu Eğitim Fak 42090 Meram Yeni Yol Meram/KONYA
Tel : 0 332 324 76 60
Faks : 0 332 324 55 10
Elektronik Ağ:
https://www.konya.edu.tr/egitimbilimlerienstitusu
E- Posta: ebil@konya.edu.tr

ÖZET

Kavram-Temelli Okuma Öğretiminin İngilizce Öğretiminde Kullanılmasının Öğrencilerin Okuduğunu Anlama ve Yansıtıcı Düşünme Becerilerine Etkisinin İncelenmesi.

Bu çalışmanın amacı kavram-temelli okuma öğretiminin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin okuma ve yansıtıcı düşünme becerilerine etkilerini araştırmaktır. Bu çalışma iki gruplu, ön ve son test çalışma desenine sahiptir. Çalışmanın katılımcıları, Türkiye'de, İç Anadolu'da bir devlet üniversitesinde İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta seviye dil becerisine sahip 63 üniversite öğrencisidir. Deney grubu (n=32) ve kontrol grubu (n=31) 16 hafta boyunca iki farklı öğretim ortamında okuma öğrenimi almıştır.

Çalışmanın öğretim aşamasında, kontrol grubu öğrencileri çeşitli okuduğunu anlama becerilerini kazandırmayı hedefleyen sınıf etkinliklerine katıldılar. Hedeflenen beceriler arasında parçayı hızlıca okuyarak ana fikrini belirleme, parçada açıkça belirtilen bilgileri parçayı hızlıca tarayarak bulma, çıkarımda bulunma, parçada belirtilen fikir ve gerçekleri birbirinden ayırma ve bağlaçları anlama gibi beceriler bulunuyordu. Öğretmen bu bahsedilen becerileri açıklayıp onların nasıl kullanacağını örneklerle bir metinde gösterip sonrasında da başka bir metinde öğrencilerin bu becerileri kendi kendilerine uygulamalarını sağladı. Deney gurubunda ise Davydov tarafından önerilen kavram-temelli öğretimin prensiplerinden yararlanılarak hazırlanan kavram temelli okuma öğretimi yapıldı. Kavram temelli öğretimin prensipleri doğrulusunda, Michael Bakhtin'in tanımladığı şekilde "iletişim" kavramı temel kavram olarak seçildi. Deney grubunun etkinlikleri bu temel kavrama uyularak tasarlandı ve sınıfta uygulandı.

Çalışmada üç tane nicel veri toplama aracı kullanılmıştır: Hedef Okuma Becerileri Sınavı, Yansıtıcı Okuma Becerileri Sınavı ve Yansıtıcı Düşünme Düzeyi Ölçeği. Hedef okuma becerileri ile ilgili toplanan verilere göre iki grup arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Yansıtıcı okuma becerileri ve yansıtıcı düşünme

düzeyiyle ilgili toplanan verilere göre ise deney grubunun kontrol gruba göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde daha başarılı olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kavram-Temelli Öğretim, Kavram-Temelli Okuma Öğretimi, Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Okuma Becerilerinin Öğretimi, Okuma Becerileri, Yansıtıcı Düşünme Becerileri, Yansıtıcı Okuma Becerileri.

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the impact of the concept-based reading instruction on the language learners' reading comprehension and reflective thinking skills. The study had a pre and posttest design with two groups: the control group and the experimental group. The participants were 63 intermediate level language learners in a state university in central Anatolia, Turkey. The experimental group (n=32) and the control group (n=31) received reading instruction for 16 weeks.

During the instruction, the control group received instruction on reading skills such as skimming, scanning, making inferences, finding the main idea, separating fact from opinion and understanding connectors. The skills instruction involved the explanation of the skills, modelling of the skills by the teacher and application of the skills by students in a new text. The experimental group, on the other hand, received concept-based reading instruction which was designed following the principles of concept-based instruction proposed by Davydov. In line with the principles of concept-based instruction, the concept of "communication" as formulated by Michael Bakhtin was chosen as the core concept to shape the reading curriculum and the classroom activities.

The groups were compared in terms of target reading skills, reflective reading skills and reflective thinking skills before and after the instruction period via three instruments. The data indicated that there was not a statistically difference between the groups in terms of target reading skills while there was a statistically significant difference in terms of reflective reading skills and reflective thinking skills between the groups in favor of the experimental group.

Keywords: Concept-Based Instruction, Concept-Based Reading Instruction, Reading Instruction in Language Learning, Reading Comprehension Skills, Reflective Thinking Skills, Reflective Reading Skills.

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To my daughter Havva Kan,

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DeSeCo Project: Definition and Selection of Competencies Project

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

MEB: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (Turkish Ministry of Education)

OBA: Orienting Basis of an Action

OECD: The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PISA: The Programme for International Student Assessment

SCOBA: The Scheme for Complete Orienting Basis of an Action

RQ: The Reflection Questionnaire

TARRS: The Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills

TATRS: The Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Written language is a fundamental tool in our lives. It gives cultures of the world a sense of permanence. Humans keep a record of their technology, history and wisdom using the written language. It is the main way to transmit the accumulated knowledge to the future generations. Instruction on understanding and producing written language, therefore, has a place in all levels of education from primary grades to university in Turkey and the countries all over the world (OECD, 2005). Instruction on comprehending written texts in English as a foreign language also has an extensive place in Turkish education starting with secondary school (MEB, 2013: V). Although students receive instruction on reading comprehension in their first and second language, they are not generally aware that they need to exert control over their comprehension process by making reflective and informed choices (Stahl et al., 1996; Braten et al., 2008). This awareness is vital for the readers in the 21st century because they need to deal with vast amount of information from a variety of sources to build knowledge and to make sense of the world around them. Additionally, we are living in a complex world, where everything changes very quickly. People need to change themselves too to survive. The idea that educational institutions can provide individuals with sufficient abilities and skills for the rest of their lives is no longer appropriate (Knapper, 1995). People need to transfer what they have learned or mastered to other domains or tasks. A fundamental purpose of education in modern societies is to develop in individuals the ability to be lifelong learners (Little,1991). There is an effort to shape instruction in a way to let students learn throughout their lives (Dam,1995; Benson & Toogood, 2002; Benson, 2007; Benson, 2009). Reflective thinking is the underlying skill in being a lifelong learner (Woolfolk, Hughes & Walkup, 2008:385; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2008). To meet these two pressing learners' needs in a state university in middle Anatolia, a curriculum focusing on English as a foreign language reading comprehension and reflective thinking skills was designed and its application is presented in this study. The study investigates whether the new curriculum really contributes to English language learners' reading comprehension and reflective thinking skills.

The reading curriculum presented in the study is designed based on the ideas of Vygotsky and the concept-based instruction developed by Vasily Davydov (Davydov, 1990). This choice was made for several reasons. First, Vygotsky's cultural historical theory emphasizes the role of language in human psychology (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller, 2003). Second, relatively recent research on reading instruction indicates the effectiveness of classroom practices which are in line with Vygotsky's cultural historical psychology (Wilkinson & Son, 2011; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller, 2003). Finally, cultural historical theory provides insights and practical directions on how higher order thinking skills such as conceptual thinking and reflective thinking develop through school instruction (Davydov, 1990).

1.1. The Statement of the Problem

Since reading comprehension in one's native language or in English as a foreign language is an essential skill, both fields of studies receive immense amount of attention from researchers and there are many classroom instruction techniques and procedures available for classroom teachers (Alvermann, Unrau & Ruddell, 2013; Kamil, Pearson, Moje, Afflerbach, 2011). Despite this wealth of sources, reading comprehension of students in Turkey and other countries is not at a desirable level (OECD, 2016a:146). Students do not read reflectively. In other words, students usually focus on facts presented in the text without considering how these presented facts relate to their own experiences. Because of this focus on the part of the students, students can successfully answer exam questions asking for reproduction of information from a text. However, questions asking for interpretation of information and incorporating text's meaning into one's own life cannot be answered as successfully as the first type of questions by students in international exams (PISA) (OECD, 2010; OECD, 2016a:162-166). This might be due to the teaching techniques and classroom procedures used in reading instruction. Students may not be provided with the appropriate orientation to the texts in their own zone of proximal development. At a first glance, this explanation seems to put the blame on classroom teachers and their inability to use appropriate classroom activities to teach

reading comprehension at a desirable level. As I mentioned above, the literature review I conducted on reading comprehension both in first language (Alvermann, Unrau & Ruddell, 2013; Kamil, Pearson, Moje & Afflerbach, 2011) and in English as a foreign language (Koda, 2004; Grabe, 2009; Nation, 2009; Bernhardt, 2010; Grabe & Stoller, 2011) revealed that there are countless number of suggestions and classroom procedures for teaching reading comprehension. Because of this wealth of classroom procedures, it may be hard for classroom teachers to combine them meaningfully at the curriculum level due to their day to day hard work with students. This study therefore aims to combine these classroom procedures in the literature meaningfully following the ideas of Vygotsky and principles of concept-based instruction.

Another fundamental and desirable skill for young people in the 21st century is reflective thinking (OECD, 2005: 8-9; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2008). Reflective thinking is not a separate subject matter like language, math, biology or history but a higher order cognitive skill which affects mastery of concepts from a variety of scientific disciplines. Therefore, there is a need to incorporate it into all school subjects (OECD, 2005: 8-9). Likewise, language teachers are very often encouraged to use classroom techniques that foster reflective thinking (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Although there are numerous studies on reflective thinking skills in reading comprehension of English as a Foreign language (EFL) (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Naghdipour & Emeagwali, 2013), there are no studies on how reflective thinking can be incorporated into a EFL reading comprehension curriculum systematically and consistently.

Cultural Historical Psychology has gained prominence in ELT practice and theorizing (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). The discussions concern rather general issues such as nature of the feedback given to students (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), dynamic assessment (Poehner, 2008; Anton, 2009; Ableeva, 2010) and the role of direct instruction in ELT (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). However, how principles of Cultural Historical psychology are actualized to teach four skills in the classroom has not received sufficient attention (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). Additionally, the concept-based instruction has received little attention from language teachers and mainstream ELT research (Negueruela

& García, 2016). There are very few studies on how concept-based instruction is used in teaching EFL skills such as grammar (Gánem-Gutiérrez & Harun, 2011; Negueruela-Azarola, 2013; Kim, 2013; Aguilo-Mora & Negueruela-Azarola, 2015), writing (Ferreira & Lantolf, 2008) and vocabulary (Lee, 2012; White, 2012). There are no studies focusing on the implementation of concept-based instruction in teaching EFL listening and reading skills although there are studies on dynamic assessment of listening (Ableeva, 2010) and reading skills (Kozulin & Garb, 2002). Another gap in literature is that no study has focused on how concept-based instruction can be implemented at a curriculum level in teaching reading comprehension to learners of English as a foreign language. This situation is also true in concept-based grammar teaching. Past studies on concept-based grammar instruction focused on a limited range of objectives such as teaching perfect tense to language learners (Negueruela-Azarola, 2013). There is only one study incorporating concept-based instruction in teaching EFL writing at a curriculum level (Ferreira & Lantolf, 2008).

In the field of English language teaching, it is an established fact that students learn the language to communicate rather than to learn about the grammar of English. Therefore, communicative classroom tasks are used to get students to communicate in the target language. The most popular communicative classroom task is the information gap activities (Thornbury, 2006: 37). In a typical information gap activity, each student has different information and they talk to each other to learn the missing information in completing a common task. In the information gap activity, students can use language freely without focusing on a single grammatical construction. In a typical adaptation of the information gap activity to reading, a text is divided into several parts and groups of students receive different parts of the text to read. After students read their assigned parts, they form new groups to relate orally the information in the text. Another communicative reading task is small group discussion after reading a text. During discussions, students are asked to express what they think about some central ideas presented in the text or sometimes they are asked to tell if they have had similar experiences as the ones mentioned in the text. Discussion and information gap activities are two typical reading tasks in

communicative language teaching approach. While performing these tasks, it is obvious that students are interactive but are they truly communicative? Written communication involves more than talking to peers and to the teacher in English and expressing one's individual points of view. In the real world, a reader participates in a cultural level communication while reading texts (Bakhtin, 1986). In the cultural level written communication, there is an ongoing dialogue that is performed via infinite number of other texts on the same topic – previous and future texts (Bakhtin, 1986). Through multiple texts, the overall cultural system conveys meanings created on a particular topic (Lotman,1988: 34). Therefore, reading and discussing the content of a single text cannot make the students participants of cultural level written communication. All they can gain by reading a single text can be learning about the point of view presented in this particular text. Additionally, written language has another function in the overall cultural system along with conveying meanings created by previous generations. This function involves generating new meanings (Lotman, 1988: 34). To generate new meanings, one needs to be aware of what she has been provided by the culture (Bakhtin,1986: 139). In other words, one cannot create something new without knowing the old. By focusing on a single text, students cannot have the chance to practice creating new meanings out of texts. These two most important distinctive characteristics of communication via texts are not reflected in these so-called communicative reading classroom activities and reading curriculums in English Language Teaching. The same observation also seems to apply to the first language reading instruction which exclusively focuses on comprehending unconnected texts (Hartman, 1992; Hartman, 1995). Therefore, this study aims to address this much ignored aspect of reading by developing a curriculum and classroom tasks informed by a Bakhtinian communication model (Bakhtin, 1986).

1.2. Research Questions

The study has a pre- and posttest quasi experimental design with two groups and its main aim is to investigate the effectiveness of concept-based instruction in fostering reading comprehension and reflective thinking skills of language learners in a university

setting in Turkey. Therefore, reflective thinking and reading comprehension are two main themes in the study. Accordingly, the research questions of the study are grouped under these two themes as presented below:

A. What is the impact of concept-based reading comprehension instruction on the language learners' reading comprehension?

The research sub-question associated with the research question above is:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)?

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)?

B. What is the impact of concept-based instruction on language learners' reflective thinking skills?

3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Habitual Action" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Understanding" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

5. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

6. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

1.3. The Significance of the Study

The study presents a concept-based reading curriculum and associated classroom tasks. The curriculum and the classroom tasks were designed to promote reflective thinking and reading comprehension skills. Therefore, the curriculum and the materials can provide English language teachers with practical ideas for promoting reflective thinking and reading comprehension skills. Additionally, the materials can show teachers how to integrate reflective thinking tasks consistently in a reading comprehension curriculum for language learners.

The study is a first attempt to apply Davydov's concept-based instruction (Davydov, 1988; Davydov, 1990; Davydov, 1998; Davydov, 2008) in teaching reading comprehension to language learners. In line with the principles of concept-based instruction, the concept of communication was used to shape the curriculum and the classroom tasks. Therefore, the study contributes to the practice of language teaching by presenting a blueprint of a reading curriculum with a strong conceptual focus. The findings of the study may also provide an impetus for material writers and teachers to include reading comprehension related concepts in reading instruction.

By focusing on the concept of communication, Bakhtin (Bakhtin, 1981; Bakhtin, 1986; Morson & Emerson, 1990) explains the differences and the similarities of everyday conversations and the written texts. He also explains how these two means of communication are used in sociocultural contexts by members of a society. His ideas on communication through texts were used to shape the reading instruction materials for the experimental group students. Therefore, the findings of the study might provide an impetus for reading material writers to use Bakhtin's ideas in designing teaching materials.

Finally, the study is the first attempt to investigate the effectiveness of the concept-based reading instruction via a quasi-experimental design. It is hoped that the findings of

the study pave the way for future experimental studies to investigate the effectiveness of concept-based reading instruction in English language teaching.

1.4. The Method

The study was carried out in an English language preparatory school at a state university in Middle Anatolia, Turkey. The students in the program took a proficiency test to prove their language proficiency before the school year began. Based on the proficiency test, all failing students were placed in classes of maximum 35 students as a common policy of Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu (the Council of Higher Education in Turkey). The students attended English courses 5 classroom hours (45 minutes) a day for 8 months to be intermediate language learners by the end of one school year. Only two classes of the program were chosen randomly to participate in the study and they were again randomly assigned as the control and experimental groups. The ages of the students in both groups (n=63) ranged between 19 and 24. The experimental group (n=32) students received concept-based reading instruction while the control group (n=31) students received instruction whose content and classroom activities reflect mainstream reading instruction in English Language Teaching (See methodology section of the study for a detailed account of the control group's curriculum). The instruction stage lasted 16 weeks for both groups and the students received 3 class -hour a week reading instruction under their respective instructional environment.

The study has a pre and posttest experimental design. All the participants in the study completed the Reflection Questionnaire (Kember, & Leung, et al. 2000), the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS) and the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS) before and after the instruction phase. The data from these three instruments were analyzed via independent samples t-test. The data from the Reflection Questionnaire was analyzed via t-test to determine the group differences in terms of reflective thinking skills. The data from the TATRS and TARSS were also analyzed via T-tests to determine the group differences in terms of reading skills and reflective reading skills.

1.5. The Limitations of The Study

The findings of this study are limited with the data obtained from 63 language learners with intermediate level language proficiency at a preparatory English program in a university in central Anatolia. The findings may be constrained by the student profile of the study. Furthermore, the instruction phase of the study lasted 16 weeks. Therefore, to generalize the results for larger population, the study should have had more participants and the instruction phase should have lasted longer than 16 weeks.

Another limitation of the study involves the implementers of the instruction phase. The implementers' dispositions to teaching and learning may have caused a bias during the implementation even though both teachers were provided with detailed lesson plans to follow during instruction.

1.6. Definition of Terms

Concept-Based Instruction refers to an instruction system developed by Vasily Davydov (1990). The concept-based instruction as its name suggests aims to promote learners' conceptual thinking and higher order thinking skills associated with the scientific concepts focused during instruction. One of the tenets of the concept-based instruction is that instruction should focus on the concepts with broadest scope since every field of science has a specific way to look at the material world and learners need to internalize this special way from the very beginning of the instruction.

Reflective Thinking refers to "a critique of the process and the content of problem solving" to check the validity of previous knowledge. Therefore, reflective thinking generally leads to a change in how a person perceive, feel and act (Mezirow, 1991, p. 105). There is another profound level of reflective thinking which is called critical reflection (Mezirow;1990; Kember & Leung, et al. 2000). Critical reflective thinking refers to "an assessment of how and why we have perceived, thought, felt or acted" in certain ways (Mezirow, 1990: 6). Therefore, it involves an awareness that one's

perspectives, beliefs, knowledge and expectations are “uncritically acquired in childhood through the process of socialization (Mezirow, 1990:1).

OBA (Orienting Basis of an Action), proposed by Piotr Gal’perin, a follower of Vygotsky, refers to the mental scheme that guides a person’s performance while performing mental actions (Gal’perin, 1992). For Gal’perin, this mental scheme plays a decisive role in successful performance. The more complete the orienting basis of an action, the better is the performance. If the mental scheme includes all the necessary information for a successful performance, it is called SCOBA (the Scheme for Complete Orienting Basis of an Action).

CHAPTER II: THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covers theoretical bases of the study. First, the historical development and the essential characteristics of concept-based instruction are reviewed. Next, an account of reflective thinking in cultural historical theory is provided. The chapter proceeds with an account of reading comprehension instruction both in English as a foreign language and first language. The literature review concludes with the summary of the literature review.

2.1. Concepts in Vygotsky's Cultural Historical Theory

In plain terms, concepts are simple thought units (Blunden, 2012). They help us to make meaning out of our experiences. Suppose that you don't have the concept of a key. Every time you see a key, you need to put a lot of effort to understand what it is and what it is used for. You are like a baby seeing a key for the first time. Concepts guide our actions, behaviors and attitudes. Your concept of food tells you what to eat or what not to eat. Your concept of chair tells you where to sit. Concepts guide and shape people's life in a deeper sense too. Take the concepts of "kaza" and "kader" in Islam. They are very important concepts in the lives of Muslims. They govern the Muslims' basic attitudes toward the life. Concepts are very important in communication too. In communication, we depend on them to understand each other. It would not be an exaggeration to say that they are in every aspect of our lives and they are like the air we breathe. Therefore, concepts are studied in a diverse variety of scientific disciplines such as psychology, education, linguistics, philosophy, history of science. Each discipline contributes to our knowledge of concepts in their own unique way and there is a vast literature on concepts. Therefore, providing an account of all this vast literature here is beyond the scope of this study. In this section, I provide an account of concepts understood in Cultural Historical Psychology. Next, I explain the features and the steps of Davydov's concept-based instruction.

Vygotsky very often use the terms such as word meaning, speech and sign interchangeably to refer to the concepts. He considered concepts a proper unit of analysis

in his studies because they reflect the structure of human cognition and they are observable. Another reason he chose concepts as a proper unit of analysis is that concepts belong to both individual and the culture. Individuals use them in every aspect of life, but individuals' concepts come from the culture they live in. By studying concepts, he could explain how attention, memory, and perception develop and acquire new qualities throughout a person's life in a cultural environment (Vygotsky, 1987d: 112,121). He argued that attention, perception and memory gain a voluntary nature as they merge with conceptual thinking (Vygotsky, 1987d:103) by placing "a net of ordering, logical categories over reality" (Vygotsky, 1987d:88). Vygotsky also maintains that conceptual thinking plays a decisive role in the development of personality, world view (Vygotsky, 1987d:147) and freedom of will (Vygotsky, 1987d:148).

Vygotsky formulated his hypotheses on children's concept formation based on the experimental work done by his followers such as Sakharov, Kotelova and Pashkovska (Vygotsky, 1987a:130). Sakharov designed an experimental procedure called "the double stimulation" method to demonstrate how concepts are formed in human psyche (1928). Vygotsky and Sakharov used the double stimulation method with children of different ages, normal adults and adults with mental illnesses (Vygotsky, 1987a:130). They could establish several important explanations of how concepts are born and take their final form in human cognition. They found that truly conceptual thinking becomes possible during adolescence. "Before this age, a unique intellectual formation that is externally similar to the true concept is present" (Vygotsky, 1987a:130). These externally similar but internally different concepts are used by children functionally. For example, in communication with adults, children use words to refer to objects (for example: dog). The child use and the adult use often intersect on the same concrete object. "However, the mental paths or modes of thinking that lead to this point of intersection are completely different. Even where the meaning of the child's word corresponds partially with that of the adult's speech, it is derived from entirely different mental operations" (Vygotsky, 1987a:134).

Another important finding of the double stimulation method deals with the types of stimulus in concept formation. Vygotsky and Sakharov were able to demonstrate the role of the both sensory and verbal stimuli in concept formation. Using sensory stimuli alone by singling out common properties of objects cannot explain the formation of concepts because concepts are formed by determining the essential attributes of objects rather than common attributes. For example, the concept of human being cannot be explained by saying that all humans have a philtrum – a vertical grove above the lips because having a philtrum is not essential feature of being a human even though all human beings have a philtrum. By extending this finding, they argued that concepts have a functional nature and they are the means through which certain needs are met in society. Their formation does not solely depend on some sensory stimuli (or a stimulus response pattern). Goals of the individual or society play an essential role in concept formation. Take the concept of motorway. Focusing on observable features of the motorway is meaningless. A child cannot form the true concept of motorway simply by noticing how many lines it has or its width in meters. It can be formed properly in child's cognition with the help of cultural practices. The child can form a true concept of motorway when he/she understand the social and historical conditions that led to their construction. For example, how big cities and rise of population necessitated the building of motorways (Blunden, 2012). In Cultural Historical Psychology, formation of concepts depends on a complex interplay of material world, individual, and culture (Blunden, 2012).

Another finding of the double stimulation experiment is that word meanings (concepts) develop. "When the child first learns a new word, the development of its meaning is not completed but has only begun" (Vygotsky, 1987a:169). Children's concepts go through three basic stages. These basic stages are different in terms of "their constituents, their structure, and their mode of activity" (Vygotsky, 1987a:130).

The first stage in concept formation is syncretic heaps of objects (Vygotsky, 1987a:134). This stage is observed in early childhood. The very young child forms an unordered collection of objects which have no relationship among themselves. The

connections are established subjectively (Vygotsky, 1987a:136). For example, the child uses the word "vau-vau" first to refer to a porcelain figure of a girl, later to a dog, a portrait of a grandmother and grandfather, a toy horse, and a wall clock, a black button on the child's father's shirt (Vygotsky, 1987a:148). As can be seen in this example, there is no real relationship between these objects. The relationship between these objects is subjective.

The second stage is formation of complexes. Complexes are generalizations of objects on the plane of empirical thinking. "If empirically present, any connection is sufficient to lead to the inclusion of an element in a given complex. This is the essential characteristic of the complex's construction" (Vygotsky, 1987a:137). This second stage consists of 5 sub-stages: an associative complex (Vygotsky, 1987a:137), a collection (Vygotsky, 1987a:138), chained complex (Vygotsky, 1987a:139), diffuse complex (Vygotsky, 1987a:141), a pseudoconcept (Vygotsky, 1987a:142). An account of how these substages differ from each other is beyond the scope of this study but their common property is that they are formed on the basis of objective connections that really exist among objects. Pseudoconcepts, the last stage in complexes, deserve a few words. They are externally similar to true concepts and they make it possible for adults and children to communicate with each other successfully. With the help of a pseudoconcept, the child and the adult can refer to same object (Vygotsky, 1987a:134). However, the mental operations an adult and a child use to derive the meaning are entirely different.

The last stage is true concepts. They are the products of "generalization or unification of heterogenous concrete objects" on the plane of abstract logical thinking (Vygotsky, 1987a:136). They are very similar to the pseudoconcepts externally. Pseudoconcepts are formed on the plane of concrete-empirical thinking while true concepts are "based on connections of a single, logically equivalent type ….. In the concept, each object is included within the generalization on the same basis as are all the other objects. Each of the elements is connected to the whole that is expressed in the

concept, and through this whole to each of the other elements, by a single image and by the same type of connections" (Vygotsky, 1987a:137).

To sum up, the findings of the double stimulation experiments with artificial concepts lead to several conclusions about concepts. (1) concepts go through several stages in their development; (2) they are functional and object-oriented. (3) verbal stimuli (words) and visual stimuli equally play an important role in formation of concepts. Vygotsky wanted to test his findings in real life concept formation and conducted studies with school children.

School children were given isomorphic tasks involving scientific concepts from social sciences and everyday concepts. These studies showed that there is a distinction between scientific concepts and everyday concepts because they "produce different results in tasks that require identical logical operation" (Vygotsky, 1987a:177). Additionally, "they manifest different levels of development at one and the same moment in one and the same child" (Vygotsky, 1987a :178).

The data from the studies on concept formation in school instruction demonstrated that the development of scientific concepts surpass the development of everyday concepts (Vygotsky, 1987a:167). That is, children verbalize the Archimedes' Law better than the concept of brother (Vygotsky, 1987a:178). Even though the concept of brother is formed through child's own rich personal experiences, it lacks voluntary control (Vygotsky, 1987a:168). The data also indicated that "… the strength of the scientific concept is the weakness of the everyday concept; the strength of the everyday concept is the weakness of the scientific" (Vygotsky, 1987a:178). The weakness of everyday concept is "in the child's incapacity to operate on it in a voluntary manner". On the other hand, the weakness of scientific concept is in "its verbalism and its insufficient saturation of the concrete" (Vygotsky, 1987a:168). Vygotsky pointed out that an empty verbalism is the basic danger in the development of scientific concepts (Vygotsky, 1987a:168). Teachers who teach concepts using verbal definitions without providing children the opportunity to pass

through the complex thought processes in concept development achieve nothing (Vygotksy,1987a). Knowledge gained in this mode of instruction cannot be used in any meaningful applications by children. Children's concept development need to be supported by concrete experiences.

The experiments also demonstrated that scientific concepts create a new zone of proximal development for school children. Scientific concepts change the nature of everyday concepts (Vygotsky, 1987a:168). They take the everyday concepts to a higher level of development, because scientific concepts are qualitatively different. For example, the link between scientific concepts and their corresponding concrete manifestations is indirect. Scientific concepts have "an internal hierarchical system of interrelationships" (Vygotsky, 1987a:191). Once these hierarchical generalizations are formed in thought, they are transferred to everyday concepts and children gain volitional control of their everyday concepts (Vygotsky, 1987a:191). They become sensitive to contradictions and able to think deductively (Vygotsky, 1987a:192). According to Vygotsky, "the capacity for deduction is possible only within a definite system of relationships among concepts" (Vygotsky, 1987a:191).

Another developmental path opened by scientific concept is emergence of "consciousness of that concept either in the moment of its appearance or in its mode of functioning" (Vygotsky, 1987a:161). Vygotsky states that "analysis of reality on the basis of the concept emerges much earlier than analysis of the concept itself" (Vygotsky, 1987a:161). Analysis of the concept itself can be achieved by children after instruction on scientific concepts in the zone of proximal development. Before the analysis of the concepts itself, concepts are pseudo concepts and they are just generalizations of objects and their function is to make it possible for people to communicate successfully in everyday situations (Vygotsky, 1987a:155). Pseudo concepts and true concepts can occur side by side in one person throughout his or her life (Vygotsky, 1987a:155).

2.1.1. Learning Activity

The term "learning activity" was developed in late 1950's by Daniil Elkonin - a student and associate of Vygotsky. The foundations of the learning activity are based on the general activity theory and Vygotsky's ideas on education and development. The concept of learning activity does not refer to learning in a generic sense. Davydov argues that learning can occur in many formal and informal situations and all learning types cannot be considered as a learning activity (Davydov, 2008). The learning activity refers to the kind of learning which leads development. For Vygotsky and Davydov development means acquisition of scientific concepts and theoretical thinking and corresponding capabilities such as reflection, analysis and planning which enable learners to acquire theoretical concept (Davydov, 2008:57). The second characteristic of learning activity is its orientation to produce changes in the learners themselves. In general practical activity, humans' aim is to transform the materials and the environment to realize their objectives. In a learning activity, the aim is to create a change in the self. This point is discussed by Repkin (2004: 15) in the following words:

"Any other kind of activity is directed toward obtaining external results. In research activity, for example, it is important to obtain new discoveries (otherwise the activity is meaningless). …….. In learning activity, the goal is quite different. In this case, both the goal and the result are not an external product but change within oneself as the agent of the activity. In other words, learning activity must be understood as activity for the self-change of the agent."

In cultural historical psychology, learning activity is taking place only if the learner is an agent and active. Activeness can be at three levels (Repkin, 2004:18): (1) operational level, (2) action level (3) activity level. Activeness at the level of operations occurs when the student acts mechanistically like a puppet. The learning material is cut up into tiny steps so that it is impossible for the student to make mistakes. If a mistake is made, the material is cut up into tinier steps. A good example can be teaching students to pronounce single words by using the choral drills. If the student makes mistakes, the word is divided

further into syllables. The student is carrying out operations as a reaction to teacher's commands. Second level activeness, in other words the activeness at the level of actions, involves applying a provided model to solve a problem. The teacher provides the student with a mode of action to solve a problem. A good example can be reading the first and last paragraph of a text and reading the first sentences of the remaining paragraphs in order to determine the main idea of the text. Obviously, this level of activeness is more complex than the one at operational level. "But this activeness is similar to that of a trained animal or of trained labor power. The most important indicator of learning activity-creativity-is absent" (Repkin, 2004:18). This creative aspect is present in activeness at the level of activity. At this level, the learner herself makes analysis and theoretical generalizations (scientific concepts or theoretical knowledge) without being provided modes of action by the teacher. They do not only master modes of action but "the theoretical foundations that underlie modes of action-that is, mastery of the principles of action" (Repkin: 2004:23). But this level of activeness is realized only if the learning activity is shaped in certain ways. How this is done is addressed by Davydov and Gal'perin in their works on concept-based instruction. The next section deals with the steps and principles of concept-based instruction.

2.1.2. Learning Activity Embodied in Davydov's Instruction System

Davydov's instruction system has different names in the educational literature written in English. For example, Hedegaard and Chaiklin (2005: 69) use the term "The double move approach to instruction" while Engeström (1991: 244) use the term "The instructional theory of ascending from the abstract to the concrete". In English Language Teaching literature, researchers use the term concept-based instruction to refer to Davydov's instruction system (Ferreira & Lantolf, 2008; Gánem-Gutiérrez & Harun, 2011; Negueruela-Azarola, 2013; Kim, 2013; Aguilo-Mora & Negueruela-Azarola, 2015).

Although it has been referred as an instruction system, a successful implementation requires radical changes in the content of the curriculum and in classroom procedures and

tasks (Smittau, 2004: 21; Zuckerman, 2003; 184-185). Such radical changes are needed because this instruction system is specially designed to help learners to master scientific concepts and theoretical thinking rather than spontaneous (everyday) concepts and empirical thinking which dominate modern educational curriculums (Schmittau,2003:225; Davydov, 2008). In cultural historical psychology, instruction opens the gate for development and learning activity aims to produce changes in the learner. So, there is a difference between development generating learning and learning that does not result in development. In cultural historical psychology, development generating learning can happen when children are acquainted with scientific concepts. Vygotsky asserts that "The formal discipline of scientific concepts gradually transforms the structure of the child's spontaneous concepts and helps organize them into a system: this furthers the child's ascent to higher developmental levels" (Vygotsky, 1986:206). Davydov (2008) also argues that everyday concepts and empirical thinking do not take learners to higher levels of development. Empirical thinking in concept formation involves comparing objects to find their common features and it leads to classification of objects into categories. Operating with concepts "comes down to moving up and down to this staircase of relationships among concepts" (Davydov,1990: 43). This type of thinking is already present in preschool period and everyday life of school children because every day concepts are formed through comparing objects to single out their common features. "Of course, man's "work" with concepts is not reduced to these formal operations. The basic function of a concept in a mental act consists primarily in assuring the discovery of new aspects of an object, an advancement into its content, rather than in subsuming objects under already-known attributes. But empirical theory does not describe or reveal this central function of the concept" (Davydov, 1990: 44). In most curriculums, learning is regarded as accumulation of knowledge without defining the type of knowledge that is to be mastered. In other words, the knowledge is regarded quantitatively not qualitatively. Additionally, the traditional curriculum places an overemphasis on empirical thinking. Mental operation of comparison is used exclusively in all school subjects and in mastery of all types of concepts. For example, the concept of number in mathematics, the concept

of life in biology, the concept of morphology in linguistics, the concept of historical time in history, the concept of triangle in geometry are all formed through operation of comparing (Davydov, 1990: 43). However, all branches of science have a particular way to study the material world. School instruction is the only way children can master the theoretical concepts and their corresponding modes of thinking in different branches of science (Davydov,1990: 40-41). Without focusing on the concepts and the mode of thinking specific to certain scientific discipline, children cannot move to higher levels of development.

Davydov developed the concept-based instruction based on the principles of dialectical logic rather than traditional formal logic. He argues that traditional formal logic has several weaknesses. Traditional formal logic explains the process of generalization and formation of concepts in a definite way. Material objects surrounding man has various qualities and they can be like or different from one another. Their similarities and differences are revealed by the mental operation of comparing. Certain common features are used to combine individual objects in to a certain group or a class. During this operation, a transition from the individual to the general is accomplished and it is called generalizations. Segregation of common features from other variable features is called abstracting. The content of the concept is the common properties of the objects combined under a certain class. According to this scheme, a person sees different individual trees. She notices the common properties of these individual trees by comparing them with one another. She forms the concept of it. Finally, she calls it a tree. Inductive thinking has a special place in concept formation in formal logic – the thought moves from individual cases to general categories. This is the only path to understand the reality and the material world.

The traditional formal logic is considered an inadequate logic in philosophy because "…. a person "forms" a class when comparing objects that are really related in no way and that really do not interact with one another" (Davydov, 1990: 23). For example, a child sees a plate at home, then she sees the wheels on cars; again, she sees the moon in

the sky. Each one of these objects exist independently. When she compares them, she can always find some common features in these different objects- the presence of a rounded form. Using this common feature, she can assign them to a class. She can also group all people with blond hair into a definite class, "but it is clear that they might be connected with one another in no real way and that this common element does not govern their lives" (Davydov, 1990: 23). They are grouped according to their external similarity and there is no internal relationship among them. Another problem with formal logic is its assumption that everything in the material world corresponds to a class. Il'enkov illustrates this inadequacy with the concept of man (Il'enkov as cited in Davydov,1990: 36). The problem with the concept of man is what living beings must be included in the class to single out their common attributes. Aristotle did not include slaves in the concept when he defined the man as a political being. He put the slaves to another group – "they were speaking tools (this was entirely natural for an ideologist of the slaveholding class)" (Davydov, 1990: 36). For a French writer, speech and thought are the common features of man. For Marxism, a man is a being who produces the tools of his labor. "However, as is easily observed, a great many indubitable representatives of mankind do not fit this interpretation of the essence –if we preserve the empirical interpretation of "essential attributes" as differentiating objects in one class from objects in another class. Mozart, Raphael, Pushkin, and Aristotle do not "fit," for none of them was a being producing the tools of his labor. We might attribute to "men" in the empirical interpretation of this concept only ... workers in mechanical engineering plants or workshops" (Davydov,1990: 36). Although these inadequacies of formal logic are well known in philosophy and different branches of science, its principles and its way of reflecting the material world remains dominant in educational psychology and curriculums in the past and in modern times (Davydov, 1990).

Davydov argues that dialectical logic needs to replace formal logic in educational psychology and curriculum design (Davydov,1990). Therefore, concept-based instruction is designed based on the principles of dialectical logic. Dialectical logic, whose most basic form was used by Plato and elaborate version was developed by Hegel in 19th century,

studies concepts in their interrelations, their transitions to each other and their history in human culture. All branches of sciences generate a system of concepts. Every concept is defined by many other concepts which are again can be defined by other concepts. For example, the concept of number can be defined in the following ways: 1000-999=1, 2/2= 1 (Vygotsky, 1987a: 227). There is a net of interrelationships among concepts. These relationships among concepts are the primary focus of dialectical logic.

In dialectical logic, the words concrete, and abstract has a different meaning from their meaning in traditional formal logic and everyday use of the term. In traditional formal logic, the concrete is a separate and directly observable thing while abstract is the repeating property of many objects therefore it is devoid of an image (Davydov, 1990: 29). For example, house is concrete concept while beauty, justice are abstract concepts. Only criteria to differentiate the abstract and concrete in thinking is their visibility. In dialectical logic, concrete is the unity of diversity while abstract is anything that is general. In a system of interrelated concepts, "Each of the definitions forming part of the system naturally reflects only a part, a fragment, an element, an aspect of the concrete reality- and that's why it is abstract if it's taken by itself, separately from other definitions" (Ilyenkov, 2008: 37). "The concreteness of a concept lies, according to Hegel, in the unity of definitions, their meaningful cohesion – the only means of revealing the content of a concept. Out of context, an individual verbal definition is abstract and abstract only. Immersed into the context of a scientific theoretical discourse, any abstract definition becomes concrete" (Ilyenkov, 2008: 26-27). According to the dialectical logic, the correct way to the reality and truth is moving from abstract to the concrete; that is from general to the individual. On the other hand, in traditional formal logic, the only way to the truth and reality is moving from concrete to abstract; that is from individual to the general (Ilyenkov, 2008: 15-16). Here a special note is necessary, Vygotsky and Davydov acknowledge the importance of both modes of thinking in concept formation. They do not emphasize one over the other. They argue that formal logic's scheme of concept formation corresponds to formation of everyday concepts while dialectical logic corresponds to the formation of scientific concepts. They are qualitatively different, and they play a different

role in children's development (Vygotsky 1986: 206). When children come to school, they need to master qualitatively different forms of knowing truth. Because of this thinking, concept-based instruction focuses on scientific concepts and theoretical thinking which are not present in children's preschool life. Davydov (1990) criticizes the traditional school instruction and curriculum which encourage learners to use empirical thinking in mastery of concepts. He thinks that most curriculums exclusively focus on empirical thinking.

Davydov's instruction system has 4 important principles. The first principle involves the content of instruction. Davydov argues that learners should be exposed to the most general and the broadest concepts of the relevant disciplines at first. Those core concepts help learners to adopt an orientation that is specific to the relevant disciple while interpreting the world and reality. This also makes it possible for students to solve a broad number of problems using these core concepts. By focusing on the concepts with the largest scope, learners are not lost in details and easily forgettable load of facts (Zuckerman, 2003: 185). Learners are exposed to the most general concept and then they see the manifestation of this core concept in particular cases. As new cases provide new facts and features of the core concept, learners enrich their knowledge of the initial core concept by solving contradictions and explore the interrelationship between the essential and inessential properties of object using the core concept as an instrument of their thinking process. The core concept is not handled in an atomistic manner. In other words, learners are not presented with properties of the object one by one and one after another. They are exposed to the core concept as a whole as a gestalt at the very beginning and they do not need to put everything together later on. Presentation of concepts as a whole without focusing on particular properties is called "germ cell" and it is a metaphor for the idea that the initial most general concept contains all the necessary properties that distinguish the concept from other concepts and can be found in all particular cases. Core concepts are likened to the seed of a grown-up tree and contain all the essential properties of the future tree (Zuckerman, 2003: 184).

The second principle involves in what manner the most general concepts are presented to learners. Learners are not passive consumers of knowledge in Concept Based Instruction. They need to be the subject of their learning activity. The necessity of being active during learning is a popular idea in modern education. Models of constructivist education emphasize the active role of students in learning process. In constructivist education, learners engage in group work and hands–on experimentation with learning materials and they construct their knowledge by integrating their previous knowledge with the new one. Davydov (1998) argues that most constructivist educational models do not help learners master discipline specific generalizations and mode of thinking despite their emphasis on the active role of the learners. In these models, learners are exposed to the particular manifestations of the concept and then they reach a generalization based on their experiences with the object of their study. Davydov argues that this movement from particular to the general encourage learners to use empirical thinking which can be obtained outside the school setting too. Learners are not given the opportunity to master theoretical thinking and scientific concepts. In concept-based instruction, learners are active too just like in constructive education models, but their activeness is ensured in a different way. As mentioned above, dialectic logic informs the principles of concept-based instruction. In accordance with the dialectical logic, the content of the instruction is the internal relationships between core concepts. From the very beginning, the internal connection between scientific concepts are studied by learners. Teachers design classroom tasks which help learners to see the insufficiency of their already- mastered concepts to solve a problem. Teachers can design those tasks by making an analysis of the actual genesis of the concept in the relevant discipline. Davydov wrote that scientific concepts can "be assimilated only by reproducing the actual process of their genesis, production, and formation, i.e., by transforming some particular material anew" (Davydov, 1998: 39). Here a special emphasis is in order related to the Davydov's words. What he means by the actual process of concepts' genesis is that concepts are cultural artifacts and tools that arise in response to some social needs (Blunden, 2012) and for learners to assimilate the concepts teachers need to design tasks which allow learners to replicate the discoveries

which have been achieved by the previous generations in an abridged form (Davydov, 1990: 320). In teaching concepts curriculum designers and teachers need to make cultural historical analysis of the core concepts to determine the conditions that resulted in a need that can be met by the concept in society. This analysis should inform the design of the classroom tasks. Classroom tasks are designed in way a solution can be found only if learner have the concept. The new concept is not directly given to the learners by the teacher. Learners first feel the need for a new method of solution and begin to reflect on the conditions of the task and their previous knowledge. An example can illustrate how this is done in classroom tasks. In a mathematics course for first graders designed by Davydov, the concept of number is not introduced right away. But in most mathematics courses for first graders around the world, the concept of number is the first concept learners focus on. They first match a set of objects with sticks or some kinds of a model. Then they match the objects with numbers. Finally, they start counting numbers. In Davydov's course, first graders begin the course with the concept of measurement, which reflects "the essence of mathematics as the science of quantity and relation" (Schmittau, 2003: 229). They compare two quantities such as length, area, volume and length. At first learners can determine the equality of inequality of objects visually. For example, two objects can be compared in terms of their weight by holding the objects. Children record the result of their comparison by using symbols (A>B, A=B). Next children are given measuring tasks which cannot be accomplished visually. These tasks make it possible for students to see the insufficiency of their usual method of measurement. Engaging in these tasks, first graders discover the concept of unit of measurement. The concept of number is not given directly. Its bases in measurement is first revealed to children through classroom tasks. Children understand how the concept of number is related to the quantity and master the concept at a deep level. Student who studied the concept of number in concept-based curriculum can master algebraic operations more easily than the students who studied numbers by counting. In curriculums where the concept of "number develop from the action of counting" students need further reconceptualization of number each time a new type of number is introduced (Schmittau, 2003: 230). Introduction of numbers

based on measurement as opposed to counting is done based on the historical analysis of the concept and its relationship with other relevant concepts in mathematics. Davydov's instruction system indicates a necessity for curriculum designers and teachers to make conceptual and socio historical analysis for the content of learning.

The fourth principle involves the type of thinking skills. As mentioned earlier Davydov designed his instruction system for students to master scientific concepts and corresponding thinking skills. One essential thinking skill for acquisition of scientific concepts is reflective thinking. To encourage students to reflect, scientific concepts with the broadest scope is introduced during the instruction since only general concepts necessitate reflection. "One cannot adequately work with a general concept without considering the limits of its application, and one cannot acquire a general concept without consciously examining the boundary of one's own knowledge and understanding" (Zuckerman, 2003:192-193).

In cultural historical psychology, content of scientific disciplines and cooperation with peers are essential in developing reflection as a thinking skill. Davydov (1990) and Zuckerman (2003: 192) argue that cooperation with peers is "the necessary conditions for development of reflective abilities". In types of instruction during which relevant learning objectives (skills, concepts) are acquired by imitation of a model provided by the teacher, the control and monitoring the correspondence between the performance and the provided model is generally done by the teacher. It is also evident that "imitation does not include hypotheses and questions about unknown or contradictory realities. The result is that the burden of reflection is shifted toward the adult" (Zuckerman, 2003: 193). To transfer the burden of reflection on performance to learners, peer cooperation in mastery of concepts is a must in Davydov's instruction system. Teachers need to design learning tasks that can provoke different points of view or different methods of solving problems. During those kinds of tasks learners resolve contradictions in their opinions or points of view without teacher's intervention. During the process of harmonizing and addressing different point of views, learners can" take different perspectives on the subject of discussion and

decentrate from their primary point of view and develop a more sophisticated approach (Zuckerman, 2003: 193).

Davydov (Davydov, 1988: 30). mentions six learning actions that students need to perform in his instruction system which follows the logic of ascending from the abstract to the concrete. These learning actions are:

"(1) transforming the conditions of the task in order to reveal the universal relationship of the object under study.

(2) modelling the identified relationship in an item-specific, graphic or literal form

(3) transforming the model of the relationship in order to study its properties in their "pure guise"

(4) constructing a system of particular tasks that are resolved by a general mode

(5) monitoring the performance of the preceding actions

(6) evaluating the assimilation of the general mode that results from resolving the given learning task"

The actual classroom procedures are presented below both from the perspectives of the teacher and the students. The first learning action is very important for the whole learning activity because in this step learners need to transform the classroom task by themselves without teacher's help. The teacher's only duty in this step is to design a task which provides the learners with an opportunity and a need to seek for a new method action (Zuckerman, 2007:16). The task also needs to make the core scientific concept and its corresponding thinking mode visible to the students. The students' duty at this step is to see, feel or realize the unsuitability of an old method of action in a new situation which proved that their already achieved levels of knowledge, skills, understanding and capacity fall short of enabling them to complete the task (Zuckerman, 2007: 23). They express their criticism of the old method of action and form hypotheses related to new modes of action

(Zuckerman, 2007: 16). While students express their hypotheses, teacher does not give advice, suggest solutions and does not indicate the correctness of the students' hypotheses (Zuckerman, 2007: 16). Teacher keeps track of various points of views in the class with a neutral stance (Zuckerman, 2007: 24). Students address one another directly while discussing their theories related to new modes of action (Zuckerman, 2007: 25). They try to harmonize their points of view.

The second learning action involves modelling the newly and independently found mode of action or the relationship (Davydov, 1988: 30). Students record their discovery in the form of a diagram or scheme that represents the concept under study (Zuckerman, 2007: 30). This model becomes the focus and instrument of their thinking in the following classes (Zuckerman, 2007: 30). These models in visual from are called the OBA - the Orienting Basis of an Action (Gal'perin, 1992). They represent the students' current orientation to the tasks and materials during the classes. If the model includes all the necessary information for a successful performance, it is called SCOBA - the Scheme for Complete Orienting Basis of an Action (Gal'perin, 1992). The aim of the concept-based instruction is to get the students to form the correct SCOBA for scientific core concepts during classes.

The third learning action involves putting the proposed model into practice and testing if it really helps the students to solve new classes of tasks set by the teacher and themselves (Davydov, 1988: 30). It also involves making modifications in the model when a new fact or knowledge that arises related to the concept under study.

The fourth, the fifth and the final sixth learning actions involve a cycle of application, monitoring and evaluation of the model for the most general principles of mode of action (Davydov, 1988: 30). Students solve additional tasks using their models as they monitor their own performance. They may make modifications in their models to make it more suitable for solving problems based on their evaluations. Students solve the contradictions between their old modes of action and the new problem situation as new

facts revealed some unsuitability in their models that represent their conceptual knowledge. They enrich their initial general concept by solving tasks that exemplify particular manifestations of the concept under study.

As can be seen in the learning actions presented above, it is an instruction system which helps students to learn how, when and why they need to use the concepts in solving problems.

2.2. Reflective Thinking

The world in 21st century is characterized by change, complexity and interdependence because of the fast pace of technological advancements and the globalization (OECD, 2005: 7). Individuals need to adapt to a world where technology constantly brings unprecedent changes. Furthermore, societies are becoming more diverse in terms of culture because of the globalization. Social contact with people who are different from oneself is unavoidable in 21st century. In 1997, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) initiated the Definition and Selection of Competencies (DeSeCo) Project to identify and measure the key competencies young people and adults need to face the complex challenges of today's world. The project team classified key competencies in three broad categories: (1) Use tools interactively (e.g. language, technology), (2) Interact in heterogeneous groups, (3) Act autonomously (OECD, 2005: 5). The project team identified reflective thinking as the hearth of these three competencies. They suggest that without reflective thinking, individuals cannot meet the demands of the modern world (OECD, 2005: 9). Obviously, this is a call to integrate reflective thinking in every aspect of school education. A century ago, Dewey also made a call to integrate reflective thinking in every aspect of school education (Dewey, 1933). He pointed out that reflective thinking cannot develop as "a special, isolated natural tendency that will bloom inevitably in due season" and therefore it needs deliberate attention in educational environments (Dewey & Boydston, 2008: 185).

2.2.1. Definition of Reflective Thinking

The term reflective thinking as an aspect of learning and education first appeared around 1933 in the work of Dewey. For Dewey (1933: 9), reflection is "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusion to which it tends." As this definition indicates reflection is intentionally seeking justifications for one's knowledge and beliefs and "enables us to correct distortions in our beliefs and errors in problem-solving" (Mezirow, 1990: 1).

Mezirow, another influential researcher of reflective thinking, mentions three types actions: habitual action, thoughtful action, reflective action (Mezirow, 1990: 6). Habitual actions refer to actions which are executed automatically because of their frequent use and they involve little conscious thought. Thoughtful actions involve the use of previous knowledge in problem solving without apprising the validity of this past knowledge. Thoughtful actions may include a brief pause for a reassessment by asking "what am I doing wrong?" during problem solving but the problems are solved by making use of previous knowledge and do not create a change in person's perspectives and beliefs (Mezirow, 1990: 6). Reflective action involves "a critique of the process and the content of problem solving" to check the validity of previous knowledge therefore it leads to a change in how a person perceive, feel and act (Mezirow, 1991: 105). Mezirow also mentions about a more profound level of reflection and he labels this more deeper form of reflection premise reflection (Mezirow, 1990: 8). Premise reflection or sometimes called as critical reflection (Mezirow, 1990; Kember & Leung, et al. 2000) involves "an assessment of how and why we have perceived, thought, felt or acted" in certain ways (Mezirow, 1990: 6). Therefore, it involves an awareness that one's perspectives, beliefs, knowledge and expectations are "uncritically acquired in childhood through the process of socialization, often in the context of an emotionally charged relationship with parents, teachers, or other mentors" (Mezirow, 1990: 1). At a first glance, reflection might seem a naturally occurring mental action because a person might improve her performance and

learning as they engage in some kinds of tasks repeatedly. However, reflection involves much more than thinking about how to perform better in the next problem-solving situation simply by relying on past experiences. As the definitions provided above indicate, reflection helps individuals free themselves from a single point of view. Through reflection, individuals become aware of possible negative effects of adopting a single point of view in solving complex problems which require questioning the previously held deep beliefs about the world and the experiences.

A review of Vygotsky's works translated into English indicates that there is not a direct definition of reflective thinking in his works. However, Vygotsky makes a distinction between lower order and higher order thinking skills. He explains that higher order thinking skills do not occur automatically as children mature. Their formation depends on the social conditions children and adolescents find themselves. The origin of higher order thinking skills is not located in the individual but in social relations and practices in the form of (1) collaboration with more capable adults or peers, (2) school instruction and (3) formation of scientific concepts. After being exposed to these three social practices shaped in the zone of proximal development, children and adolescents interiorize higher order thinking skills. The famous quotation of Vygotsky describes this very idea in the following words: "every function in child's cultural development appears twice, first on the social level and later on the individual level" …. "all higher functions originate as actual relations between individuals" (Vygotsky, 1978: 57). He criticized the psychological accounts that attempt to explain cognitive development via individual processes. Because he viewed "thinking" as a social as well as an individual process, he emphasized the importance of examining the linguistic and interactional dimensions as precursors of higher mental functions in individuals. Although Vygotsky do not provide us with a clear definition of reflective thinking, he provides us how reflective thinking is born and develop in children and adolescents.

After Vygotsky's death, his followers such as Alexander Luria, Alexei Leontiev, Daniil Elkonin, Vasily Vasil'evich Davydov and others continued to expand and elaborate

his theory. Elkonin and Davydov formulated a definition of reflection in line with Vygotsky's ideas about the school instruction (Elkonin, 1972; Davydov, 1988, 1990). According to Elkonin and Davydov, reflection is "a basic human ability:

(a) to consider the goals, motives, methods and means of one's own and other people's actions and thoughts (the mental facets of this sometimes called metacognition);

(b) to take other people's points of view, that is, view matters from perspectives other than one's own; and

(c) to understand oneself, study one's own strong points and limitations in order to find ways to excel or to accept shortcomings." (as cited in Zuckerman, 2003:.178)

Based on this definition and Vygotsky's ideas on instruction, Davydov designed the concept-based instruction to get students master scientific concepts and think reflectively. At this point it is essential to note that Elkonin and Davydov's definition of reflection does not seem to correspond to Mezirow's definition of reflection and critical reflection. This mismatch between two definitions arises because of their writers' purpose. Mezirow's definition explains what reflection is or is not while Elkonin and Davydov's definition explains how to develop reflection in school instruction. Furthermore, essentiality of scientific concepts (as opposed to everyday concepts) in the development of reflection in concept-based instruction seems to correspond to the Mezirow's idea on the essentiality of an assessment of why and how one's presuppositions and beliefs govern one's perceptions and experiences in reflective thinking.

2.2.2. Reflective Thinking in Concept-Based Instruction

Although the essentiality of reflective thinking to individuals and learners is a fairly established fact, approaching reflective thinking in education solely as a cognitive construct has been criticized in the recent literature (Schön, 1987; Rodgers, 2002; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, Miller, 2003; Lantolf & Poehner, 2014; Zukerman, 2016). Critics suggest

that social processes need to be considered in the development of reflection (Davydov,1988; Zuckerman, 2003).

In cultural historical psychology, dialogic relations between individual and society; theory and practice are essential in reaching a true and satisfactory explanation in every aspect of human experience and psychology. Based on this this principle, in concept-based instruction, reflective thinking is considered as a higher order thinking skill which can only be developed if learners engage in two forms of social experiences. These social experiences are formation of scientific concepts and involvement in communication with equally experienced peers (Davydov,1988; Zuckerman, 2003).

For Vygotsky, the concepts were the core unit of analysis in his studies because concepts belong to both the culture and the individuals. Individuals are not free to form their own concepts from scratch. They as a child receive concepts from the people around them. In their daily life, they use the concepts as mediators to structure and make sense of the material world. That is why humans can see more than an eagle which is endowed with a better inborn capacity to see. We can see better because we make use of the experiences of previous generations via conceptual thinking (Davydov, 1990). However, some concepts we received from our culture may delimit our perceptions and we may see less than we could have seen in certain situations.

Vygotsky draws a distinction between every day and scientific concepts; and pointed out the essentiality of scientific concepts in the development of higher order thinking. It is essential to note here that scientific and everyday concepts serve different purposes and meet different needs in society. Therefore, both of them can be used by a single person simultaneously depending on the social context. He argued that these two types of concepts are qualitatively different from each other. Scientific concepts involve a hierarchical structure and are systematic while everyday concepts are full of contradictions and unorderly. Because of the hierarchical structure of scientific concepts, if a single change happens in one component of the system of concepts from a scientific

discipline, all other concepts need to be adapted (for example: Newton's laws of universal gravitation vs quantum mechanics, the world is flat vs. the world is round) (Davydov, 1990). Therefore, rigorous reflection by scientists on contradictions and interrelationships among concepts is constantly done to develop a system of scientific concepts (Davydov, 1990). That is why scientific concepts are vital as the content of instruction in development of reflection in concept-based instruction (Zuckerman, 2003; Davydov, 1990).

Vygotsky states that "A new type of generalization demands a new type of communication" (1982-1984, vol.4:356 as cited by Zukerman, 2016: 7). Since scientific concepts are a distinct type of generalization, its development and corresponding mode of thinking (reflection) requires a different type of communication. The types of communication available for students in the classroom can be divided into two broad categories (Zuckerman, 2003: 193). In the first type, students are provided with a model of the skills and mental operations corresponding to a concept. The students imitate the model provided by the teacher. Students work with the concept without considering its limits in application (Zuckerman, 2003: 193). The teacher or the more knowledgeable partner warn the students if they violate the applicability of the concept. The burden of reflection is on the teacher who knows and thinks about the limitations of the concept. Furthermore, in imitative behavior, there is no place for forming hypotheses and seeking evidence to support or to refute them (Zuckerman, 2003). This first type of communication is suitable for acquisition of everyday concepts. The second type of communication available for learners involves the cooperation of equally experienced partners or "the cooperation of equally inexperienced partners" at the end of which "the result exceeds the sum of the operations performed by all the participants" (Zuckerman, 2003: 194). Students are not provided models to imitate in this type of communication. Rather, they are given problem situations which can only be solved via the concept under study and which "provoke different viewpoints" or solutions (Zuckerman, 2003: 194). When students see the different solutions and viewpoints, they feel the need to evaluate the limitations of their viewpoints. The burden of reflection on the limitations of concept under study shifts

to the students. In summary, cooperation with peers and formation of scientific concepts are prerequisites for instruction which fosters reflective thinking in concept-based instruction (Zuckerman, 2003: 194; Davydov, 1990).

2.2.3. How Reflective Thinking is Handled in the Present Study (Curriculum)

In accordance with the principles of concept-based instruction, during the classes students focused on the concept of "communication", which served as a germ cell. This germ cell concept combined activities and tasks meaningfully and systematically throughout the curriculum designed for the present study. As mentioned before in the previous sections, focusing on scientific concepts rather than everyday concepts is a must in concept-based instruction. Therefore, the concept of communication as formulated by Mikhail Bakhtin (1986) was chosen by the researcher based on a literature review of the reading comprehension research (see following sections in the present chapter: 2.3.5. Implications of the Reading Comprehension Research for the Current Study, and 2.4. Summary of the Literature Review).

During the classes, the students were encouraged to abandon their everyday concepts of communication in favor of a more sophisticated concept of communication formulated by Bakhtin. From the very beginning of the classes, students were engaged in tasks which help them to see inadequacies of their everyday conceptualizations of communication. The subsequent tasks helped the students to explore further the features of their newly formulated conceptualizations regarding communication.

The students designed visual models of their understanding of the concept and its relationship to other relevant concepts. These models were called OBAs (Orienting Basis of an Action) and they aided the students' memory and helped them have a consistent focus in their discussions because in simple terms, reflection is looking back to process an experience and it involves acts of remembering and introspection. This consistent focus via OBA is necessary because mere participation in a study group or discussion does not lead to reflective thinking (Rodgers, 2002: 843). New tasks were gradually presented to

students by teacher to reveal the essential features of the concept of "communication". As new tasks were introduced, students elaborated their models (OBAs) to represent their current understanding of the concept. The models were collectively revised several times. Students used their models to make their understanding observable to themselves and their peers.

Since this study adopts a Vygotskian approach in the design of the curriculum and the lesson plans, the classroom procedures involved great amount of interaction among students themselves. Students engaged in activities during which they explained how they gained an understanding of the germ cell concept. Students simultaneously focused on their own and their peer's interpretation of the concept. Because of this simultaneous focus, they could decenter their thinking and considered different perspectives. They evaluated their own perspective against others and investigated the limitations of each perspective. During the discussions, learners collectively reached a perspective that was satisfactory for all involved. The only role the teacher adopted during the discussions was to keep a record of the students' perspectives and hypotheses regarding the core concept.

2.3. Reading Comprehension

A person's reading comprehension skills constantly develop as the person experiences changes in her knowledge, beliefs, aims and life (Fox & Alexander, 2011). In other words, whatever knowledge a person has can be used during reading (Kendeou &Vvan den Broek, 2007; Ozuru, Dempsey & McNamara, 2009; Tarchi, 2010). As a person reads, she is expanding her base of knowledge about the world, texts and herself as a reader (Alexander, 2012). Therefore, the development of reading skills expands well into the adolescence and adulthood and all reading skills cannot be acquired once and for all during the early periods of reading instruction.

Reading comprehension is a cognitive and metacognitive process. Competent readers have an extensive and well-developed repertoire of cognitive, metacognitive and motivational strategies (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Paris & Oka, 1986; Afflerbach,

Pearson & Paris, 2008; Baker & Beall, 2009; Salmer´on, Kintsch & Kintsch, 2010). During reading, a person does not just see the letters on the page and translates letters into sounds. Processing orthographic information is not sufficient even for simple recognition of words. The person uses her previous knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and the world to make sense of the prints on the page. The process is characterized by an interactive bottom up and top down processing of linguistic signs. Mastering this interactive process may not be achieved simply by repeated reading practice since reading comprehension involves an array of cognitive, metacognitive factors (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Paris & Oka, 1986; Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008; Baker & Beall, 2009; Salmer´on, Kintsch & Kintsch, 2010).

In addition to cognitive and metacognitive aspects, there are communicative and social aspects of reading. In the overall cultural system, texts are means of social level communication during which ideas and meanings are exchanged and created (Lotman, 1988). Therefore, reading is a way to participate in a social level communication and this communication has a dialogic nature just like the face to face conversations (Bakhtin, 1986). However, the dialogic nature of texts is less visible because texts "lose their immediate relation to the actual reality and to the utterances of others" (Bakhtin, 1986: 62). Because of this, understanding a text is generally conceptualized as a one-way communication during which readers' only role is to create the sematic content of the text in their minds (Bakhtin, 1986).

To explain the dialogic nature of texts, we first need to look at what basically happens during the face to face conversation and then compare the process with communicating through texts. Face to face conversations are comprised of utterances by different speakers and each utterance is a response to the previous utterance. The speakers' response must involve either an evaluation of the content or an evaluation of the form of the previous utterance (Bakhtin, 1986). Linguistic meanings of words, sentences acquire a sense (true meaning) when they are used by real people to achieve certain goals during face to face conversation (Bakhtin, 1986). The true meaning (sense of) of an utterance is

lost if its relation to other utterances in the whole conversation is not taken into consideration. For Bakhtin, a text is like an utterance in face to face conversations and it is produced in response to other texts if they focus on the same topic (1986). The text, like an utterance in the face to face conversations, evaluates either the content or the form of previous texts on the same topic. If the text is taken out of this chain of dialogue and treated as a self-sufficient object by a reader, its true meaning is lost. The reader needs to read other texts on the same topic to grasp the overall dialogue in a cultural sphere (Bakhtin, 1986). Therefore, reading only one text on a topic does not make a person a participant of cultural level communication. Moreover, a person never broadens her bases of knowledge on a topic by reading only one text (Spiro et. al, 2013).

Broadening one's knowledge is not the only function of texts (Bakhtin, 1986; Lotman, 1988). In the overall cultural system, texts are also means of generating new meanings for the whole society (Lotman, 1988). The reader and the writer both create meanings during reading process (Bakhtin, 1986; Lotman, 1988). The communication via texts is generally conceptualized as a one-way process during which the writer has the active role and the reader has the passive role (Bakhtin, 1986, Lotman, 1988). In this one-way conceptualization of written communication, the reader does nothing but forms an exact mental image of the sematic content of the text (Bakhtin, 1986). In this one-way conceptualization the reader reads and comprehends sentences one by one to form the overall structure of the text. The success of the reading process depends on to what extent the reader mirrors the semantic content of the text (Kintsch, 2013). However, a competent reader does not only aim to get meanings created by the society but also aims to generate new meanings for herself and her culture (Bakhtin, 1986).

When reading comprehension and texts are conceptualized in the way Bakhtin described, the inadequacy of a solely cognitive and metacognitive approach to reading instruction becomes obvious. The creative, communicative and social aspects of reading should inform reading instruction (Halliday, 1973) because these aspects are the very reason learners spend much time receiving instruction on reading comprehension in

schools. However, much of mainstream reading instruction generally target cognitive aspects of reading comprehension such as decoding, predicting, inferring etc. (Pintrich, Marx & Boyle, 1993). The reading instruction mainly involves reading texts and practice in the use of reading strategies. As a result of this exclusive focus, students need to learn the social and communicative aspects in real life and they generally resort to trial and error learning method. An adequate emphasis on all aspects of reading comprehension determines the students' healthy developmental path of reading comprehension (Wilkinson & Son, 2011; Alexander, 2012).

2.3.1. Teaching Reading to Learners of English as a Foreign Language

Reading instruction in English Language Teaching has a dual purpose. Students read texts to expand their knowledge of the world and the language itself. Therefore, these two purposes in reading instruction lead to two distinctive teaching approaches: intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading refers to the type of reading which aims to increase "learners' knowledge of language features and their control of reading strategies" (Nation, 2009: 25). Intensive reading is teacher centered. Extensive reading, on the other hand, refers to the type of reading done by students out of classroom as a source of enjoyment and meaningful language practice (Renandya & Jacobs, 2002). It is generally described as a complementary component of intensive reading instruction. Students have more control over the choice and level of the texts. They read texts of their choice and level to reinforce their language and vocabulary knowledge (Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Nation, 2009). Additionally, extensive reading aims to develop fluency in reading (Nation, 2009: 25). Since extensive reading is generally done out of class, it is beyond the scope of this study (see Nation, 2009 for more on extensive reading) and the remaining part of this section provides more information on intensive reading.

As mentioned earlier, intensive reading involves teacher-led close reading of a text to expand learners' knowledge about language features and use of reading comprehension strategies (Nation, 2009). A typical intensive reading session generally involves answering comprehension questions and practice in using reading strategies such as

activating prior knowledge, finding the main idea or summarization. Some time is generally allocated to language features. The language features focused during the instruction can range from vocabulary to genre. At its best, the texts are used as a communicative context to show students how language features are used by native speakers of English. Nation (2009: 27) provides a list of focuses in extensive reading.

Table 2. 1. Useful Focuses in Intensive Reading

Focus	**Items**	**Strategies**
Comprehension	Question types Question forms	Predicting Standardized reading procedures
Sound-spelling	Regular sound-spelling correspondences	Spelling rules Free/checked vowels
Vocabulary	High frequency vocabulary Underlying meanings of words	Guessing Noting and learning on cards Word parts Dictionary use
Grammar and cohesion	High frequency grammatical features	Dealing with sources of difficulty (clause insertion, what does what? coordination, cohesion)
İnformation contents	Topic type constituent	Topic type
Genre	Features that typify this type of text	Generalize to writing

(Nation, 2009:27)

As can be seen in the table, comprehension in English Language Teaching is generally addressed via instruction in reading strategies. Researchers in ELT recommend teachers to use standardized reading procedures (for example: reciprocal teaching) that are developed for first language readers (Janzen, 2002; Nation, 2009: 27; Grabe, 2009: 209; Grabe & Stoller, 2013: 134). In terms of reading strategies instruction, English as a Foreign Language Teaching draws on first language reading comprehension research (Janzen, 2002:288). Therefore, the next section provides an account of research on first language reading instruction.

2.3.2. Teaching Reading to Native Language Users

Types of reading instruction and research can be categorized depending on their family resemblances. Wilkinson and Son (2011) characterized research on teaching comprehension in terms of four waves of studies. The first wave involves research on single strategy instruction between 1970's and early 1980's. These studies demonstrated that reading strategies such as activating prior knowledge, generating questions during reading, constructing mental images of the text, summarizing, and analyzing stories into story grammar improved reading comprehension (Tierney & Cunningham, 1984; Pearson & Dole, 1987; Haller, Child, & Walberg,1988; Pressley, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick, & Kurita, 1989; Pearson & Fielding, 1991).

The second wave of studies on comprehension instruction investigated the impact of multiple-strategy use on reading comprehension. One reading program with multiple strategies is Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984) and it has received much attention from reading instruction research (Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). In Reciprocal Teaching, students are explicitly instructed to use a repertoire of reading strategies (questioning, clarifying, summarizing, predicting). Another multiple strategy approach is Collaborative Strategic Reading (Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998). In Collaborative Strategic Reading, reading instruction focuses on the strategies of brainstorming and predicting, monitoring understanding, identifying main ideas, and generating questions and reviewing key ideas. During the lessons, teachers first model the strategies for students. Then, students practice these strategies in pairs and small groups using the principles of cooperative learning. Many studies provided strong evidence of the effectiveness of multiple stagey instruction on reading comprehension (Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994; Johnson-Glenberg, 2000; Fung, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2003).

The third wave of research on reading comprehension focused on multiple strategy instruction with a more flexible approach. The third wave is called transactional strategies instruction (Pressley et al., 1992) because teachers and students engage in joint

construction of meaning using reading strategies such as predicting based on prior knowledge, generating questions, clarifying confusions, constructing mental images, relating text content to prior knowledge, and summarizing. The third wave of research provided consistent and further evidence in favor of multiple strategy instruction (Brown, Pressley, Van Meter & Schuder, 1996; Hilden & Pressly, 2007).

The fourth wave of research on reading comprehension is characterized by its special focus on dialogic nature of reading comprehension (Wilkinson & Son, 2011). The dialogic approaches to reading comprehension were designed in response to several concerns related to explicit strategy instruction. Critics of strategy instruction claimed that reading comprehension is much more fluid and flexible than the proponents of strategy instruction would assume (Tierney & Cunningham, 1984; Beck, McKeown, Hamilton & Kucan, 1997; Brown & Campione, 1998; Moats, 2004; Wilkinson & Son, 2011). They also argued that strategy instruction misleadingly provides students with a mechanicalized view of meaning making process. According to some critics, meaning making is possible when conflicting perspectives and voices are juxtaposed (Wineburg, 1991b; Seixas, 1993; Anderson, Chinn, Chang, Waggoner, & Nguyen, 1998). A large variety of instruction programs have a dialogic approach to reading instruction. The dialogic approaches to reading can be further grouped under four sub-headings: content-rich instruction, discussion, argumentation, and intertextuality (Wilkinson & Son, 2011: 367)

Content-rich instruction refers to reading instruction which integrates reading strategy instruction with subject matter instruction such as history, science and geography. During the classes, teachers try to promote both subject matter knowledge and reading comprehension skills. The rationale for integrating these two strands is that "strategies provide the tools to help students make sense of the content, and the content gives meaning and purpose to the strategies" (Wilkinson & Son, 2011: 367). Examples of content rich instruction programs are Concept Oriented Reading Instruction - CORI (Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004), In-Depth Expanded Application of Science - IDEAS

(Romance & Vitale, 2001), and Reading Apprenticeship (Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, & Mueller, 2001).

The second subgroup of dialogic reading instruction is discussion, which has received a lot of interest from researchers in education recently. Classroom discourse studies have provided data on the relationship between turn-taking patterns of classroom discourse and learning (Cazden, 2001). There are now many educational programs which disturb the infamous I-R-E (Initiation- Response- Evaluation) pattern of turn-taking between teachers and students (Cazden, 2001). Classroom discourse which is rich in open-ended and collaborative dialogues is encouraged in teaching all school subjects by researchers. A similar trend is present in reading instruction as well (Wilkinson & Son, 2011). Current reading instruction programs encourage students to exchange ideas to improve reading comprehension. The topic of the discussions on texts determines the focus of discussions and discussion are categorized in terms of aesthetic, efferent and critical-analytic stance toward texts (Rosenblatt, 1978). If the discussion is on students' personal and affective responses to the features and content of the text, the dominant stance is aesthetic (Rosenblatt, 1978). The efferent stance refers to discussions aiming to help learners to acquire and retrieve information from texts (Rosenblatt, 1978). The critical-analytic stance refers to discussions encouraging students to investigate "the underlying arguments, assumptions, worldviews, or beliefs" presented in the texts (Wilkinson & Son, 2011: 370). Reading programs that involves discussions with an aesthetic stance are Book Club (Raphael & McMahon, 1994), Grand Conversations (Eeds & Wells, 1989), and Literature Circles (Short & Pierce, 1990). Reading programs involving discussions with an efferent stance are Instructional Conversations (Goldenberg, 1992/1993), Questioning the Author (Beck et al., 1997). Programs that involves discussion with a critical analytic stance are Collaborative Reasoning (Anderson, Chinn, Chang, Waggoner, & Nguyen,1998), Paideia Seminars (Billings & Fitzgerald, 2002), and Philosophy for Children (Sharp, 1995).

The third subgroup of dialogic reading instruction is argumentation. Some researchers believe that knowing how to construct arguments and counterarguments improve students' understanding of text. Therefore, they designed reading instruction programs which have an explicit focus on skills of argumentation. In the classroom, learners take different positions about the different features of the texts and they try to provide evidence or counter evidence to support their position. Reading programs with an explicit focus on argumentation are Collaborative Reasoning (Reznitskaya & Anderson, 2002), Accountable Talk (Michaels, O'Connor, & Resnick, 2008).

The last subgroup of dialogic reading instruction is intertextuality. Reading instruction focusing on intertextuality involves reading multiple texts to construct meaning. Researchers arguing for the integration of intertextuality in reading instruction note that single passage reading paradigm undermine the real-life reading practices and the cognitive nature of reading comprehension (Hartman, 1995; Armstrong & Newman, 2011). According to researchers in favor of intertextuality, in real life, people never reach a true understanding of a topic by reading a single text. They may need to read several texts. This situation is especially true in university level education (Hynd, 1999). It is nearly impossible to think an academic discipline which does not involve some form of constructing meaning from multiple texts (Armstrong & Newman, 2011). Additionally, students may not be aware that the text they are reading provides them with one perspective on a particular topic and there may be other perspectives (Wineburg, 1991a; Seixas,1993). In terms of cognitive nature of reading, research on competent readers documented the fact that good readers make use of previous reading experiences in constructing meaning (Alexander, 2012). That means a reader's understanding transcends the single text. Despite these well-established facts, reading instruction and course books generally focus on reading single texts and students are not given tasks involving reading multiple texts (Hartman, 1995; Armstrong & Newman, 2011). Despite these potential benefits of intertextuality, there are very few reading instruction programs integrating intertextuality and no studies investigating its effects on students' reading comprehension (Armstrong & Newman, 2011).

2.3.3. Reading Strategies

The terms “reading strategies” and “reading skills” are used by teachers when they talk about their classroom practices. However, the distinction between them is not always very clear. This situation is also observed in scientific discourse on literacy and reading instruction. To address this confusion, Afflerbach and associates (2008: 368) provide the following definition for reading strategies and reading skills:

“Reading strategies are deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader’s efforts to decode text, understand words, and construct meanings of text. Reading skills are automatic actions that result in decoding and comprehension with speed, efficiency, and fluency and usually occur without awareness of the components or control involved”.

According to Afflerbach and associates (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008: 368)., the distinction lies in whether mental actions are under automatic or deliberate control. If they are automatic they are reading skills, if they are not, they are reading strategies.

McNamara and associates (McNamara et al., 2007: 471) list reading comprehension strategies under five groups: (1) reading strategies to monitor comprehension, (2) strategies to prepare for reading, (3) strategies to interpret meanings of words, sentences, and ideas in text, (4) strategies to go beyond the text, (5) strategies to organize, restructure, and synthesize the text content.

Table 2. 2. The List of Reading Strategies

(1) Strategies to monitor comprehension	Generating questions while reading to assess understanding Noting or marking where and when comprehension fails. Generating key words Answering questions Taking a test or attempting to recall the text after a delay following reading. Adjusting reading strategies to improve comprehension.
(2) Strategies to prepare for reading	Identifying the purposes and goals of reading. Previewing sections of the text. Creating concept lists and maps. Generating pre-reading questions before reading. Using the information from these pre-reading strategies to guide the reading process and to select appropriate reading strategies.
(3) Strategies to interpret meanings of words, sentences, and ideas in text	Rereading, Paraphrasing, Chunking. Marking and annotating the text Taking notes. Making intentional bridging inferences that connect back to previous sentences and ideas. Using close reading. Using knowledge of text structure.
(4) Strategies to go beyond the text	Generating questions. Using think-aloud Using self-explanation. Visualization or imagery. Taking advantage of external sources of information (e.g. A dictionary, an encyclopedia)
(5) Strategies to organize, restructure, and synthesize the text content	Using graphic organizers Using reading guides. Engaging in writing activities such as summarization.

(McNamara et al., 2007: 471)

As the list provided above indicate, there are many reading strategies and they comprise a considerable part of reading instruction. Despite their wide use in classroom, and the well documented positive impact of strategy instruction on reading

comprehension, some concerns have been raised related to explicit strategy instruction (Resnick, 1985). For example, Resnick (1985) noted that asking questions and forming summaries are not components of skilled reading performance. Skilled readers comprehend texts with speed and automaticity that it is unlikely that they allocate time and attention to form summaries and questions. He also pointed out that in reading instruction programs such as Reciprocal Teaching, a variety of instructional factors (dialogue with peers) are combined and it is impossible to determine which parts of the instruction are responsible for the improvement in reading comprehension. That means, the improvement in reading comprehension cannot be attributed solely to explicit strategy instruction. Further research also revealed that improvement in comprehension is not related to the number of and the type of strategies taught to students (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994; Rosenshine, Meister& Chapman, 1996; McKeown, Beck & Blake, 2009). Moreover, Sinatra, Brown, and Reynolds (2002) note that research has not revealed which reading strategies are the most effective. In summary, critics argued that reading strategies are not directly responsible for improvement in comprehension. They forwarded alternative explanations why reading strategies improve comprehension even though they are not components of skillful reading. One explanation is that strategies encourage students to actively involve with the text. Most strategies encourage students to use their prior knowledge and experiences in constructing meaning from the text (Kintsch & Kintsch, 2005; Willingham, 2007). Another explanation is that the dialogue among students is the reason rather than the strategies themselves behind the improvement in reading comprehension (Palincsar, 1986; Kucan & Beck, 1997). Small group discussions enable students to think aloud about their comprehension and to learn from each other about the reading comprehension process (Palincsar, 1986; Beck & McKeown, et.al, 1996; Kucan & Beck, 1997).

Another concern raised about reading strategies is that they can be too mechanical. Many scholars pointed out that reading strategies are simply a means to help learners to comprehend texts and they should not be the main focus of the instruction (Tierney & Cunningham, 1984; Beck, McKeown, Hamilton & Kucan, 1997; Brown & Campione,

1998; Moats, 2004; Wilkinson & Son, 2011). Classroom observation studies documented the mechanical use of reading strategies by teachers (Coley, DePinto, Craig, & Gardner,1993; Marks, Pressley, Coley, Craig, Gardner & DePinto,1993; Reutzel, Smith, & Fawson, 2005). For example, Hacker & Tenent (2002) observed that some classroom teachers emphasized the four reading strategies in reciprocal teaching rather than the meaningful dialogue about texts. Moreover, research on classroom observation showed that the interaction among teachers and students become too structured that students can not involve in flexible and self-regulated use of reading strategies (Cohen,1994; King,1999). Researchers also pointed out that metacognition and self-monitoring are better predictors of success than reading strategies in reading comprehension (Paris & Winograd, 1990; Baker, 1994; Baker, 2002).

2.3.4. Implications of the Reading Comprehension Research for the Current Study

21st century provides both affordances and challenges for readers. The amount of information that readers are exposed to has increased dramatically (Bohn & Short, 2009; Gantz et al., 2008). Readers have easier access to texts compared to past thanks to computers and mobile devices. Additionally, the digital age has brought with it new forms of texts such as internet pages, e-books, blogs and databases. These new forms of texts sometimes differ greatly from traditional print texts. For example, internet pages are characterized by their nonlinear format and their presentation of information in different modalities such as print, pictures and videos. The new presentation format let readers access information in any order they want. Along with all these developments in the 21st century, there is a noticeable increase in the use of digital multimedia and a decrease in the use of traditional print among young people (Rideout, Foehr & Roberts, 2010; T. C. Gençlik ve Spor Bakanlığı, 2014). Although some of these developments provides readers with potential advantages, they pose several challenges for readers. Now readers need to deal with a vast amount of information from a variety of sources to build knowledge and to make sense of the world around them. Readers very often cannot build interrelations between information from different sources and researchers have documented the

difficulty readers have in learning from multiple sources (Stahl et al., 1996; Braten et al., 2008). The quality of the information available is a problem too. The internet pages generally do not provide sufficient information about the author, the publisher and the source of a text. Search engines list the reliable and unreliable sources together without making a distinction. Readers need to consider the reliability of the information and its source. However, most readers tend to ignore the role they play in finding the reliable information (Thompson, 2003; Griffiths & Brophy, 2005). All these developments and challenges in the 21st century make it necessary for readers to be highly reflective and adaptive. Therefore, it would not be an exaggeration to say that reflective thinking is essential for reading comprehension.

This brief sketch of the status of reading in 21st century and the literature review presented in the thesis on reading instruction raises two points. First, reading as a communicative event which enables readers and writers engage in a dialogue seems to have been ignored in reading instruction (Rosenblatt, 1994). Moreover, communication at the cultural level seems to be almost invisible for students because texts are presented to students as self-sufficient objects rather than a link in the chain of communications with a history and a future in social contexts (Bakhtin, 1986). Students do not seem to appreciate the active role they have in communication via texts. They seem to adopt a passive role in meaning making (Wineburg, 1991a; Seixas,1993; Anderson, Chinn, Chang, Waggoner, & Nguyen,1998). Second, learning materials for reading comprehension seems to exacerbate this problem. Reading instruction has been largely reduced to mastery of mechanical processes such as reading strategies and answering comprehension questions focusing on a collection of independent texts (Tierney & Cunningham, 1984; Beck, McKeown, Hamilton & Kucan, 1997; Brown & Campione, 1998; Moats, 2004; Wilkinson & Son, 2011). The mechanization of reading in classrooms severely undermine the social and communicative aspects of reading. Due to the type of instruction in school, students seem to fail to appreciate the value of reading as one form of communication and as an interactive meaning making process (Rosenblatt, 1994). These two points underscore the

need to the restoration of the status of reading as a communicative act in the classroom. This essential nature of written language is hidden in the mechanistic reading instruction.

2.4. Summary of The Literature Review

Philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein observed that ordinary things are very difficult to notice and study. He said that "The aspect of things that are most important for us are hidden because of their simplicity and familiarity (One is unable to notice something—because it is always before one's eyes)" (Wittgenstein, 1958: 129). A similar case seems to be true for reading instruction. The fact that reading a text is basically an act of communication or in Bakhtinian terms a dialogue at cultural level (Bakthin,1986) seems to be underemphasized in reading instruction. In most reading comprehension materials and activities, students are given tasks that involve answering questions about information presented in the text, summarizing, brainstorming, and filling up graphic organizers. Additionally, students read texts that are connected to each other in no way. They read text after text without making an effort to connect the current text with the earlier ones. However, texts are rejoinders of a cultural dialogue and written communication is no different from face to face communication in this respect (Bakhtin, 1986). Making sense of the world via written communication and making use of the cultural wealth of the humanity involves learning from multiple texts. Moreover, focusing on single texts seems inappropriate in 21st century, which is characterized by a wealth of information from different sources.

Through mechanicalized classroom activities, the classroom texts are presented as if they are authorless and as if they are self-sufficient and isolated objects (Rosenblatt, 1994). In such a classroom, texts are objects to be manipulated rather than a means of communication between real people. Reading comprehension in one's native and foreign language receives a considerable instructional focus from first grade to high school. Important exams for placement in undergraduate and graduate programs always allocate a considerable number of questions to reading comprehension. All this effort is spent to enable students to communicate successfully using written language in their lives beyond

the classroom. Yet, mainstream reading instruction generally focuses only on reading strategies (Resnick, 1985). However, comprehension happens in a socio-cultural context and a reader needs to move beyond a single text to make meaning (Bakhtin, 1986). Reading comprehension strategies should not be the sole focus in reading comprehension instruction (Tierney & Cunningham, 1984; Beck, McKeown, Hamilton & Kucan, 1997; Brown & Campione, 1998; Moats, 2004; Wilkinson & Son, 2011). They encourage students to interact with the text, but they do not truly get student to communicate at a cultural level.

One may argue that student can become participants of communication at a cultural level if they read as many texts as possible until they gain skills of an expert reader. However, mental processes such as reading, writing and using mathematical concepts to solve problems cannot be observed directly. Only the final product of these processes is observable, and the final product does not provide any information about the nature of the mental action and what is essential or inessential for the correct performance (Haenen, 1993: 94). Therefore, students generally go through a trial and error phase. This trial and error method of learning takes too much time and may result in inaccurate understanding of the conceptual basis of scientific domains and practice. Even if students reach a conceptual understanding at a desirable level, they may not be aware of how they have mastered the concepts (Haenen, 1993: 94). Piotr Gal'perin, a follower of Vygotsky, studied the process of internalization of mental actions associated with scientific concepts in instructional settings (Gal'perin, 1992). He proposed a systematic step by step model to support internalization of new mental actions without resorting to a trial and error method. His model can be roughly divided into two steps. The first phase is the Orienting Basis of an Action (OBA) which is basically a subjective cognitive representation of the information to perform a mental action. He demonstrated that the more complete the orienting basis of an action, the better is the performance (Gal'perin, 1992). When students have all the necessary information for a correct performance at the very beginning, they can monitor their successive performance better. Without such information, students rely on another person to monitor their performance. To explain the effect of OBA on

performance, take the task of cleaning a room as an example. Before the cleaning task, a person has a subjective concept of what cleanliness entails. That subjective concept of cleanliness determines what this person will do during the actual cleaning as well as her plans of how to clean. One person may use bleach to kill the germs. The other one may think ordinary detergents are enough. In the end, we will surely have rooms that are cleaned by different cleaning methods and at a different cleanliness level. In a case where a criterion of cleanliness is provided for these two people before the actual cleaning, we are more likely to have rooms cleaned at a desirable level because the two people have had the chance to monitor their performance. In the case of school learning, without a complete orientation as to the correct or desired performance, students resort to the trial and error method of learning and mastery takes a lot of time. With the correct orientation of an action, the successful performance is attained easily without depending on a teacher. Gal'perin also argued that the orienting basis of an action should be represented visually rather than verbally (Gal'perin, 1992). The orienting basis of action that contains all the necessary information for the ideal performance in a visual form is called the SCOBA (the Scheme of a Complete Orienting Basis of an Action). SCOBAs can be given to students in a ready-made form by the teacher or they can be formed by students themselves. In this study SCOBA for reading comprehension is not given to the students. The students started with their subjective orientation but later on they needed to change this subjective orientation when they could not solve some comprehension problems designed by the researcher.

As mentioned before, reading and comprehension of texts is so ubiquitous in our daily life that students may not be aware of its true communicative and social nature. To make communicative and social nature of reading more salient in reading classes, the concept of communication was chosen as the germ cell concept by the researcher. As can be expected, there are various models of communication formulated by researchers from different fields of study such as linguistics, semiotics and information technology. In this study, Mikhail Bakhtin's dialogic communication model (1986) was used in accordance with the principles of concept-based instruction and cultural historical theory (See the

treatment section in the methodology chapter for a detailed account of the Bakhtin's concept of communication). The Bakhtinian model was chosen because Bakhtin explained communication by taking social and historical factors into consideration. Some of his ideas can be found in some contemporary schools of thoughts such as speech act theory of John Langshaw Austin (1962) and John Searle (1969); and the theory of implicature by Herbert Paul Grice (1989) and the Systemic Functional Grammar by Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday (2012). These theories and Bakhtinian language theory share a common ground in terms of their incorporation of social and contextual factors in explanation of language use and rules. However, Bakhtin's linguistic philosophy looks at language from a historical and social perspective not from the perspective of individual language users (pragmatics). Additionally, Bakhtinian communication model explains written communication while other theories generally focus on face to face communication (Morson & Emerson, 1990).

Bakhtin's communication model and its corresponding concepts were used to design the reading curriculum in the present study. The concepts were used to orient the students to the right direction in their reading. The students were never given the verbal definitions of the concepts. They were made more salient trough classroom tasks. They were represented in visual form by the students. This visual representation was called OBAs (throughout the study). The students revised their OBAs several times during the instruction process. This revision phase forms the instruction's focus on reflective thinking. As they engaged in classroom activities, they reflected on the shortcomings and adequacy of their prior conceptions depicted in their OBAs regarding essential characteristics of written communication.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter elaborates on the method used to conduct the present study that deals with the impact of concept-based instruction on the development of language learners' reflective and reading skills. The chapter begins with the overall research design of the study. Then, the chapter proceeds with a detailed description of the experimental group's curriculum and the control group's curriculum. Next, the data sources, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures are explained.

3.1. Overall Research Design

The study investigates the impact of concept-based instruction on language learners' reading achievement and reflective thinking skills. To demonstrate whether there was a significant difference in students' reading comprehension and reflective thinking skills when subjected to concept-based reading instruction, a quasi-experimental study design with two groups was used.

Table 3.1 presents the method of the study. Quantitative data was collected from learners in the experimental and the control group. The instruments consisted of The Reflection Questionnaire, Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS), Tasks for the Assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS).

Table 3. 1. The Overall Design of The Study

Groups	Prior to the Instruction	During the Instruction	After the Instruction
Experimental	The Reflection Questionnaire		The Reflection Questionnaire
	Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)		Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)
	Tasks for the assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)		Tasks for the assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)
Control	The Reflection Questionnaire		The Reflection Questionnaire
	Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)		Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)
	Tasks for the assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)		Tasks for the assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)

3.2. Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of concept-based instruction in fostering reading comprehension and reflective thinking skills of language learners in a university setting in Turkey. Under the roof of this main purpose, there were two themes that shaped the research process and the research questions presented below.

A. What is the impact of concept-based reading comprehension instruction on the language learners' reading comprehension?

The research sub-questions and hypotheses associated with the research question above is:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS).

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS).

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS).

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS).

B. What is the impact of concept-based instruction on language learners' reflective thinking skills?

The research sub-questions and hypotheses associated with the research question above is:

3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Habitual Action" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Habitual Action" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Habitual Action" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Understanding" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Understanding" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Understanding" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

5. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

6. Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

3.3. Context of the Study

In Turkey, language learning as a compulsory school subject starts in 2nd grade when students are at the age of 7 or 7.5 years old. They continue to learn their chosen foreign language throughout their 12-year compulsory education. The number of classes varies between 2 and 5 hours a week depending on their grade years and the type of school they attend. After students complete the compulsory education, they can go to a university based on their university entrance exam scores. At university, students can attend a foreign language preparatory school for one year prior to their studies in their own departments. Students whose courses at their own departments are delivered 100% and 30% in English need to prove their language proficiency through institutional language examinations. Those students whose courses are delivered exclusively in Turkish can choose to study a foreign language in a preparatory school, but they can continue their studies in their own departments even if they cannot pass the proficiency exam at the end of the language preparatory program.

The study is carried out in a state university in middle Anatolia. Participants of the study are students learning English a Foreign Language in the School of Foreign Languages. They attend English courses 5 hours a day for 8 months. They begin as elementary language learners and the program aims to take them to intermediate level English proficiency. The reading skills receive 3 classes a week. During these reading classes, a reading course book is used by the teachers and the students. The implementers of the study were the researcher and a volunteer instructor who both had 12 years of

preparatory school teaching experience. The curriculum of both groups will be described in the treatment section of the study.

3. 4. The Instruction Period

As mentioned in the overall design, the study had a pretest and posttest control group design. The experimental group received a reading instruction shaped according to concept-based instruction, and the control group received a reading instruction which can be considered mainstream in English language teaching.

3.4.1. The Control Group's Reading Curriculum

The control group's curriculum consisted of 16 texts. The texts and the reading activities were directly taken from a popular reading course book published by a prestigious American publishing company. The table below presents the texts and targeted reading skills in the control group curriculum.

Table 3. 2. The Control Group's Reading Curriculum

Units and Their Themes	Weeks	Texts (Total Number of Texts Is 16)	Target Reading Skills
Unit 1: All in The Family	1	Good Things Come in Fours	Identifying Main Ideas
	2	Stay at Home Dads	
Unit2: Health	3	Divided Sleep*	Skimming for Main Ideas
	4	Long Life	
Unit 3: Clothing	5	Necktie*	Separating Fact from Opinion
	6	A Young Man and His Kilt	
Unit 5: Great Minds	7	The Right-Brain and Left-Brain Controversy*	Scanning
	8	Artists and Scientist and Entrepreneurs	
Unit 6: Leisure	9	The Art of Paintball	Recognizing Repetition of Ideas
	10	Camping in Oz	
Unit 7: Relationships	11	Six Degrees of Separation	Recognizing Cohesive Devices
	12	A Table for Two	
Unit 8: Money Matters	13	Generation Broke	Identifying Cause and Effect
	14	The Ikea Success Story	
Unit 9: Generations	15	The Newest Generation at Work	Distinguishing Generalizations from Support
	16	Staying at Home with Momma*	

*shows the common texts in experimental and control group's curriculum.

For each text in the curriculum, three-hour class time is allocated. During the three-hour class time students consistently engaged in pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities. In the pre-reading activities, students discuss some central ideas taken from texts they were going to read. They also did some exercises on high frequency vocabulary from the texts. While-reading activities consisted answering comprehension questions, explanations of reading skills such as skimming and scanning. After the students read the explanations of a target reading skill, they practice it by reading two texts. Post-reading activities consisted of discussion of ideas taken from the text. Examples of pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities from a unit are presented in the table below.

Table 3. 3. Sample Reading Activities from Control Group Curriculum

Pre-reading	Discussion: What are your usual sleeping habits? Why do you think people have trouble sleeping?
	Vocabulary: Matching the words with their definitions.
While-reading	Reading skills: **Skimming** is reading very quickly to identify the main ideas of an essay, article, or other reading. When readers skim, they try to understand only the most important ideas. They do not ty to understand every detail. **Use this step to skim reading:** **Read the title.** The title of a reading often gives the main idea. **Read the first paragraph**. An essay or article has an introduction – usually the first paragraph. Often, one sentence in the introduction gives the main idea. **Read the first sentences of the body, or middle paragraphs.** The first sentence of each body paragraph gives the main idea of that paragraph. **Read the last paragraph**. Usually the last paragraph is the conclusion. The conclusion usually includes one sentence that restates the main idea.
	Comprehension questions: A. Skim the reading "divided sleep". Then answer the question. 1. What is the main point of the reading? a. The amounts of sleep time b. The practice of divided sleep c. The problems of sleeping B. Which paragraph discuss these main ideas? ____What people did before they had electricity. ____The conclusion that divided sleep is a natural way to sleep. ____What one study tells us about divided sleep. ____What happened during second sleep. ____What happened between sleep periods.

	C. Read each question and circle the best answer. 1.What is the main idea of the reading? a. People in the past did not sleep as well as people today. b. People in the past divided their sleep into two parts. c. People in the past woke up and relaxed during the night. d. People in the past fell asleep easily because of hard work. 2.What is the main purpose of paragraphs 2-4? a. To explain what happens in a night of divided sleep. b. To give an opinion about the divided sleep pattern. c. To describe the life of farmers before the 18th century. d. To explain the lives of writers and artists before the 18th century. 3.What conclusion does the writer make about divide sleep? a. It is one type of sleeping problem. b. It may help people handle daily stress. c. It is not the best sleep pattern for everyone. d. It is a common practice in modern times.
Post-reading	**Discussion Questions:** The reading says that a continues night of sleep is not a natural way to sleep. Do you believe that? Explain. Do you sometimes experience insomnia, or sleeplessness? Explain.

3.4.2. The Experimental Group's Reading Curriculum

The experimental group's reading curriculum is designed based on the principles of concept-based instruction. The first principle involves choosing the most general scientific concept related to the subject domain. By focusing on the most general concept, concept-based instruction aims to help students to gain skills and knowledge to solve a large number of problems and look at their experiences from a perspective that is peculiar to that subject domain. The scientific concept chosen by the researcher for the experimental curriculum was "communication" as formulated by Mikhael Bakhtin (See the next section for the Bakhtinian communication model). The Bakhtinian communication model was not given to the students directly by the teacher. The students discovered it by engaging in specially designed tasks which required them to see their usual methods are insufficient to solve some comprehension problems. The tasks also encouraged the students to seek new methods to solve the problems. The students were asked to model their newly found method in a visual form. They recorded their discovery as a diagram or scheme to be

revised several times in the following classes. These models are called the OBA (Orienting Basis of an Action) throughout the thesis and they became the instrument of students' reflection on the concept under study. The texts are specially chosen based on the characteristics of a Bakhtinian communication model. The table below presents the texts in the experimental curriculum.

Table 3. 4. The Experimental Group's Curriculum

Units and Themes	Weeks	Texts	Target characteristics of the Bakhtinian communication model
OBA 1	1		Students' concepts of communication prior to the instruction period
OBA 2	1	The schema text 1 The schema text 2 The schema picture	First task to disrupt the students' concepts of communication- Dialogism- readers are active during reading
Unit 1: Young People Staying with Parents	2	1. Europe's Young Adults Living with Parents	Dialogism- texts are written in response to each other
	3	2. Yaşları 18-30 Arasında Meslekleri ve Paraları Var Ama Hálá Aileleriyle Yaşıyorlar	Dialogism
	3	3. Koca Bebek Sendromu Yaşıyor Musunuz?	Dialogism
	3	4. Staying at Home with Momma? *	Dialogism
Unit 2: Sleep	4	1. Divided Sleep*	Evaluation – writers expects a certain action from readers
	5	2. What Is Divided Sleep and Is It Healthy?	Evaluation & dialogism
	6	3. At Day's Close: Night in Times Past	Evaluation & dialogism
	6	4. Your Top 9 Reasons Why You Can't Sleep	Evaluation & dialogism
Unit 3: Right Brain Left Brain	7	1. 14 Books Every Left-Brain Person Should Read This Summer	
	8	3.Left-Brained Vs. Right-Brained People Is a Total Myth, Says Science	Evaluation &Dialogism
	9	4. The Right-Brain and Left-Brain Controversy*	
OBA 3	10		Revision of OBA2 to include Evaluation &Dialogism
Unit 4: Clothing	11	1.Necktie*	Unfinazability &Dialogism
	12	2. Five Reasons You Should Wear a Tie	Unfinazability &Dialogism

	13	3. Eat My Fur Coat Eat! By Nasreddin Hoca	Unfinazability - ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions
	13	4. The Jay and The Peacock by Aesop	Unfinazability &Dialogism
	14	5. A Brief History of Necktie In Turkey.	Unfinazability &Dialogism
	15	6.Bir Papyon Severin Kravat Ağıtı By Doğan Hızlan	Unfinazability -ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts
	15	7. Medeniyet Yuları By Orhan Kemal	Unfinazability &Dialogism
OBA 4	16		Revision of the OBA3 to include unfinazability Students' concepts of communication after the instruction period

In this table *shows the common texts in experimental and control group's curriculum.

The texts in each unit in the experimental curriculum are connected to each other. For example, the text titled "Europe's Young Adults Living with Parents" in unit 1 is a news article reporting about on a research done by OECD. The other texts in unit 1 are the responses of several authors from Europe and Turkey after the report was published. Similarly, the text titled "At Day's Close: Night in Times Past" in unit 2 is a book review. The book reviewed in the text started a discussion about the practice of divided sleep. The other texts in unit 2 focus on this discussion. All texts in the other units are all connected to each other. Some Turkish texts are included in the curriculum to highlight the fact that the Turkish texts read by students also affect their meaning making.

3.4.2.1. Bakhtin's Concept of Communication

Bakhtin makes a distinction between primary genres and secondary genres (Bakhtin, 1986: 62). Primary genres refer to the conventionalized forms of everyday dialogues between two or more people. They are mostly comprised of face to face communication. Secondary genres, on the other hand, consist of scientific texts, law texts, novels, fables, short stories and they are highly developed, organized and primarily written communications. They involve communication at a society level (cultural). Secondary

genres arise out of primary genres. Although they seem quite different at a first glance, they share several common features. These features are dialogism, evaluation, and unfinalizability. These common features manifest themselves differently in primary and secondary genres because secondary genres "lose their immediate relation to the actual reality and to the utterances of others" (1986:62).

The first feature of actual language use is its dialogism. Everyday conversation is composed of rejoinders uttered by different speakers. Both participants take turns and the speaker ends her turn to get a response from her communication partner (Bakhtin, 1986: 71). The listener becomes the speaker and expresses her individual response, her point of view by taking what has been said into consideration. She may agree, object or augment what has been said. Sometimes the response may involve execution of an action or a delayed response. But, "Sooner or later what is heard and actively understood will find its response in the subsequent speech or behavior of the listener (Bakthin,1986: 70). The communication via secondary genres also involves turn taking and "the novel as a whole is an utterance just as rejoinders in everyday dialogue or private letters are" (Bakhtin, 1986: 62). However, the turn taking is not immediate in secondary genres and therefore less visible. According to Bakhtin, if two texts "converge on the same subject or idea", they inevitably become rejoinders even if they are produced by writers who do not know each other, or they live in different place and time (1986:114). For example, the theme "jealousy" has been handled in many novels, short stories, songs, folktales and scientific texts throughout history since antiquity. All these texts describe what jealousy is from a certain perspective. Communication of certain perspectives on a topic is fulfilled in society or culture through the secondary genres. This social communication has rejoinders in the form of texts produced by different authors. In this ongoing social level communication, previous texts shape the current and future texts. After all, the writer or "is not the biblical Adam, dealing only with virgin and still unnamed objects, giving them names for the first time" (Bakhtin 1986: 93). The subject of the text has already been written about, discussed by people who have different points of view. To determine the writer's individual interpretation of the subject matter and to "distinguish this work from

other works connected with it in the overall processes of speech communication in that particular cultural sphere" (Bakhtin, 1986: 75), the reader needs to be aware of the dialogic and social nature of texts. Without this awareness, all the reader can have is a fragmented understanding of the reality. It is obviously impossible for the reader to know and read everything that has been said about the topic of text, but it is equally obvious that treating text as something isolate and something without a social history impoverishes the readers' understanding and sense making. More importantly, such an approach to texts also prevents the reader to be a participant in the ongoing communication at a social level. Since this ongoing dialogue between texts is relatively less visible in secondary genres, students may think that texts are not connected to each other. It is almost invisible if the students are asked to read texts which are connected to each other in no way.

Another aspect of actual language use is the presence of an evaluative attitude toward the utterance (Bakhtin, 1986:84). In everyday conversation, we use generic utterances to express our evaluation of the topic of our conversation. These include the utterances such as "excellent!", "Good for you!", "Shame!". An evaluative attitude can also be expressed via intonation, gestures along with linguistic sources in everyday genres and it is easy for the listener to understand it (Bakhtin, 1986:85). In the case of the secondary genres, evaluation is present but less visible compared to primary genres. Secondary genres such as novels, law texts, scientific texts, fables (fiction or non-fiction) too make "a claim to justice, sincerity, beauty, and truthfulness (a model utterance), and so forth. And these values of utterances are defined not by their relation to the language (as a purely linguistic system), but by various forms of relation to reality, to the speaking subject and to other (alien) utterances (particularly to those that evaluate them as sincere, beautiful, and so forth)" (Bakhtin, 1986: 123). To determine the unique evaluative attitude of the writer and to form a response with an evaluative attitude toward the subject of the text and writer's interpretation of the subject, the reader needs to look at other (alien) texts on the same topic. After all, the text itself is a link in the chain of communication (dialogue) in cultural sphere. Through her text, a writer does not only express her attitude toward the subject of the text but also her attitude towards other writers' attitudes

expressed in other texts (Bakhtin, 1986: 92, 94). By looking at the text as something self-sufficient, the reader cannot be an active participant of communication that is going on at cultural level. All the reader can gain is to learn about a particular writer's point of view on the subject.

The final feature of actual language use is unfinalizability. Unfinalizability refers to primacy of context over linguistic categories such as words, sentences, texts in meaning making and understanding. Regarding the relationship between language and context, Bakhtin states following words: "A context is potentially unfinalized; a code must be finalized. A code is only a technical means of transmitting information; it does not have cognitive, creative significance. A code is a deliberately established, killed context" (1986:147). In these words, Bakhtin draws a distinction between two types of meaning: "meaning" and "sense". The distinction between meaning and sense is mentioned in Vygotksy's work too. He relates a passage from Dostoyevsky's "The Diary of a Writer" to explain their difference (Vygotsky, 1987a: 271). Meaning of a word or a sentence refers to its abstract or dictionary meaning and Bakthin used the word "znachenie" in Russian to refer to this abstract type of meaning. For the second type of meaning he used the Russian word "smysl" and it was translated as "sense" into English. He uses it to refer to the contextual meaning of words and sentences in actual communication situations. Bakhtin observed that abstract meaning is "pure potential" to mean and this potential is used by particular people for a particular purpose in a particular place and time on a particular occasion to express their individual meanings (Bakthin,1986; Halliday, 2013).

The sentence "I am tired" has a linguistic meaning which can be constructed by using dictionary meaning of linguistic elements. However, it can have many senses depending on the context of its use. In one conversation a person says, "would you like to go to the cinema with me". The other one says, "I am tired". Here the sentence "I am tired" can also mean "I do not want to go to the cinema with you". However, the speaker does not utter these words directly, she implies it. In another conversation context, one person says, "I am tired" in the middle of a heated argument and means that she does not want to

go on arguing. We can form many dialogues exemplifying the different senses of the sentence "I am tired." As these examples demonstrates, Bakhtin draws attention to this "pure potential of language" resources and how contextual factors play a role in language use. He also draws attention to the fact how we can create many meanings using our abstract linguistic knowledge. These ideas are not peculiar to Bakhtin. These features of language are studied and demonstrated in the subfields of linguistics such as pragmatics, semantics, ethnography of communication and conversation analysis. These subfields of linguistics mainly study the contextualization of abstract linguistic knowledge and how it is utilized in actual language use. The unique contribution of Bakhtinian language philosophy is the contextualization of language use at a societal and historical level. The contextualization proposed by pragmatics mainly deals with everyday face to face conversations. The written communication is the place where Bakhtin makes a unique contribution. According to Bakhtin, all texts are a link in a social dialogue with a rich history and future. It is a response to previous texts and expects a response from future texts. He also argued that texts do not have a fixed meaning, the writers of great works put potential meanings that can be revealed in the future when the time is right, and meanings found in texts grow overtime (1986: 5). For example, works of Shakespeare like other great works have a richer "posthumous life" than the time they were written (1986: 4). This would be impossible if the meanings in these works were fixed. These great works also make use of the cultural resources accumulated over history in the form of genres, plots and ideas (1986: 5). They are rejoinders or links in a social communication with a history and a future. In this ongoing social communication, the reader is not a passive participant. The reader, through her understanding and making use of her unique point of view and experiences, "continues creativity, and multiplies the artistic wealth of humanity" (Bakhtin, 1986: 142). The act of reading brings the reader and the writer with their own history together to reveal hidden potential meanings possessed by neither of them at the outset. For Bakhtin, there are three types of reading and understanding. In the first type, the reader identifies the meanings the text's writers intended for the readers who lived in the same culture and time as the writer. But this encloses the text within the time

and context the text was written therefore it "makes it impossible to understand the work's future life in subsequent centuries" (1986:4). In the second type of reading, the reader brings whatever meanings that she wants into the text. This distorts the work and undermines the unique contribution of the writer as the first reading type reduces the reader's contribution to zero. In the third type of reading, the reader is aware of her outsideness involving her own culture's and time's experiences. The reader does not only try to understand the text's original context but also makes use of her own context. This third type of understanding is called "creative understanding" or "dialogic understanding" by Bakhtin and it "does not renounce itself, its own place in time, its own culture; and it forgets nothing. In order to understand, it is immensely important for the person who understands to be located outside the object of his or her creative understanding—in time, in space, in culture" (Bakhtin, 1986:7).

All these concepts pertaining to features of contextual language use in actual communicative situations involving both written and spoken are used to explain a dialogic communication model by Bakhtin. This model acknowledges that an instance of a discourse is defined and shaped by both past discourses which it responds and the future anticipated responses. The dialogic conceptualization of communication is formulated by Bakhtin to demonstrate the misrepresentation of the social nature of communication in monologic or linear models of communication which treat instances of discourse as self-sufficient and independent. In linear or monologic models of communication, the active part is the speaker or the writer. The reader's only role is to replicate the speaker's ideas in her mind. In the linear communication models, the writer too is misrepresented. She is presented as if the ideas are created by her for the first time (like the Biblical Adam). The communication that has been going on in the social sphere throughout the history and its effects on the present and future discourses is not taken into consideration. As Bakhtin emphasizes in his dialogic communication model, there is always an ongoing cultural dialogue on certain topics such as truth, love, justice, beauty, goodness in novels, poems and scientific texts. The existence of this ongoing dialogue can be best seen in scientific life. As Bakhtin states "…not one scientific trend has remained in its initial and immutable

form. There has not been a single scientific age when only one trend existed (but there has almost always been one dominant trend). This is not a question of mere eclecticism: the merging of all trends into one and only one would be fatal to science" (Bakhtin, 1986: 136).

Corresponding these two conceptualizations of communication, Bakhtin makes a distinction between passive understanding and active or dialogic understanding. The passive understanding involves conceptualization of a reader who just passively replicates the semantic content in the text like a mirror. The active understanding on the other hand involves conceptualizing reading as a communicative act and the text reader as a communication participant at the cultural level. It also involves conceptualizing the reader as someone who has an individual evaluative response to the text and the topic of the text. At this point it is essential to note that exercising individuality in creating a response to texts requires an awareness of the degree to which a person is externally or culturally determined (Bakhtin, 1986: 139). To explain this point, I want to relate a conversation between me and my 5-year-old daughter. One day she used a terribly profane language, a swear word. I was shocked and asked who she heard it from. I was sure that neither I nor my husband used such a word when she was present. She said she invented it. I was shocked twice by her response. I explained her that it was impossible for her to invent it and asked insistently who she heard it from. She did not tell me who, but I suspected that either she forget who told her that word or that she heard it from someone she appreciated. As this incident illustrates, as humans we appropriate the language used by others. We adopt others' speech styles, perspectives and evaluations related to an external reality (Bakhtin, 1986: 88-89). Similarly, written texts are not products of individual writers who invent everything in their texts. When looked from the point of readers, without being aware of these facts in written genres they cannot participate in this dialog actively. They can only be a passive spectator.

3.5. Participants of the Study

Learners attending the preparatory English classes in a state university in Konya formed the participants. All students in the classes were randomly assigned to classes of 35 students as a common policy of the institution. For this study one class was randomly selected for the implementation of concept-based instruction. Another class was randomly selected as the control group. The experimental group's concept-based instruction was delivered by the researcher while control group was taught by a volunteer teacher. Table 3.5 shows the distribution of the participants in the study.

Table 3. 5. The Participants of The Study

Gender	Experimental group	Control group	Total
Male	23	25	48
Female	9	6	15
Total	32	31	63

3.6. Data Collection Instruments

The study has a pre and posttest quasi-experimental design with two groups. The instruments that were implemented as pre and post tests were "The Reflection Questionnaire", "Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)", "Tasks for the assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)". All these three instruments were implemented both with control and experimental group students and they provided the quantitative data of the study. All these three data instruments are explained in the following section.

3.6.1. The Reflection Questionnaire

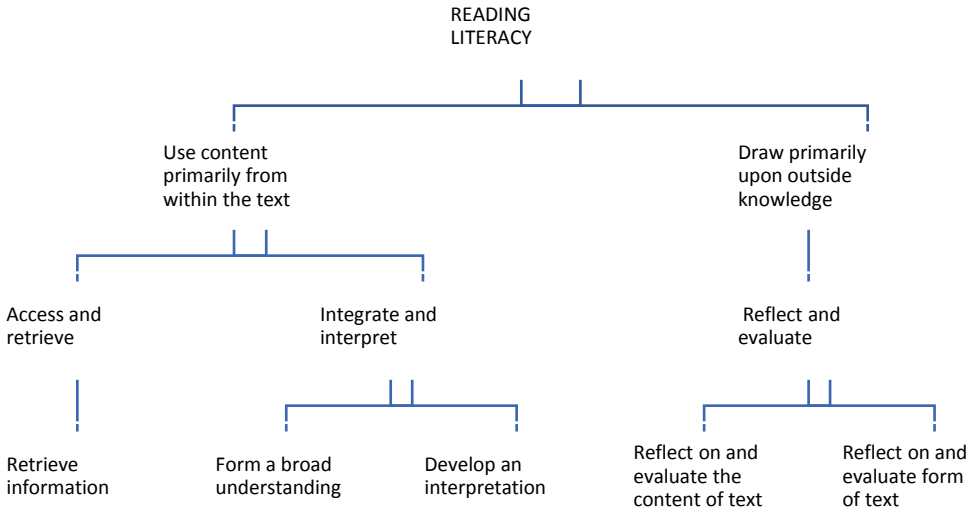
Both experimental and control group completed the Reflection Questionnaire (RQ) before and after the treatment. The scale was developed and validated by Kember and his

associates (Kember, & Leung, et al. 2000) to assess students' reflective thinking skills in learning environments. The scale has 16 items with 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 Definitely Agree, 4 Agree with reservation, 3 only to be used if a Definite answer is not possible, 2 Disagree with reservation, to 1 Definitely disagree. It has four sub-scales: Habitual Action, Understanding, Reflection, and Critical Reflection. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients for the subscales ranged between .62-.76. A confirmatory factor analysis affirmed the four-factor model for reflective thinking (Kember, & Leung, et al. 2000: 387, 389). The RQ was adapted to Turkish and its validity and reliability was investigated by Başol and Gencel in a Turkish University setting (Başol & Gencel, 2013). Therefore, the Turkish version of the RQ was completed by the students. The scale is very short and takes about 5 minutes to complete.

3.6.2. Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)

Both groups completed the TATRS before and after the instruction period. It has 3 texts and 20 comprehension questions. To construct the TATRS, core reading skills were determined based on PISA 2015 Assessment and Analytical Framework (OECD, 2016b) and the test items were specially written for this study by following the directions and sample questions provided by OECD (OECD, 2016b). According to the PISA 2015 Assessment and Analytical Framework, there are 5 aspects of reading. These aspects are (1) retrieving information (2) forming a broad understanding (3) developing an interpretation (4) reflecting on and evaluating the content of a text (5) reflecting on and evaluating the form of a text (OECD, 2016b:55).

Figure 3. 1. Aspects of Reading in the PISA 2015 Assessment and Analytical Framework



(OECD,2016b:54)

These five aspects are grouped into 3 main categories: (1) access and retrieve, (2) integrate and interpret (3) reflect and evaluate (OECD,2016b:55). Based on the first and second aspects of reading, a pool of items were written by the researcher. Among 60 items, 27 items were selected through opinions of two expert English language teachers.

After the items were selected, the TATRS was administered with 117 preparatory English students from another public university in Konya at the time of the study. Seven items were omitted for a satisfactory reliability value. The final version of the TATRS consisted of 20 items. After the omission of the problematic items, the Cronbach Alpha Value was .82, which indicates a desirable level of reliability.

Table 3. 6. Table of Specifications for TATRS and TARRS

Aspects of Reading		Items in the TATRS
Access and Retrieve	Finding the specific information stated in the text	21,18,16,11
	Understanding refences	3,4,5
	Understanding Connectors	15,23
	Separating fact from opinion	6,7,8
Integrate and Interpret	Finding the main idea	22, 19,13,1
	Making inferences	12,14
	Putting together information from different parts of the text to interpret	2,20
Reflect and Evaluate *	Reflect on and evaluate the content of the text	9, 17,24
	Reflect on and evaluate the form of the text	10

*The aspect of "Reflect and Evaluate" is assessed in TARRS

3.6.3. Tasks for the assessment of the Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)

TARRS consists 4 tasks and the tasks were designed based on the aspects of reflect and evaluate in PISA 2015 Assessment and Analytical Framework (OECD, 2016b). In TARRS, students were asked to reflect on and evaluate the content and the form of the texts in TATRS by going beyond the text and by drawing upon outside knowledge. The tasks were designed by the researcher following the examples in PISA reading tasks and were shown to two expert English teachers for correction. After making some corrections, the items were administered with 10 English preparatory students. Based on these students' responses, the items were corrected. The item numbers for TARRS are 9,10,

17,24. Their final version was administered with both the experimental and control group students before and after the treatment.

A scoring rubric was created based on the responses gathered during the pretest. The rubric has 3 types of points to be awarded for the student responses (0: Missing, 1: Partial Score, 2: Full Score). The researcher scored the student responses. To determine the interrater reliability of the scores, all the students' responses in the posttest were scored by the researcher and an expert English teacher. Interrater reliability of the scores was computed via Kendall's tau c on SPSS (Rovai, Baker & Ponton, 2014). The results indicated that the scores given by the researcher and the expert English teacher were consistent at a satisfactory level for all open-ended questions.

Table 3. 7. Interrater Reliability Statistics for Open-ended Questions

Question	Kendall's tau c	Significance
Q.9	.818	.000
Q.10	.756	.000
Q.17	.710	.000
Q.24	.753	.000

3.7. Data Analysis Procedures

The data from TATRS and TARRS were analyzed employing descriptive and inferential statistics. As a first step, students composite scores from TATRS and TARRS were calculated for pre and posttests. Independent samples t-tests were computed using the scores. Group differences with regard to reading skills were determined based on data from TATRS, while group differences with regard to reflective reading was determined based on data from TARRS.

The data from the Reflection Questionnaire was also analyzed employing descriptive and inferential statistics. To demonstrate the difference between experimental group and control group with regard to reflective thinking skills, independent samples t-tests were computed on data from the Reflection Questionnaire administered before and after the treatment. First, composite scores for sub-dimensions of the Reflection Questionnaire was calculated for pre and posttests. Next, each subscale scores of control and experimental groups were compared by computing independent samples t-test.

CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS

This chapter presents the statistical procedures and the statistical results related to the research questions of the thesis. First, data from the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS) is analyzed via independent samples t-test. Second, the data from the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS) is analyzed via independent samples t-test. Next, data from the reflection questionnaire is analyzed via independent samples t-test. Each subscale of the reflection questionnaire (the RQ) is subjected to the statistical procedure. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary of the findings.

4.1. The Impact of Concept-Based Reading Instruction on Language Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills

4.1.1. Research Sub-Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)?

This research question aims to determine the impact of concept-based instruction on the students' reading comprehension skills. To compare the mean scores of the groups, the independent samples t-tests were used. Before the execution of the t-tests, the data from the TATRS was explored if the data was normally distributed.

Table 4. 1. Tests of Normality for the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)

Time of implementation	Groups	N	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Significance
PRE-TATRS	Experimental	32	.982	32	.864
	Control	31	.971	31	.552
POST- TATRS	Experimental	32	.961	32	.288
	Control	31	.965	31	.392

The experimental group's scores in the pretest S-W (32) = .982, p= .864; and the control group's scores the pretest S-W (31) = .971, p= .552 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Similarly, the experimental group's scores in the posttest S-W (32) = .961, p=.288 and the control group's scores in the posttest S-W (31) = 965, p= .392 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Based on these results, parametric independent samples t-test were computed to determine the group differences in terms of reading scores.

Table 4. 2. Independent Samples T-Tests for the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)

Time of Application	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	T_{61} value	p.
Pre-Test	Experimental	32	10.93	3.70	.06	.080	.936
Pre- Test	Control	31	10.87	2.78			
Post-Test	Experimental	32	14.09	2.94	.64	.953	.345
Post-Test	Control	31	13.45	2.36			

The students in experimental and control group did not perform differently on the TATRS in the pretest stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M=10.93) and the control group's mean score (M=10.87) did not differ at a statically significant level t (61) = .080, p= .936. Similarly, both groups did not perform differently on TATRS in the post-test stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M= 14.09) and the control group's mean score (M = 13.45) did not differ at a statistically significant level t (61) = .953, p= .345.

4.1.2. Research Sub-Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)?

Table 4. 3. Tests of Normality for the Tasks for the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)

Time of Application	Groups	N	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Significance
PRE-TARRS	Experimental	32	.942	32	.088
	Control	31	.940	31	.080
POST- TARRS	Experimental	32	.965	32	.363
	Control	31	.969	31	.488

The experimental group's scores in the pretest S-W (32) = .942, p= .088; and the control group's scores the pretest S-W (31) = .940, p= .080 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Similarly, the experimental group's scores in the posttest S-W (32) = .965, p=.363 and the control group's scores in the posttest S-W (31) = 969, p= .488 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Based on these results, parametric independent samples t-test was computed to determine the group differences in terms of reflective reading scores.

Table 4. 4. Independent Samples T-Tests for the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)

Time of Application	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	T_{61} value	p.
Pre- TARRS	Experimental	32	2.40	1.64	0.40	-1.004	.319
Pre- TARRS	Control	31	2.80	1.51			
Post- TARRS	Experimental	32	4.90	1.80	1.06	2.187	.033
Post- TARRS	Control	31	3.83	2.06			

The students in experimental and control group did not perform differently on the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills in the pretest stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M=2.40) and the control group's mean score (M=2.80) did not differ at a statistically significant level t (61) = -1.004, p= .319. However, the two groups performed differently on the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills in the post-test stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M= 4.90) and the control group's mean score (M = 3.83) differed at a statistically significant level t (61) = 2.187, p= .33. In other words, the experimental group scored higher on the TARRS in the posttest stage than the control group at a statistically significant level.

4.2. The Impact of Concept-Based Reading Instruction on Language Learners' Reflective Thinking Skills

4.2.1. Research Sub-Question 3

Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Habitual Action" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

Table 4. 5. Tests of Normality for the "Habitual Action" (HA) subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

Time of implementation	Groups	N	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Significance
PRE-HA	Experimental	32	.946	32	.112
	Control	31	.948	31	.140
POST- HA	Experimental	32	.956	32	.216
	Control	31	.956	31	.232

The experimental group's scores in the pretest S-W (32) = .946, p= .112; and the control group's scores in the pretest S-W (31) = .948, p= .140 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Similarly, the experimental group's scores in the posttest S-W (32) = .956, p=.216 and the control group's scores in the posttest S-W (31) = .956, p= .232 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Based on these results, parametric independent samples t-test were computed to determine the group differences in terms of "Habitual Action" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

Table 4. 6. Independent Samples T- Tests for the "Habitual Action" (HA) Subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of application	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	T_{61} value	p.
Pre-HA	Experimental	32	13.53	2.66	.37	-.513	.610
Pre- HA	Control	31	13.90	3.08			
Post-HA	Experimental	32	11.43	2.68	2.07	-2.882	.005
Post-HA	Control	31	13.51	3.03			

The students in experimental and control group did not perform differently on the Habitual Action subscale of the RQ in the pretest stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M=13.53) and the control group's mean score (M=13.90) did not differ at a statistically significant level, t (61) = -.513, p= .610. However, the two groups performed differently on the Habitual Action subscale of the RQ in the post-test stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M= 11.43) and the control group's mean score (M = 13.51) differed at a statistically significant level t (61) = -2.882, p= .005. In other words, the control group scored higher on the HA in the posttest stage than the experimental group at a statistically significant level.

4.2.2. The Research Sub-Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Understanding" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

Table 4. 7. Tests of Normality for the "Understanding" (U) subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of implementation	Groups	N	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Significance
PRE-U	Experimental	32	.959	32	.254
	Control	31	.900	31	.007
POST- U	Experimental	32	.958	32	.239
	Control	31	.902	31	.008

The experimental group's scores in the pretest S-W (32) = .959, p= .254; and its scores in the posttest S-W (32) = .958, p= .259 did not deviate significantly from normal

distribution. However, the control group's scores in the pretest S-W (31) = .900, p=.007 and its scores in the posttest S-W (31) = .902, p= .008 deviated significantly from normal distribution. Based on these results, the Mann-Whitney U test as a non-parametric equivalent of the independent samples t-test was computed to determine the group differences in terms of "Understanding" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

Table 4. 8. Mann-Whitney U tests for the "Understanding" (U) subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of Application	Groups	N	Median	Mann-Whitney U	Significance
PRE-U	Experimental	32	14	580.500	.240
PRE-U	Control	31	16		
POST-U	Experimental	32	14	563.500	.348
POST-U	Control	31	16		

The experimental group (Mdn =14) did not differ significantly from the control group (Mdn=16) in the Understanding subscale of RQ in the pre-test stage, U=580.500, p= .240. Similarly, the experimental group (Mdn =14) did not differ significantly from the control group (Mdn=16) in the Understanding subscale of RQ in the post-test stage, U=563.500, p= .348.

4.2.3. The Research Sub-Question 5

Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

Table 4. 9. Tests of Normality for the "Reflection" (REF) subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of implementation	Groups	N	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Significance
PRE-REF	Experimental	32	.945	32	.107
	Control	31	.958	31	.253
POST- REF	Experimental	32	.956	32	.218
	Control	31	.973	31	.613

The experimental group's scores in the pretest S-W (32) = .945, p= .107; and the control group's scores in the pretest S-W (31) = .958, p= .253 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Similarly, the experimental group's scores in the posttest S-W (32) = .956, p=.218 and the control group's scores in the posttest S-W (31)= .973, p= .613 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Based on these results, parametric independent samples t-test were computed to determine

Table 4. 10. Independent Samples T- Tests for the "Reflection" (REF) Subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of application	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	T_{61} value	p.
Pre-REF	Experimental	32	13.34	2.13	.55	-1,101	.275
Pre- REF	Control	31	13.90	1.88			
Post-REF	Experimental	32	15.62	2.51	1.27	2,079	.042
Post-REF	Control	31	14.35	2.33			

The students in experimental and control group did not perform differently on the "Reflection" subscale of the RQ in the pretest stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M=13.34) and the control group's mean score (M=13.90) did not differ at a statistically significant level t (61) = -1.101, p= .275. However, the two groups performed differently on the "Reflection" subscale of the RQ in the post-test stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M= 15.62) and the control group's mean score (M = 14.35) differed at a statistically significant level t (61) = 2.079, p= .042. In other words, the experimental group scored higher on the REF in the posttest stage than the control group at a statistically significant level.

4.2.4. The Research Sub-Question 6

Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental group's and the control group's scores from the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire?

Table 4. 11. Tests of Normality for the "Critical Reflection" (CREF) Subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of implementation	Groups	N	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Significance
PRE-CREF	Experimental	32	.970	32	.489
	Control	31	.945	31	.112
POST- CREF	Experimental	32	.973	32	.574
	Control	31	.949	31	.150

The experimental group's scores in the pretest S-W (32) = .970, p= .489; and the control group's scores in the pretest S-W (31) = .945, p= .112 did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Similarly, the experimental group's scores in the posttest S-W (32) = .973, p=.574 and the control group's scores in the posttest S-W (31) = 949, p= .150

did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. Based on these results, parametric independent samples t-test were computed to determine the group differences in terms of "Critical Reflection" subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire.

Table 4. 12. Independent Samples T- Tests for the "Critical Reflection" (CREF) Subscale of the Reflection Questionnaire

Time of application	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	T_{61} value	p.
Pre-CREF	Experimental	32	9.56	2.85	.20	.263	.793
Pre- CREF	Control	31	9.35	3.40			
Post-CREF	Experimental	32	11.90	3.22	1.84	2.038	.046
Post-CREF	Control	31	10.06	3.92			

The students in experimental and control group did not perform differently on the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the RQ in the pretest stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M=9.56) and the control group's mean score (M=9.35) did not differ at a statistically significant level t (61) = .263, p= .793. However, the two groups performed differently on the "Critical Reflection" subscale of the RQ in the post-test stage because the difference between experimental group's mean score (M= 11.90) and the control group's mean score (M = 10.06) differed at a statistically significant level t (61) = 2.038, p= .046. In other words, the experimental group scored higher on the CREF in the posttest stage than the control group at a statistically significant level.

4.3. Summary of the Findings

The quantitative data from the three instruments were analyzed in the previous section of this chapter using inferential statistics. In terms of target reading skills, two groups were not significantly different as the results of the independent samples t-test executed with data from The Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills

(TATRS). However, in terms of reflective reading skills, experimental group was significantly better than the control group as the results of the independent samples t-test executed with data from The Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS). The data from the reflection Questionnaire was first analyzed by calculating the students' individual composite scores for each subscale. Then two groups were compared in terms of each subscale by executing 4 independent samples-t tests. In terms of Habitual Action, the experimental group scored lower than the control group in the post test at a statistically significant level. In terms of Understanding, there was not a statistically significant difference in the post test scores of the experimental and the control groups. In terms of Reflection and Critical Reflection, there was a statistically significant difference between the groups in favor of the experimental group. The following table presents the results of the data analysis.

Table 4. 13. Summary of the Research Findings

Research Question	Data Source	Data Instrument	Data Analysis	Findings
Reading Skills	Experimental Group & Control Group	The Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills (TATRS)	Parametric Independent Samples T-Test	No difference in the post test scores of experimental and control groups
Reflective Reading Skills	Experimental Group & Control Group	The Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills (TARRS)	Parametric Independent Samples T-Test	Experimental group scored higher than the control group in the post test.
Habitual Action	Experimental Group & Control Group	The Reflection Questionnaire (The RQ)	Parametric Independent Samples T-Test	Experimental group scored lower than the control group in the post test.
Understanding	Experimental Group & Control Group	The Reflection Questionnaire (The RQ)	Non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test	No difference in the post test scores of experimental and control groups.
Reflection	Experimental Group & Control Group	The Reflection Questionnaire (The RQ)	Parametric Independent Samples T-Test	Experimental group scored higher than the control group in the post test.
Critical Reflection	Experimental Group & Control Group	The Reflection Questionnaire (The RQ)	Parametric Independent Samples T-Test	Experimental group scored higher than the control group in the post test.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents the discussions on the results of the study organized in two sections. Each section addresses one of the study's main research themes: reading comprehension and reflective thinking. The first section presents a brief summary of the results obtained in the study. The next section presents the implications of the study for classroom practice. The chapter ends with the limitations of the study and implications for further research.

5.1. Reading Comprehension Skills

The study has a pre and posttest design with two groups: the control group and the experimental group. During the instruction phase, the control group students read about 16 texts, answered comprehension questions and did vocabulary exercises. They also received instruction on reading skills such as skimming, scanning, making inferences, separating fact from opinion and understanding connectors. The skills instruction involved the explanation of the skills, modelling the skills by the teacher and application of them by students in a new text. Additionally, the students engaged in group discussions before and after reading the texts. Before and after reading discussions was held for two main reasons. First reason deals with the nature of the reading process. As cognitive theories of reading emphasize, reading is an interactive process during which readers integrate their previous knowledge with the knowledge presented in the texts for successful comprehension (Binkley and Linnakylä, 1997; Bruner, 1990; Dole et al., 1991). Therefore, before reading discussions were held to give students a chance to activate and use their previous knowledge during reading. After reading discussions were held to encourage students to integrate the information presented in the texts with their own experiences and lives. The second reason for the inclusion of before and after reading discussions deals with language practice. By engaging in small group discussions, students were able to practice their speaking and vocabulary skills (Richards, 2006). As it can be seen, the classes of the control group included both teacher centered, and group centered activities.

The experimental group, on the other hand, received a reading instruction which was designed based on the principles of concept-based instruction as suggested by Davydov (1990). In line with the principles of concept-based instruction, experimental group's curriculum was shaped by using a concept with the broadest scope. The chosen concept was "communication" as formulated by Bakhtin (1986). The experimental students read equal number of texts, answered comprehension questions and vocabulary exercises just like the control group students. One difference between the two groups was that experimental group students engaged in group work activities during which students reflected on the core concept of communication several times during the instruction process. During the reflection sessions, the students depicted their current understanding of the core concept in visual form and arrived at a class consensus regarding the best depiction. They revised the core concept as new reading tasks were introduced. The students did not receive any explicit explanation on the core concept and its properties. However, the reading texts included in their curriculum were chosen and arranged in a way to reveal the essential properties of written communication to the students. For example, the reading curriculum designed for the experimental group included at least 4 texts on a specific topic written by different writers. Additionally, some texts included were written in response each other by different writers. This was done to make the dialogic nature of written communication (as formulated by Bakhtin) more salient for the students in the experimental group. The texts of the control group were directly taken from a very popular coursebook by a prestigious American publisher. The texts are not connected to each other in terms of topic or were not written in response to each other. In short, the students read text after text to practice their reading skills.

One of the main purposes of this study was to find out the impact of concept-based reading instruction on language learners' reading comprehension skills. In line with this purpose, both groups took a reading achievement test (the Tasks for the Assessment of the Target Reading Skills -TATRS). The test included questions which involved finding specific information from the text, making inferences, finding the main idea, separating fact from opinion, and forming an interpretation by putting together information from

different parts of the text. The results of the TATRS indicated that the experimental and control group's performances were not different at a statistically significant level. This means that both groups were equal in terms of finding specific information from the text, making inferences, finding the main idea, separating fact from opinion, and forming an interpretation by putting together information from different parts of the text.

The study has another instrument to evaluate the students reading skills. This instrument (the Tasks for Reflective Reading Skills -TARRS) included open ended questions and asked students to reflect and evaluate the content and the form of the texts included in the instrument. Both groups answered these questions before and after their respective instruction phase. The results of the TARRS demonstrated that experimental group performed better than the control group at a statistically significant level. In other words, experimental group students reflected and evaluated the content and the form of texts better than the control group students. This finding deserves more explanation because the control group students too had the chance to reflect on the content of the texts they read during the instruction phase. Before and after reading every text, they were given several questions to discuss in small groups. These questions were similar to the ones asked in the TARRS. However, the questions asking for the same type of responses in the TARRS could not be answered by control group students as well as the experimental group students. This finding indicates that the students did not seem to apricate the importance of this aspect of reading classes. They might have thought that before-and after-reading discussions could not make a vital contribution to their reading skills. Moreover, they might have thought that answering the comprehension questions successfully was enough to improve their reading skills (Bean, 2000). This thinking by the students can be considered hardly surprising because generating new meanings through texts is a less visible function of written language for most people compared to conveying the meanings created by previous generations (Lotman, 1988:34). Additionally, similar results were observed in PISA results. Most of the test takers were not able to answer successfully the questions asking how presented facts relate to their own experiences (OECD,2010; OECD,2016a:162-166).

5.2. Reflective Thinking Skills

Another main purpose of this study was to find out the impact of concept-based reading instruction on language learners' reflective thinking skills. To determine the level of reflective thinking skills of the participants of the study, the Turkish version of the Reflection Questionnaire (Kember, & Leung, et al. 2000; Başol & Gencel, 2013) was implemented with both the experimental and the control group students before and after the instruction phase. The Reflection Questionnaire (the RQ) has 4 subscales: Habitual Action (HU), Understanding (U), Reflection (R), and Critical Reflection (CR) and each subscale consists of 4 items. All the students' composite scores for each subscale was calculated and the groups' gains were compared using inferential statistics.

The Understanding composite scores of the two groups were not different at a statistically significant level before and after the instruction phase. That means any group differences could not be detected in terms of the Understanding subscale, which was assessed via items such as "To pass this course you need to understand the content (item 6)" and "I need to understand the material taught by the teacher in order to perform practical tasks (item 10)". This result is in line with the results obtained via the TATRS. That is, the groups were not different in terms of reading skills such as finding specific information from the text, making inferences, finding the main idea, separating fact from opinion, and forming an interpretation by putting together information from different parts of the text.

The Habitual Action (HA) composite scores of the two groups were not different at a statistically significant level prior to the instruction phase. However, after the instruction phase, the experimental groups' HA scores decreased while the control group's scores remained almost the same. Additionally, the posttest HA score of the both groups were different at a statistically significant level. This result indicates that concept-based reading instruction decreased the experimental group students' Habitual Action scores. These results are not surprising or unexpected for several reasons. First, the study was implemented in the spring semester and both groups were taught using the same reading

curriculum in the fall semester. The control group's reading instruction did not receive any changes in this respect. However, the experimental group's reading instruction was shaped by the principles of concept-based instruction and it was different from the one they received in the first semester. Secondly, based on my experiences as a language teacher for 18 years at a university, as a student in Turkish Education system for 16 years and as a parent of second grade kid, most reading curriculums both in the first language and the foreign language do not generally involve a conceptual focus. Most reading curriculums I have experienced as a teacher and a student had involved the direct practice of reading skills through reading texts without reflecting on a core concept in written communication. Additionally, the literature review I conducted showed that concept-based instruction had not been adapted to the teaching of reading in English Language Teaching at the time of this study. However, there are some standardized reading procedures developed for the native language readers in The USA such as Concept Oriented Reading Instruction - CORI (Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004), In-Depth Expanded Application of Science - IDEAS (Romance & Vitale, 2001), and Reading Apprenticeship (Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, & Mueller, 2001). These standardized reading instruction procedures integrate reading strategy instruction with subject matter instruction such as history, science and geography. The focus is not on the language related concepts but on the concepts that the students need to master in subject matters. In the reading instruction developed for this study, the focus is on a written language related concept with the largest scope. Therefore, it may not be an exaggeration to state that experimental group students were subjected to this type of reading instruction for the first time and their Habitual Action scores decreased considerably due to the concept-based reading instruction they received during the instruction phase of the study. This result is supported by the findings regarding the other two subscales of the RQ: Reflection and Critical Reflection, because they consist of items which mainly ask respondents to state if they changed their normal way of doing things as a result of the course they have taken (see especially the items 4,8,12 and 16 in RQ).

When two groups were compared in terms of composite scores for Reflection and Critical Reflection, the experimental group scored higher at a statistically significant level on the posttest. Additionally, both groups had not scored differently at a statistically significant level on the pretest. These results indicated that concept-based reading instruction helped the experimental group students to improve their Reflection and Critical Reflection scores. As mentioned above the concept-based reading instruction developed for this study has several features that are specific to it and these features may have contributed to this result as determined by the subscales of Reflection and Critical Reflection in the RQ.

5.3. Implications for Classroom Practice

In the 21st century, with just a click of the mouse, a person can access a vast amount of information on a single topic from thousands of different sources so one must reflect on the quality and accuracy of the information she encounters on a daily basis. The students in both groups must have already experienced this fact prior to the study. Moreover, the students in both groups were not significantly different in terms of basic reading skills as determined by the TATRS. Despite these, the students in the control group were not as successful as the experimental group in the reading tasks where they needed to reflect and evaluate the content and form of the texts. Additionally, their scores of Reflection and Critical Reflection were lower than the students in the experimental group. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that being subjected to a certain form of experience many times does not always result in the development of reflective and communicative reading skills. A salient focus on reflective and communicative skills in reading instruction is necessary to help students not to get lost in a world, where too much information provided by the new technologies of the 21st century (Stahl et al., 1996; Braten et al., 2008). The instruction should help students to see they play an active role in finding the right and accurate information provided by texts. They also need to be aware that they are not just the consumers of knowledge created by others (Rosenblatt, 1994). They can and must create new meanings via means of written communication (Lotman, 1988). This

creative aspect is especially important for university level students because they are novice professionals who will be expected to further their profession by creating new meanings (Armstrong & Newman, 2011). All these skills mentioned above require students to move away from a habitual unconscious action to a conscious purposeful action in using written language. This conscious purposeful action need to be the focus of reading instruction for students in all levels of education but especially for students in university. Vygotsky explains the significance of this type of instruction in schools by comparing the arithmetic instruction with the mother tongue instruction (Vygotsky, 1987a: 205). In arithmetic instruction, pupils learn something new such as division and multiplication while in the case of mother tongue instruction, pupils learn nothing knew about the grammatical properties of their mother language because they already know how to decline and conjugate verbs in their mother tongue. What they learn new during the mother tongue instruction is the awareness and the volitional control of the already possessed capabilities. By receiving instruction on grammar, students' "capacity moves from an unconscious, automatic plane to a voluntary, intentional, and conscious plane" (Vygotsky, 1987a: 206) and in return students make proper use of the culturally provided tools such as language and concepts to perform practical tasks beyond the classroom.

Vygotsky (1987a) argued that development of higher order thinking skills such as reflection is not the result of accumulation of more knowledge. He thought the quality of the knowledge plays an essential role too in the development of higher order skills and made a distinction between scientific and everyday concepts. The scientific concepts are formed and refined by scientists through rigorous reflection on their shortcomings and their relation to other concepts therefore they have a hierarchical structure (Davydov, 2008). Everyday concepts, on the other hand, are unorderly even though they may serve well in everyday situations. Although both type of concepts are products of the society, the schools are generally the only place for most members of the society to meet the scientific concepts, which are of higher quality than everyday concepts (Davydov, 2008). In line with this thinking, to encourage the students in the experimental group to think and read reflectively, a reading curriculum was developed, and the curriculum focused on the

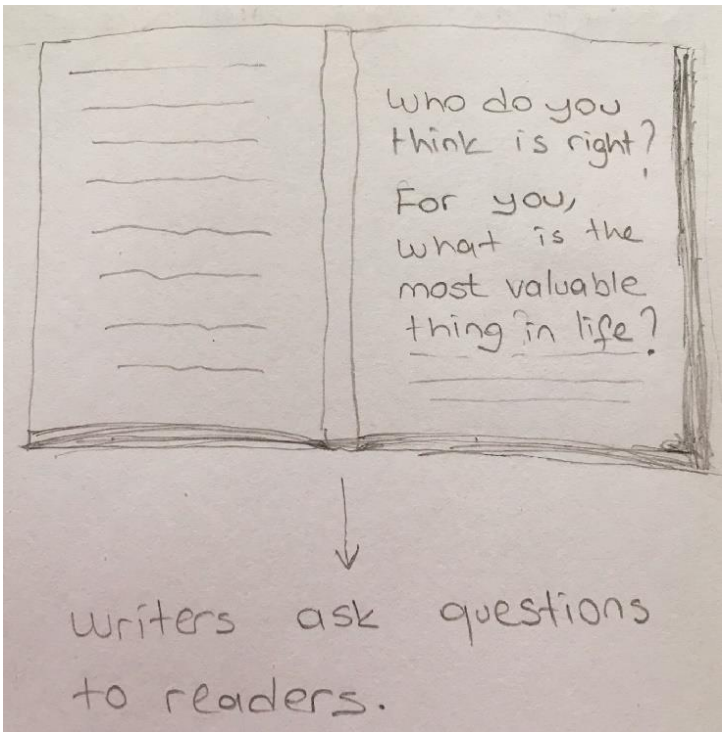
concept of communication as formulated by Michael Bakhtin (1981;1985). The Bakhtinian communication model was used by the researcher in selecting the reading texts and in the design of the classroom tasks. The tasks mainly aimed to disrupt the students' everyday conceptual knowledge regarding the written communication prior to the instruction phase of the study. The students were asked to collectively record and revise their conceptual knowledge as the instruction continued. These were the specific qualities of the concept-based reading instruction received by the experimental students. Therefore, the results obtained via the Reflection Questionnaire (the RQ) and the Tasks for the Assessment of Reflective Reading Tasks (the TARRS) indicate that a conceptual focus during reading instruction is not unnecessary. The conceptual focus may have encouraged the students to view their experiences with a new lens and opened new possibilities for them. These results, of course, do not mean that reading strategy instruction, answering comprehension questions are valueless and therefore should be abandoned completely by classroom teachers. Mental actions such as reading comprehension cannot be observed directly (Haenen, 1993). In this respect, these classroom tasks too can be very helpful for teachers. Through these exercises teachers can see if the students can perform the basic mental actions related to reading process correctly and provide specific help for their students. However, these basic skills and mental actions are the parts of a whole and the whole is not the sum total of these parts (Zuckerman, 2003; Schmittau, 2005). The whole picture cannot be deduced from the properties of the elements alone by the students (Davydov, 2008).

Students need to know they are receiving reading instruction to be good communicators in a social sphere where they need to create new meanings for themselves and for others. What that social level communication entails can be a valuable knowledge for most students (Halliday,1993; Halliday & Martin, 1993). Without such orientation to reading and texts, students might think that their only role is to replicate the ideas in texts. They may fail to appreciate the active role they play in written communication (Thompson, 2003). Classroom tasks which encourage them to be active communicators may receive little attention from them. They may even think that if they know the grammar

and vocabulary of the text, they can grasp the true meaning of every text they read. In the real world, even expert readers may not grasp the true meaning of every text and they very often experience difficulties in understanding texts (Wineburg, 1991a, Wineburg, 1991b). Their expertise and previous knowledge on the topic effect their meaning making (Bazerman,1985). As one student in experimental group stated "reading a text is like playing a game of chess. If the player is an expert, he sees a different chess board from the player who is a novice". More importantly, reading only one text on a topic is hardly enough for a person to reach a sophisticated understanding in respect to an issue that is truly important for her (Wineburg, 1991a; Seixas,1993). Therefore, reading related scientific concepts such as "communication" can be used in reading instruction to guide the design of curriculums and classroom tasks. Written communication related scientific concepts can provide students with a conceptual lens that can allow them to see the big picture not just the next few moves. Along with the concept of communication, the concepts of "genre", "intertextuality", and "grammatical forms to construct dialogic and monologic texts" can be used to guide future efforts in reading curriculum design.

In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), communication is a very important concept (Canale & Swain, 1980), therefore a few words on it is in order at this point of the study. Very few researchers and teachers may object to the idea that language instruction involves communicative skills and language learners need to learn how to communicate in the target language rather than learn the grammar and vocabulary of the target language. However, in the case of reading instruction in ELT, most of the classroom procedures and activities do not seem to encourage students to communicate truly in the written language when they are viewed from a Bakhtinian lens (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986). They seem to encourage students to read texts to see the grammar and vocabulary of the target language in use rather than as a means of exchanging and creating meanings in a social context. An OBA created by the experimental group students (sometime halfway through the instruction phase) illustrates this point clearly and beautifully.

Figure 5. 1. An OBA Created by a Group of Experimental Students



As this OBA shows, texts are a means of communication which involves dialogic relations between the readers and the writer (Bakhtin; 1985). The writers do not only describe the state of an affair from their own point of view but also invite the readers to confirm, to argue, to reject and to perform certain actions in response to their texts (Bakhtin; 1985). What is valuable and correct, ethical and beautiful defended by the writers have a history in the cultural historical context. The writer is not "the Biblical Adam" who creates these ideas from the scratch. Every idea in texts are the products of an ongoing social dialogue which will continue into the future. When written communication is defined in this way, to what extent the reading instruction in ELT reflects the true nature of written communication becomes obvious. In most coursebooks, students are required to read unconnected texts (Hartman 1992; Hartman, 1995; Armstrong & Newman, 2011).). The intertextual relations receive most of the time no attention if not very little in most reading coursebooks. However, intertextual relations can be represented simply by a selection of various texts on a social issue described from

various points of view (Hartman 1992; Hartman, 1995). Another way to integrate intertextuality into reading curriculum is to include texts which clearly show how different texts respond to an initial text. Selection of random texts to be included in the reading curriculum needs to be avoided if the aim of the instruction is to develop students' reflective reading skills.

In addition to the poorly represented intertextual relations in coursebooks, the most common communicative reading classroom tasks in ELT seem problematic when they are viewed through a Bakhtinian communicative lens. They exclusively focus on the face to face exchange of ideas among students and teachers. The social level exchange of ideas through texts receive little or no attention. For example, in information gap activities or jigsaw reading activities (an archetypical communicative task in ELT), students initially read different parts of a text and then they come together in groups to convey orally the information to the other students who have read another part of the text. In this task, students are interactive and can be communicative in terms of face to face communication, but they are not truly communicative in written language (or in the secondary genres in the Bakhtinian sense of the term) at a social level. To make the information gap activities more communicative in terms of written communication, students can be given different texts on the same topic containing opposing evaluations by different writers. Then they may be asked to report the ideas presented in the text they have just read. Finally, they can discuss which writer approached the topic the best in terms of content and form.

Another typical communicative reading task in ELT is before or after-reading-discussions during which students are asked to express their own points of view or experiences on a central idea from a text. While performing this type of a task, students are again interactive and communicative in terms of face to face communication, but the features of social level communication via the texts is almost invisible for students. They only exchange their own points of view or agree or disagree with this specific writer in terms of an idea presented in the text. Most of them probably know nothing about the historical development of the idea they are discussing. They may not even know what

other points of view are available on this very idea they are discussing (Wineburg, 1991a; Wineburg, 1991b; Seixas,1993). Most importantly they may not be aware of the fact that written texts are the most important means of social level communication and dialogue on specific topics that are essential for the whole society. In my opinion, students should not be forced to discuss issues immediately after reading a single text. Forcing students to discuss a topic without having a sufficient knowledge base may be unfruitful and may deprive students of the chance to broaden their horizon. They should be given enough chance to broaden their base of knowledge related to important issues mentioned in texts. It is especially vital if the discussed issue is potentially essential for students lives beyond the classroom.

To sum up, reading comprehension activities and curriculums need to be designed using a communication model that truly and fully represents the features of the written communication. Such a model can be found in Bakhtin's works on language and the speech genres (Bakthin,1981;1985). Moreover, a Bakhtinian communication model can be included in teacher education programs to help teachers to develop truly communicative reading curriculums and classroom activities.

5.4. The Limitations of The Study and Implications for Further Research

Although the study reached its aim of providing empirical evidence for the positive impact of concept-based instruction on the intermediate level language learners' reading and reflective thinking skills, there were unavoidable limitations of the study. The most important limitation of the study seems to be its novel approach to reading instruction. A literature review conducted by the researcher indicated that this study is a first attempt to design a reading curriculum informed by Davydov's instructional system in English Language Teaching. Therefore, new studies are needed to replicate and confirm the findings of this present study. Furthermore, new studies are needed to see how this type instruction works with students with different level of English language proficiency.

Other limitations of the study involve the sampling and the duration of the study. Despite the favorable results in terms of the impact of concept-based reading instruction on the students' reading and reflective thinking skills, the study included only 63 students and lasted 16 weeks. Therefore, to generalize the results for larger population, the study should have had more participants and the instruction phase should have lasted longer than 16 weeks.

A final limitation of the study is its lack of data on the students' views about the concept-based instruction. Therefore, new studies are needed to investigate what aspects of concept-based reading instruction are perceived as favorable or unfavorable by students. In a future study, students may be asked to rate their interest in the classroom activities, or to identify their favorite component of the class.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: THE TASKS FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF TARGET READING SKILLS (THE TATRS) AND THE TASKS FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF REFLECTIVE READING SKILLS (THE TARS)

Student Opinions: (Questions 1-10)

A high number of students failing to succeed in languages is not a good reason to make the subject optional. This mentality opens the gate to making Turkish and math optional too, simply to improve pass rates. The Turkish Radio and Television (TRT) reports that in Turkey "A quarter of secondary students (aged 11 and over) fail to reach their potential in math and a quarter are not making enough progress in Turkish". Still, optional Turkish and math is unthinkable; because **these** are core subjects. Foreign languages should also be considered as a core subject. Those who want to transfer students' energies from foreign languages to Turkish cannot see the possibility that learning a foreign language may actually be useful for learning the first language. Students failing in core subjects must be helped to improve, not have the subject removed from school programs.

Ayşe

The large number of students who struggle with reading and writing in their own language cannot be expected to learn a second, foreign one. The large number of students failing to have basic arithmetic and mother language ability is to be addressed immediately. This is the most important problem for schools, not second language learning.

Ali

Languages are extremely beneficial to the economy in two senses. Firstly, language skills improve a job candidate's chances of selection, which keeps unemployment down. Kariyer.net reports on its website that "36% of employers recruit people with languages", "49% of employers are dissatisfied with school leavers' language skills" and that "95% of İstanbul employers think that language skills are important for the İstanbul economy". Secondly, a high number of employees with language skills enhance companies' abilities to engage in trade and to expand their business abroad, in turn increasing exports.

Mehtap

Learning a foreign language may be good way learning other cultures and for being open minded toward other cultures. However, learning its target language is not the only way to learn a foreign culture.

Many people can be very open to foreign cultures without learning their language(s). Indeed, it may be necessary for most to keep the two separate. There are about 6,909 **languages in the world.** No one can learn every foreign language, and many would not have the time to learn more than a few but that should not stop people from learning

about and enjoying that culture, its music, its art. People can learn other cultures through translation of literature.

If a student is forced to learn a language against his/her will, then the negative feelings and attitudes toward the culture of that language will only be strengthened, fueled by negative experiences. In the words of Albert Einstein, "It is easier to split an atom than break a prejudice" and realistically language learning will not help fight this sad truth.

Ahmet

Foreign languages may ease communication between people from different cultures, but so does math. **It** is a universal language. Mathematicians use numbers and the math terms. **They** stay the same in all languages (all named in Greek and Latin). Math has helped us give us the means for international trade and industrialization, which in turn led to us needing foreign languages, but without math, we wouldn't really need them that badly. Everything is math. From how your laptop works to actual math class. From sales, to music. All math. Math is vital, foreign languages are preferable, but not vital.

Seher

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1. Which of the following questions do the students seem to be responding to?
A. Should foreign language learning be an optional subject at schools?
B. Is it more important for kids to study math or foreign languages?
C. Should foreign language education start in primary school?
D. What is the most useless academic subject?

2. Which one of the writers most directly contradicts Ali's argument? (Contradict: disagree)
A. Ayşe **B.** Mehtap
C. Ahmet **D.** Seher

3. In Ayşe's text, what does the word these refer to in the sentence, "Still, optional Turkish and math is unthinkable; because these are core subjects.'?
…….
4. In Seher's text, what does the word It refer to in the sentence, "It is a universal language.'?
……..
5. In Seher's text, what does the word They refer to in the sentence, "They stay the same in all languages (all named in Greek and Latin)."?
…….

Student Opinions
Some statements are matters of opinion, based on the ideas and values of the writer. Some statements are matters of fact, which may be tested objectively and are either correct or incorrect. Put a tick under "matter of opinion" or "matter of fact" next to each of the quotations from the students' writing listed below. The first one has been done for you.

	Quotation from students' writing	Matter of opinion	Matter of fact
	Ayşe "The Turkish Radio and Television (TRT) reports that in Turkey "A quarter of secondary students (aged 11 and over) fail to reach their potential in math(s) and a quarter are not making enough progress in Turkish"		✓
6	Ayşe "A high number of students failing to succeed in languages is not a good reason to make the subject optional."		
7	Ahmet "There are about 6,909 **languages in the world**."		
8	Seher "Everything is math."		

9. Thinking about the main ideas presented by the five students, which student do you agree with most strongly?

Student's name: **.....**
Using your own words, explain your choice by referring to your own opinion and the main ideas presented by the student.
……
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……

10.
We can talk about what an essay says (its content)
We can talk about the way an essay is written (the style)
Regardless of which essay you agree with, in your opinion, which do you think is the best essay?
Explain your answer by referring to the way one or other essays are written?

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Hammurabi's Code (Questions: 11-17)

We may take for granted the existence of written laws. Many people grow up with the understanding that certain laws exist. If you fail to stop at a stop sign in your car, you will likely receive a fine. Refusal to pay your taxes can result in a prison sentence. In some countries, killing another person can even result in the death penalty. Constitutions in the modern World were written to ensure that everyone knows the laws of living in a country. Instead of allowing a single ruler to impose his or her will, people are required to follow a set of written laws. Breaking them comes with certain punishments. Based on the code of laws, a judge determines the punishment for a crime. Committing murder is a much larger crime than running a red light. Thus, the punishment for murder is much greater than failing to stop at a red light.

Written laws existed long before the Modern Constitutions. Historians trace the creation of written laws to around 1772 B.C. At that time, what we now consider Iraq was known as Mesopotamia. And the ruler of Mesopotamia was a man named King Hammurabi. Hammurabi was a member of the Babylonian people. He was also a talented military leader and a smart governor. It was he who is credited with creating the first written laws.

Hammurabi created 282 laws, which dealt with aspects of everyday life. Crimes came with specific penalties, and many of them were punishable by death. The laws were inscribed on a stone pillar and became known as Hammurabi's Code. To ensure that everyone knew all 282 laws, they were also probably read aloud in public regularly. That way, no one could be excused for committing a crime because of not knowing the law. Modern laws function in a similar way. Governments usually allows people full access to their laws, so the fact that you don't know that running a red light is illegal does not excuse you from paying a fine for doing so.

Hammurabi's Code often required the criminal to receive the same injury that he or she had inflicted on a victim to make the punishment fit the crime. Hammurabi's code is the source of famous statement "an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth". Such laws may seem harsh today, but they were intended to prevent society from descending into chaos and disorder. They helped to advance the rule of law in Mesopotamia.

One of many differences between Hammurabi's Code and the modern constitutions is that the laws in Hammurabi's Code often depended on social standing. Soldiers and noblemen had certain rights that ordinary citizens and poor people did not. Still, the existence of laws prevented a future single ruler from imposing his will on the population.

Hammurabi's Code also dealt with similar issues that we confront in modern justice systems today. The laws covered issues related to trade, marriage, taxes, theft, and murder, among other things. To create the code, the king collected laws from different regions of Mesopotamia and compiled them into a single rulebook. If a person was accused of a crime, that person would face a judge. This judge would determine whether the accused person was innocent or guilty of the crime. If the person was found guilty, then the judge would prescribe the appropriate punishment as written in Hammurabi's Code.

Here's an example of how Hammurabi's Code might have been used in Mesopotamia. Imagine a shepherd is accused of stealing a sheep that was taken from a nobleman's flock. The shepherd and the nobleman are both brought before a judge. The nobleman introduces a witness. The witness claims to have seen the shepherd in the nobleman's field the night before the nobleman realized one of his sheep was missing. Then, the witness says, "The shepherd picked a sheep up and ran off with it in the direction of his own property." The witness is certain it was the same man because she got a good look at the shepherd's face and he was wearing the same hat that he now has on during this "trial." Later, the nobleman points out that the sheep found at the shepherd's place was marked with the nobleman's brand.

To defend himself, the shepherd claims he bought the sheep from a man in town. The shepherd names the man in town, and that man is also brought before the judge. The man says that he has never seen the shepherd and also that he was not selling sheep in the market on the day that the shepherd says he bought the sheep. The man continues to say that he was visiting his daughters. The man's daughters and their husbands act as witnesses and confirm that he was not in the market on said day.

Since the shepherd's story of purchasing a sheep from the marketplace has been cast into doubt by witnesses, the judge determines that he is guilty of stealing the sheep. The judge consults Hammurabi's Code.

Law number eight states: "If any one steals cattle or sheep, or an ass, or a pig or a goat, if it belongs to a god or to the court, the thief shall pay thirtyfold therefor." This means that if a man steals a sheep that's owned by the ruling class in Mesopotamia, he would be required to pay 30 times the amount of the sheep's worth. The law continues: "If they belonged to a freed man of the king he shall pay tenfold; if the thief has nothing with which to pay he shall be put to death." Because the shepherd is found guilty of stealing the sheep from a nobleman and noblemen are members of the court, the shepherd is required to pay 30 times the cost of the sheep based on the law. According to Hammurabi's Code, if the shepherd does not have enough money to cover his payment, he will be put to death.

Fortunately for the shepherd, he has many other sheep in his flock. He sells 30 of his sheep and pays the nobleman. As a result, the shepherd now has only three sheep left in his flock.

11. What is Hammurabi's Code?

A. a collection of 282 laws believed to be the first written laws
B. a group of soldiers and noblemen who lived in ancient Mesopotamia
C. the ancient idea that a punishment should fit the crime
D. the punishment for stealing sheep from a nobleman in ancient Mesopotamia

12. How might Hammurabi's Code have prevented a single ruler from imposing, or forcing, his or her will on people?

A. by convincing the public that a ruler always wants what is best for the people
B. by punishing a ruler for trying to change the Code
C. by forcing a ruler to get people to agree on a new law before adding it to the Code
D. by preventing the ruler from making up new laws that were not mentioned in the Code

13. What is the main idea of this text?

A. In the time of Hammurabi's Code, it was illegal for a shepherd to steal a sheep from the flock of a nobleman.
B. Although there are differences between modern constitutions and Hammurabi's code, they share some characteristics.
C. Hammurabi's code and the modern Constitutions are similar in that the laws in Hammurabi's Code do not depended on social standing.
D. Hammurabi's Code was the first collection of written law and advanced the rule of law in Mesopotamia.

14. Why might the author have described the imaginary trial of the shepherd who stole the nobleman's sheep?

A. to show that the shepherd did not commit the crime of which he was accused
B. to show that a single ruler could impose his or her will on other people
C. to show how Hammurabi's Code might apply to a specific situation
D. to convince the reader that Hammurabi's Code was unfair in its punishments

15. Choose the answer that best completes the sentence. All 282 laws of Hammurabi's Code were also probably read aloud in public on a regular basis _____ no one could be excused for committing a crime because of not knowing the law.
A. although
B. however
C. above all
D. so that

16. What does law number eight of Hammurabi's Code describe the punishment for?
…….
17. Why is it important for laws to be written down? You can use your own ideas and the ideas from the text to support your answer.
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Group Behavior: (Questions 18-24)
(1) The word "social" means: "relating to society or its organization." Sociology studies how human beings interact with each other. Sociologist have found that one characteristic of humans is their desire to be a part of different groups. Sociologists call this "group behavior."

(2) Sociologists believe that group behavior began in mankind a long time ago when man was more primitive. Back then, people did not have big and strong homes to protect them from dangerous animals. People slept in caves and were out in the open during the day a lot more. They would look all around for food so that they could continue living. Eventually, people began to realize that if they traveled and worked together, they could find more food and would be able to more effectively fight against dangerous animals. Bigger quantities of food and a better sense of safety helped humans survive and prosper.

(3) As time went on, people began to see the other benefits of being a part of a group. Groups provide companionship. People simply get to be around other people, which we as a species began to enjoy. Usually, this sense of companionship would be stronger felt if the group as a whole had a common purpose. This could also lead to members of a group feeling extra proud of themselves when they accomplish something, especially if it benefits the other people in the group. Some people also began to become leaders

within their groups, which created a higher level of respect for them from other group members. This marked the beginning of roles within a group.

(4) A "role" is another word for a job within a group. Everybody in a group either naturally created a purpose for themselves or might have been given one by the group's leader. Some men of a group had the role of hunter, for example. Others may have been the builders of campfires.

(5) Group behavior also included the creation of "norms" and "values." Norms are examples of what a group normally does over a period of time. Members of a group might all wake up at the same time and begin to do some specific jobs during the day but repeat those same activities day after day. Values are a summary of what the group's goals might be or a general idea of what is acceptable behavior. Some groups might strongly believe in honesty and dislike stealing.

(6) There are actually some negative things that can come along with group behavior. From time to time, if a person is not accepted within a group, they might feel lonely and sad. Other times, a group might find itself fighting a "common enemy," which is another group that is disliked as a whole because it may have different norms or values. Group behavior also makes it more possible that all of the members of a group will believe something just because one member says so, even if it is not true or favorable.

18. What is "group behavior"?
A. humans' desire to study sociology
B. humans' desire to be part of different groups
C. humans' desire to fight with dangerous situations
D. humans' desire to find food

19. What is the passage mostly about?

A. why being in a group causes problem for some people
B. how to be accepted in a group
C. why people need to be in groups and their behaviors in groups.
D. groups in different societies throughout history

20. Which of the following advantages of being in a group **is not** mentioned in the text?

A. Humans in groups could find more food in the past.
B. Humans in groups could more easily protect themselves from dangers in the past.
C. A group teaches its members survival skills.
D. People in groups feel safer.

21. Why did people become part of a group a long time ago?

A. People wanted to be given roles.
B. People wanted to be able to better survive.
C. People wanted to be alone.
D. People wanted to have values to be happy.

22. What is the paragraph 2 mainly about?

A. why sociologists study group behavior.
B. how group behavior developed among primitive people in the past.
C. how group behavior helped primitive people to fight against dangerous animals.
D. why having a lot of food was important for primitive people.
23. Choose the answer that best completes the sentence below.

Values are a summary of what the group's goals might be or a general idea of what is acceptable behavior; _____, some groups might strongly believe in honesty and dislike stealing.

A. so that
B. on the contrary
C. however
D. for example

24. Can you describe a group situation where you were the only person who disagreed with a point of view or action? How did you handle it? What were the results?
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APPENDIX II: SCORING RUBRIC FOR THE ITEMS ASSESSING REFLECTIVE READING SKILLS

QUESTION 9:

Thinking about the main ideas presented by the five students, which student do you agree with most strongly?

Student's name: .....
Using your own words, explain your choice by referring to your own opinion and the main ideas presented by the student.
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SCORING GUIDE

Full Score: 2

Shows accurate comprehension of the chosen student's position regarding foreign language learning in schools AND explains reason for agreeing with it. Must identify an argument or set of arguments which is unique to the chosen student (e.g. needs to do more than say whether the student is for or against learning a foreign language in schools). Must explicitly or implicitly refer to one of the main arguments of the chosen student, by: (1) introducing own supporting argument (in this case the answer may also quote or closely paraphrase the text); AND/OR (2) using own words to interpret or summarize the chosen student's argument. Summaries of each student's main argument(s) follow:

Ayşe: must state or imply that Ayşe is in favor of learning foreign languages in schools and refer explicitly or implicitly to her argument that foreign language is a core subject like mother language and maths and students need to be supported in learning languages rather than removing the foreign languages from schools.

Ali: must state or imply that Ali is against foreign language learning and refer explicitly or implicitly to his argument that a large number of students fail in mother language, arithmetic and foreign language learning is not as important as these school subjects.

Mehtap: must state or imply that Mehtap is in favor of foreign language learning and refer explicitly or implicitly to her argument that foreign language learning is important in economy and finding jobs.

Ahmet: must state or imply that Ahmet is against foreign language learning in schools and refer explicitly or implicitly to his argument that students should not be made to learn a foreign language because it may make students to develop negative feelings toward the whole culture of the language learned in school.

Seher: must state or imply that Seher is against foreign language learning and refer explicitly or implicitly to her argument that learning Maths is more important than learning a foreign language and therefor it should be optional.

Partial Score:1

Gives insufficient or vague answer or focuses on a (trivial) detail of the argument. Example responses may include following:

- Seher - Because she gives the best arguments. [vague]
- Ali - Ali says that a lot of students fail to have basic arithmetic and mother language ability. [Does not go beyond close paraphrase.]
- Ayşe – her article is true, and it is right. [Gives no account of main ideas of argument.]
- Mehtap – she is right because young people need maths more. Without maths what will they do? [Inaccurate summary of Mehtap's argument (seems to confuse it with Seher's).]
- I like learning foreign languages. [Irrelevant answer.]

Missing:0

QUESTION 10
We can talk about what an essay says (its content)
We can talk about the way an essay is written (the style)
Regardless of which essay you agree with, in your opinion, which do you think is the best essay? Explain your answer by referring to the way one or other essays are written?

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Full Score:2

Must focus on the style of the text rather than its content.

Refers to the authors' use of language.

- Ayşe's essay attracts the reader and she does not use a sarcastic language. She stated her ideas kindly.

Compares two authors in terms of how they developed their arguments.

- Ali used a bossy style in his essay. He does not want to debate the issue he just wants his ideas accepted and this is disturbing. But, Mehtap used numbers to support her argument. This is a good way to persuade readers.

Refers to the number of the arguments proposed by the authors.

- I liked Ahmet's style because, he used more than one strategy to support his argument: use of numbers, quotation from famous people.

Refers to the evidence the authors use in their text.

- Mehtap : I liked mehtap's style because she supported her ideas using data and facts.

Partial Score:1

Gives insufficient or vague answer.

- I like Ayşe's text.
- Ali's style is the best.

Focuses on the content of the text rather than its style.

- I like Ali's text because I think like him.
- Seher's text is the best because young people need maths more. Without maths what will they do?

Referrers to the style of texts in general without choosing a specific article.

- Using a scientific language make essays confusing sometimes. Using a simpler language is most of the time better.
- The content of the essay is the most essential thing. If the content is not something about important, it is pointless to talk about its content or style.

Missing:0

QUESTION 17

Why is it important for laws to be written down? You can use your own ideas and the ideas from the text to support your answer.

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Full Score: 2

Refers to the permanent nature of written laws and explains its effects on society.

- Laws should be written. Justice depends on the application of laws for everybody in the same way.
- If laws were unwritten, people would not know what is legal and what is illegal. In such a situation, the people had to live a chaotic environment.
- Written laws prevent arbitrariness and injustice in society.

Quotes the well-known Turkish saying in Turkish ("söz uçar yazı kalır") or its translation in English ("the palest ink is stronger than the sharpest memory", "spoken words fly away, written words remain", "spoken words fly away") and explains how this quote relates to the permanent nature of written laws and explains its effects on society.

- They say " söz uçar yazı kalır". Written things are more permanent. I think written laws cannot be changed easily and people in the society learn them better when they are written.

Partial Score:1

Gives insufficient or vague answer involving one sentence.

- Written laws help people to live together peacefully.

Quotes the well-known Turkish saying in Turkish ("söz uçar yazı kalır") or its translation in English without any further explanations.

- söz uçar yazı kalır
- the palest ink is stronger than the sharpest memory
- spoken words fly away, written words remain
- spoken words fly away

Shows inaccurate comprehension of the material or gives an implausible or irrelevant answer.

- Traffic laws should be stricter.

Quotes from or paraphrases an appropriate section of the text without further explanation (implying that the text tells you what to do and that no further explanation is required).

- Constitutions in the modern World were written to ensure that everyone knows the laws of living in a country.

Missing:0

QUESTION 24

Can you describe a group situation where you were the only person who disagreed with a point of view or action? How did you handle it? What were the results?

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Full Score: 2

Refers to an experience he/she had in the past and explains how he/she behaved in such a situation.

- In the past, I had such an experience with my friends when we were talking about politics. I tried to explain my views with facts and figures. I showed respect for their ides too.
- I had such an experience when I had an argument with my friends from same class. The argument was about choosing the class leader. I listened to their arguments but in the end I did what I wanted to do because it was my class and I had a responsibility for the good of the class.

Refers to his or her course of behavior in such a situation and explains why he/she choose this behavior.

- I have experienced conflict of opinions many times, but I defend my ideas. I can only express my ideas and respect others' ideas. After all, everybody can have their own ideas. We need to respect and listen to each other.
- I never get into arguments with others if they do not listen. If they listen I try to explain why I think the way I think. I always listen to them too because I respect others' ideas.

Partial Score:1

Gives insufficient or vague answer involving one sentence.

- I do not oppose other people in such situations. (does not explain why he or she chooses this behavior)
- Yes, I had such an experience and I ended my friendship with them (does not explain why he or she chooses this behavior)
- I never have had such an experience because I am a harmonious person. (does not explain why he or she chooses this behavior)
- I am not in a group or part of any groups. (does not explain why he or she chooses this behavior)

Shows inaccurate comprehension of the material or gives an implausible or irrelevant answer.

- Sometimes, it's so much better to work alone – and in a private environment.
- When people spend too much time with others, they want a little privacy.
- I work alone! I understand the advantages of teamwork, but it just isn't for me. I'm an independent person, not a team worker.

Quotes from or paraphrases an appropriate section of the text without further explanation (implying that the text tells you what to do and that no further explanation is required).

- Group behavior also makes it more possible that all of the members of a group will believe something just because one member says so, even if it is not true or favorable.
- In early human days, social groups provided protection from predators, but now it has changed.

Missing:0

- I don't remember
- I haven't had such an experience

APPENDIX III: THE REFLECTION QUESTIONNARE IN TURKISH

İsim ve Soy İsim: **Sınıf:**

"Reading" dersi ile ilgili olarak aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtecek şekilde uygun boşluğa tik atın (✔)

		5 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	3 Kararsızım	2 Katılmı-yorum	1 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	Bazı etkinlikler üzerinde çalışırken onları ne yaptığımı düşünmeden yapabilirim.					
2	Bu ders, öğretim elemanı tarafından öğretilen kavramları anlamamızı gerektirir.					
3	Bazen diğerlerinin bir şeyi yapış yöntemini sorgular ve daha iyi bir yol düşünmeye çalışırım.					
4	Bu dersin sonucu olarak kendime bakış tarzımı değiştirdim.					
5	Bu derste bazı şeyleri o kadar çok tekrar ediyoruz ki artık onları düşünmeden yapmaya başladım.					
6	Bu dersten geçebilmeniz için dersin içeriğini anlamanız gerekir.					
7	Yaptığım şeyi düşünmekten ve onu yapmanın alternatif yollarını göz önünde bulundurmaktan hoşlanırım.					
8	Bu ders, sıkıca bağlandığım bazı fikirlerimi sarstı/sorgulattı.					
9	Sınav için derste işlenen konuları hatırladığım ve notlarıma çalıştığım sürece fazla düşünmeme gerek yok.					
10	Uygulamalı görevleri yapabilmek için öğretim elemanının					

	öğrettiği materyalleri anlamak zorundayım.					
11	Yaptıklarımı daha iyi hale getirip getiremeyeceğimi görmek için kendi eylemlerim üzerine sık sık düşünüp taşınırım.					
12	Bu dersin sonucunda bazı şeyleri normalde yaptığımdan farklı yapmaya başladım.					
13	Öğretim elemanının söylediklerini takip edersem bu ders üzerinde pek de fazla düşünmeme gerek kalmaz.					
14	Bu derste öğretilen konuları anlamak için sürekli olarak üzerinde düşünmek zorundasınız.					
15	Deneyimlerimden bir şeyler öğrenebilmek ve sonraki uygulamalarımı daha iyiye götürebilmek için kazanımlarımı sık sık gözden geçiririm.					
16	Bu ders esnasında, daha önceden doğru olduğuna inandığım şeylerde hatalar olduğunu keşfettim.					

APPENDIX IV: THE LESSON PLANS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL CURRICULUM

Lesson 1 -Week 1

Objectives:

- To describe visually the concepts of communication
- To find the shortcomings of the current conceptualizations regarding the concept of written communication
- To see the readers' active role in written communication.

Material and resources:

- **Pen and paper**
- **Text 1**
- **Text 2**
- **Picture 1**

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
5 minutes	Today we are going to talk and reflect about the concept of communication in written language. (The teacher writes the following questions on the board) What do you do while reading a text to understand the writer's message? How do you think written communication happens? Can you describe it in a visual form?		Teacher to whole class
10 minutes	(while students working on the task, teacher goes around to make sure students understand the task)	Students depict their conceptions of written communication on a piece of paper.	Individual work
15 minutes	Now, please form groups of 6 students and share your drawings with the other students in your group. As a group, revise your drawing and form a new one based on your collective decision. (teacher goes around and helps students forming the groups and makes sure they understand the task)	Students work in groups to form a depiction of the communication process based on group members ideas.	Group work (6 students - 5 groups)
5 minutes	Please complete the task and choose a group leader to present your ideas to the whole class. As a group you have 5-minute - presentation time.		Teacher to whole class.

	The students in the other groups, please take notes regarding the differences between your depiction and the presented depiction. Feel free to ask questions about points you do not understand to the presenting group.		
10 minutes	Teacher listens to the students' presentations.	Group leaders presents their groups depictions while other students listen to the presentations. They ask questions to the group leaders about their ideas.	Group leaders to whole class.
Break 10 minutes			
20 minutes	Teacher listens to the students' presentations. (Teacher collects students' depictions and put them in a file.)	Group leaders presents their groups depictions while other students listen to the presentations. They ask questions to the group leaders about their ideas.	Group leaders to whole class.
15 minutes	Please read this text and tell me what it is about and what its main idea is. (teacher distribute the first reading text (the schema text) to the students)	Students read the text using a dictionary. They complain the text does not make sense and they could not even understand its topic.	Teacher to whole class. Individual work.
5 minutes	Okay, now I will give you the Turkish version of the text. See if you can understand it in Turkish. (Upon the students' complaints, the teacher distributes the Turkish version of the text to make sure that the students can see the problem is not about their incomplete knowledge of the target language.)	Students read the Turkish version. They still complain about their incomprehension. Some students even say that the text is stupid.	Individual work

5 minutes	I am going to distribute you a picture that will help you to understand the text. (The teacher distributes the picture (schema picture) to the students.)	Students look at the picture and read the text again.	Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Now please go back to your groups that we formed in the first class. work as a group to revise your depictions one more time. Please be prepared to present what revisions you make in your depictions. (teacher goes around to make sure students understand the task)		Group work
20 minutes	Teacher listens to the students' presentations.	Group leaders presents their groups depictions while other students listen to the presentations. They ask questions to the group leaders about their ideas	Group leaders to whole class.
20 minutes	Please look at the depictions all the groups make and form a depiction that is agreed by all students in the class. (teacher helps students to complete the tasks and takes a photo of the final depiction or the OBA)	Students depicts the communication process and discuss what ideas should be included in the OBA.	Whole class

Text 1:

If the balloons popped, the sound would not be able to carry since everything would be too far away from the correct floor. A closed window would also prevent the sound from carrying since most buildings tend to be well insulated. Since the whole operation depends on a steady flow of electricity, a break in the middle of the wire would also cause problems. Of course, the fellow could shout, but the human voice is not loud enough to carry that far. An additional problem is that a string could break on the instrument. Then, there could be no accompaniment to the message. It is clear that the best situation would involve less distance. Then, there would be fewer potential problems. With face to face contact, the least number of things could go wrong.

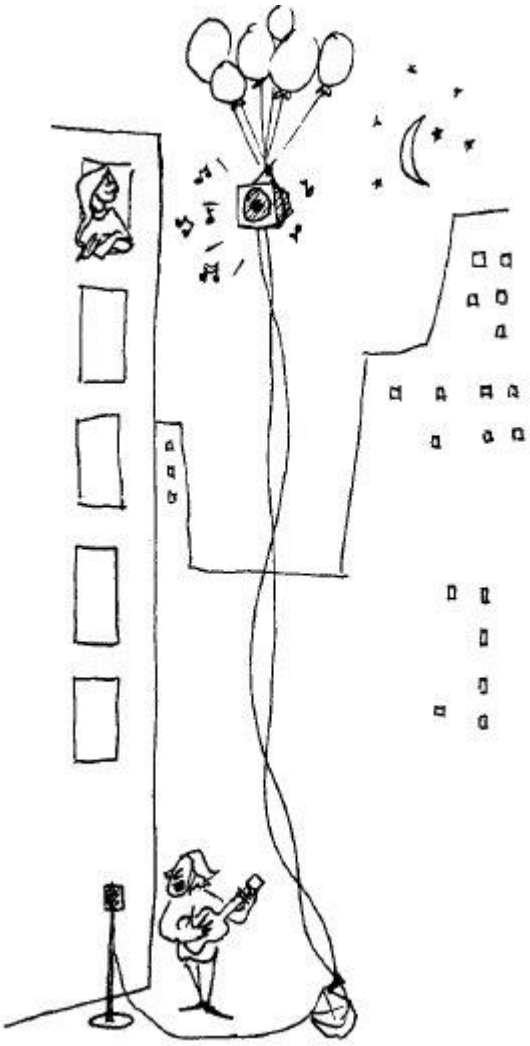
Taken from: Bransford, J.D., & Johnson, M.K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 11, 717-726.

Text 2:

Eğer balonlar patlarsa, her şey doğru kattan çok uzak olacağı için ses gitmeyecek. Kapalı bir cam da sesin gitmesini engelleyecektir çünkü binalar iyi yalıtılmış durumda. Operasyonun tüm başarısı sabit elektrik akışına bağlı olduğu için, kablonun bir yerinde meydana gelecek kırılma da soruna sebep olabilir. Tabi ki adam bağırabilir fakat insan sesi o kadar uzağa gidecek kadar yüksek değil. Bir başka problem de enstrümanın üzerindeki telin kopma olasılığı. Sonra, mesajın yanına başka hiçbir şey eklenememesi sorunu var. Açıkça görülüyor ki daha az mesafenin olması en iyi durum. Böylece, daha az problemle karşılaşılır. Yüz yüze temas durumunda çok az şey yanlış gidebilir.

Picture 1: Taken from:

Bransford, J.D., & Johnson, M.K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 11, 717-726.



Lesson 2 -Week 2

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:

1. **Europe's Young Adults Living with Parents**
2. **Yaşları 18-30 Arasında Meslekleri ve Paraları Var Ama Hálá Aileleriyle Yaşıyorlar**
3. **Koca Bebek Sendromu Yaşıyor Musunuz?**

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
10 minutes	Today, we are going to read a news report on a survey done by Eurofound. Eurofound (**European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions**) is an European Union Agency which does research on living and working conditions in European countries. The newspaper article you are going to read is about a research report published in 2014. Please read the text and answer the comprehension questions.	Ask questions about the newspaper article and Eurofound	Teacher to whole class
10 minutes	Teacher gives students a worksheet on the target vocabulary to be studied	students do the vocabulary exercises	Individual work
20 minutes	(Teacher goes around to help students with the task)	Students read the text and answers comprehension question	Individual work
5 minutes	Teacher checks students' answers.	Students report their answers.	Teacher to whole class
Break -10 minutes			
5 minutes	Now we are going to read two texts in Turkish on the same topic. The texts are taken from Turkish newspapers. Half of the class will read the text 2 and the other half will read the text 3. After you read your text, I want you to form groups of 6 students. 3 students will be the ones who read text 2 while the other 3 students will be the ones who read the text 3. After you form your groups, please find how	Students get their corresponding texts.	Teacher to whole class

	two writers approached the topic and decide the differences and similarities between the two writers interpretation of the topic.		
15 minutes	Teacher walks around to make sure students understand the task.	Students read their corresponding texts and makes notes on the writers approaches to the topic.	Individual work
15 minutes	Now, please form your groups of 6. Discuss and make notes how two writers differ and have a similar approach to the topic by discussing and comparing the texts.	Students forms groups of 6. They discuss and compare the texts.	Group work
5 minutes	Please complete the task. In the next class you will share your responses with the whole class.		Teacher to whole class
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Now, let's see talk about the first text. What are the points the writer talks about. (Teacher writes the students' responses on the board)	students raise their hands to tell the points mentioned by the writer of the first text	Individual students to the whole class
10 minutes	Now, let's see talk about the second text. What are the points the writer talks about. (Teacher writes the students' responses on the board)	students raise their hands to tell the points mentioned by the writer of the first text	Individual students to the whole class
10 minutes	Let's compare the main points made by each author and see the common and different points on the topic. (Teacher writes the students' responses on the board. Teacher takes the photo of the board to be used the following week)	students raise their hands to tell the common and different points raised by two writers.	Individual students to the whole class
10 minutes	Which text do you like most and tell us why?	students raise their hands to tell the class which writer they liked most.	Individual students to the whole class

Lesson 3- week 3

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:
4. Staying at Home with Momma? *

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
5 minutes	Remember that last week we read 3 texts about young people staying home with their families after graduation from school. Now we are going to read another text on the same topic.		Teacher to whole class.
20 minutes	We will do vocabulary exercises on the target words that will appear in the text you are going to read in the second class. (teacher distributes a vocabulary exercise handout to the students. Then, the teacher allocates 10 minutes for the students to complete the handout. And finally checks the students' answers)	Students do the exercises in the handout.	Individual work
20 minutes	Now, please read the text and complete the comprehension questions.	Students read the text do the exercises in the handout.	Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
15 minutes	Let's see how you answered the comprehension questions. (teacher checks the students' responses to the comprehension questions.)	Students raise their hands to answer the questions	Teacher to whole class.
10 minutes	We have read 4 texts on the same topic. Let me remind you your responses on these texts. (teacher uses the overhead projector to show the picture she had taken a week before. The teacher reads the students' responses very quickly to remind the students. Now that we have remembered the content of the previous four texts. Please can you take notes on how this third writer approached the		Teacher to whole class

	topic. Please work in groups of at least 4 people.		
10 minutes	Teacher walks around and makes sure the students understand the task.	Students determine the specific approach the writer of the third text adopts to the topic. They compare it with the other texts they read the previous week by looking at the projection on the board. They make notes to be shared with the whole class.	Group work
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Let's look at the third writers approach. How similar and different it is from the other two writers. (teacher writes the students responses on the board)	Students reports their responses as groups.	Individual students to whole class.
25 minutes	We have read three writers' responses to the topic. Now, please write a short composition for the following question by drawing on 4 texts we have read so far. Please include your personal experiences too. Why do you think so many young people (aged between 21 and 30) still prefer to live with their parents after they graduate from university? (teacher walks around and help students with the task)	Students write a short essay on the following topic: Why do you think so many young people (aged between 21 and 30) still prefer to live with their parents after they graduate from university?	Individual work
10 minutes	Please can you hand in your essays. I will read them and hand them back in 2 days.	Students hand the essays to the teacher.	Teacher to whole class.

Lesson 4- week 4

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:

Text 1: Divided Sleep*

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
10 minutes	Now we are going to read a text on divided sleep. What do you know about divided sleep?	Students tell what they know about divided sleep. (it turns out non of the students knew about the divided sleep.	Teacher to whole class. Individual students to whole class.
20 minutes	I am going to give you a handout on target words from the text you are going to read. Please do the exercises. (teacher distributes the exercise handout)	Students complete the vocabulary handout.	Individual work
15 minutes	Let's check your answers. (Teacher checks the answers and makes corrections if it is necessary)	Students give answers to the vocabular exercises.	Individual student to teacher
Break 10 minutes			
5 minutes	Please read the text on divided sleep and answer the comprehension questions.	Students get the text and the questions.	Teacher to whole class
20 minutes		Students read the text silently to answer the comprehension questions.	Individual work
20 minutes	Let's see how you answered the questions.	Students give their answers to the comprehension questions.	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
Break 10 minutes			
15 minutes	Can you form groups of at least 5 students and discuss the following question: Is divided sleep a healthy practice?	Students discuss the following question in groups of 5 students:	Group work

	Please choose a group leader to tell the class what your final decision on the healthiness of divided sleep. (Teacher walks around to help students to understand the task)	Is divided sleep a healthy practice? They make a group decision regarding if divided sleep is a healthy practice.	
20 minutes	Can group leaders report the groups' decision and tell us why they have made their specific choice. (Teacher takes notes about each groups choice and their reasons)	Group leaders reports on group's choice orally.	Group leaders to whole class
10 minutes	Now that we have learned all groups' choice, let me summarize groups' choices to make sure I recorded them accurately. We are going to use them in the following class. (Teacher shows her notes to the class on the overhead projection)	Students listen and makes corrections on the teacher's notes if necessary.	Teacher to whole class. Individual students to the teacher

Lesson 5- Week 5

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:
Text 1: . What Is Divided Sleep and Is It Healthy?

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
25 minutes	We are going to read another text on divided sleep. Before that, we focus on some target vocabulary from the text. (Teacher distributes vocabulary exercise handout to the students)	Students get the vocabulary exercise handouts and complete the exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
10 minutes	Let's check your answers for the vocabulary handout.	Students give their answers to the exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
10 minutes	I am going to distribute the reading text and the comprehension questions. Teacher distributes the reading text and the comprehension questions to the class.	Students begins to read the text and answer the questions.	Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Teacher walks around and help students with the comprehension questions.	Students go on reading the text and answering the questions.	Individual work
20 Minutes	Let's check your answers. (teacher makes necessary corrections)	Students give their answers to the comprehension questions	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
15 minutes	Please find the people you worked with last week on the question: Is divided sleep a healthy practice? (Teacher makes sure everyone finds the correct group. Then, projects the groups' responses on the board.)	Students get into their groups and look at the board to remember their groups' choice on the topic.	Teacher to whole class Group work
Break 10 minutes			

20 minutes	Would you like to revise your choice after you read the second text?	Students discuss as a group.	Group work
20 minutes	Please hand in your decision in written form. Group leaders, please help your group to complete the task on time.	Students write and hand in a written report to the teacher. The group leaders make sure the reports are written on time.	Group work
5 minutes	Can I have your written responses? I will keep them for you until the next class. (Teacher collects students written reports.)	Groups' leaders hand in the responses to the teacher.	

Lesson 6 - Week 6

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:
At Day's Close: Night in Times Past
Your Top 9 Reasons Why You Can't Sleep

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
10 minutes	Last week, you read two texts on divided sleep and discussed if divided sleep is a healthy practice. Do you want to know how this discussion started? It all started with the book titled "At Day's Close: Night in Times Past". Because we do not have the time to read the whole book in the class, Today, we are going to read a review of the book. Let's see if you change your ideas on practice of divided sleep after you learn something about the book that started the discussion.		Teacher to whole class
15 minutes		Students read the book review.	Individual work
10 minutes	Now, have you changed your ideas on the divided sleep? Tell us why you have changed or haven't changed your ideas.	Students tells if they changed or haven't changed their ideas.	Whole class
Break 10 minutes			
15 minutes	Now we are going to read another text on sleep. But this text does not mention about divided sleep but tells us about the most common causes of sleep problems. Before reading the text, let's look at some target words from the text. (Teacher distributes the vocabulary exercise hand out to the students)	Students complete the vocabulary exercises	Individual work
15 minutes	Now, it is time to read the text on the most common causes of sleep problems. Please	Students read the text and completes	Individual work

	read the text and answer the comprehension questions. (teacher distributes the text and the comprehension questions to the students.	the comprehension questions.	
10 minutes	Can we look at how you answered the comprehension questions? (teacher checks the students' responses)	Students answer the comprehension questions.	Whole class
Break 10 minutes			
5 minutes	Now, I want you make a final decision about whether divided sleep is a healthy practice. Please work in groups of 5 people and write about your choice and reasons. You can use the ideas in the texts we have read earlier. I will make copies of your essays and distribute them to whole class after I have checked their language in terms of grammar and vocabulary.		Teacher to whole class
25 minutes	Teacher walks around and helps students with task.	Students in groups of five write their responses.	Group work
15 minutes	Can I have your essays now? I will give them back to you tomorrow. (Teacher collects the essays)		

Week 7- Lesson 7

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:
14 Books Every Left-Brain Person Should Read This Summer

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
10 minutes	Before we start reading a text, let's talk about your personal qualities. Can you answer these questions very quickly? Are you a sociable person? Are you tidy? Are you good at memorization? Are you good at math's? Are you a creative person? (Teacher writes these questions on the board) Can a few people tell their responses to these questions	Students answer the questions. And then tell the class about their personal qualities.	Teacher to whole class Individual work Students to whole class
15 minutes	As we all see, we have different qualities. Now please think about the origin of these differences. What makes us different from each other? Can you discuss this in groups of five and list the reasons you think of?	Students gets in groups and list their ideas. Then they tell their responses to the whole class.	Group work Whole class
25 minutes	We are going to read a text. Before that let's look at target words from the text. (Teacher distributes the vocabulary exercise handout to the students. After they complete the exercises, teacher checks students' answers.)	Students complete the vocabulary exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
5 minutes	I am going to distribute the text and the comprehension questions. (teacher distributes the text and the comprehension questions)		Teacher to whole class

25 minutes	(Teacher walks around and helps students to complete the task.)	Students read the text and answers the comprehension questions.	Individual work
15 minutes	(Teacher checks the students' responses to the comprehension questions.)	Students answer the comprehension questions	Whole class
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Remember, in the first class we discussed why we are so different from each other. What does the author of the text think about this topic?	Students discuss the writers point of view on the sources of personal differences.	Whole class
20 minutes	Please get into groups of 5 and what your response is to this writer. You may include questions you may want to ask to the writer. Group leaders, please make sure you complete the task on time and hand in your essays to me at the end of the class. (Teacher walks around and makes sure students understand the task)	Students work in groups of five. They evaluate how the writer approaches the topic. They write their responses as an essay to be given to the teacher at the end of the class.	Group work
5 minutes	Can I have your essays? (Teacher collects the essays)		

Week 8- Lesson 8

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:

Left-Brained Vs. Right-Brained People Is a Total Myth, Says Science

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
25 minutes	We are going to read a text. Before that let's look at target words from the text. (Teacher distributes the vocabulary exercise handout to the students. After they complete the exercises, teacher checks students' answers.)	Students complete the vocabulary exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
5 minutes	I am going to distribute the text and the comprehension questions. (teacher distributes the text and the comprehension questions)		Teacher to whole class
Break 10 minutes			
25 minutes	(Teacher walks around and helps students to complete the task.)	Students read the text and answers the comprehension questions.	Individual work
20 minutes	(Teacher checks the students' responses to the comprehension questions.)	Students answer the comprehension questions	Whole class
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Remember, last week we discussed why we are so different from each other. What does the author of the text think about this topic?	Students discuss the writers point of view on the sources of personal differences.	Whole class
20 minutes	Please get into groups of 5 and what your response is to this writer. You may include questions you may want to ask to the writer. Group leaders, please make sure you complete the task on time and hand in your essays to me at the end of the class.	Students work in groups of five. They evaluate how the writer approaches the topic. They write	Group work

	(Teacher walks around and makes sure students understand the task)	their responses as an essay to be given to the teacher at the end of the class.	
5 minutes	Can I have your essays? (Teacher collects the essays)		

Week 9- Lesson 9

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:

The right-brain and left-brain controversy*

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
25 minutes	We are going to read a text. Before that let's look at target words from the text. (Teacher distributes the vocabulary exercise handout to the students. After they complete the exercises, teacher checks students' answers.)	Students complete the vocabulary exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
5 minutes	I am going to distribute the text and the comprehension questions. (teacher distributes the text and the comprehension questions)		Teacher to whole class
Break 10 minutes			
25 minutes	(Teacher walks around and helps students to complete the task.)	Students read the text and answers the comprehension questions.	Individual work
20 minutes	(Teacher checks the students' responses to the comprehension questions.)	Students answer the comprehension questions	Whole class
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Remember, last week we discussed why we are so different from each other. What does the author of the text think about this topic?	Students discuss the writers point of view on the sources of personal differences.	Whole class
20 minutes	Please get into groups of 5 and what your response is to this writer. You may include questions you may want to ask to the writer.	Students work in groups of five. They evaluate how the writer approaches the	Group work

	Group leaders, please make sure you complete the task on time and hand in your essays to me at the end of the class. (Teacher walks around and makes sure students understand the task)	topic. They write their responses as an essay to be given to the teacher at the end of the class.	
5 minutes	Can I have your essays? (Teacher collects the essays)		

Week 10 - Lesson 10

Objectives: OBA 3

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To revise the OBA2 to include new reading experiences (texts are written in response to each other and writers ask for a certain course of action from readers)

Material and resources:
Students written essays
Paper and pen

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
5 minutes	Today, we are going to work on the essays you wrote in the past 3 weeks. I am going to distribute them to you. Before that please from groups of five people and choose a group leader.	Students form groups	Teacher to whole class. Group work
20 minutes	Here are your essays. Please read them and choose the best one. Be prepared to explain your criteria for choosing the best essay.	Students work in groups and choose the best essay. They also explain their criteria they used to choose the best essay.	Group work
20 minutes	Group leaders, please tell us your group decision on the best essay. Tell us also the criteria you used while choosing the best essay.	Group leaders come to the board and report their choice and criteria.	Group work. Group leaders to whole class.
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Group leaders, please tell us your group decision on the best essay. Tell us also the criteria you used while choosing the best essay. (Teacher takes notes of the criteria students said they used in making their choices)	Group leaders come to the board and report their choice and criteria.	Group work. Group leaders to whole class.
25 minutes	As a group, you voted for the best essay and told the class your criteria. I will list the all criteria you mentioned on the board. We will hold one last vote for the best criteria for evaluating a text's writers point of view and approach to a topic. Please feel free to remind me if I forget to list a criterion you mentioned.	Students look at the board and read the criteria teacher writes on the board. They remind the teacher if she forgets to write a criterion	Group work Whole class

	(teacher writes the criteria on the board and tally students' votes. Finally, the teacher keeps a record of the results)	mentioned by one of the groups.	
10 minutes	In this class, we will go back to your OBA's. I am going to project it on the board. You have drawn it 4 weeks ago. Now that we have read many texts since then. In the light of your experiences in reading, please can you depict the communication process as groups of 5 students. Make revisions on the OBA 1 if you feel it is necessary. (teacher writes the following question on the board) How do you think written communication happens? Can you describe it in a visual form?	Students revise the OBA 1 as groups of five	Teacher to whole class
Break 10 minutes			
5 minutes	Please choose a group leader who will tell us about the revisions you make on the OBA1 as a group. (Teacher walks around to make sure students understand the task.)	Students prepare for the presentation	Group work
20 minutes	(Teacher listens to students' presentations.)	Group leaders presents their new OBA	Group work Group leaders to whole class
25	Please look at the depictions all the groups make and form a depiction that is agreed by all students in the class. (Teacher helps students to complete the tasks and takes a photo of the final depiction or the OBA)	Students depicts the communication process and discuss what ideas should be included in the OBA.	Whole class

Week 11- Lesson 11

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To see that ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions
- To see that ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:
Necktie*

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
20 minutes	We are going to read a text about the necktie. Before we start reading the text, tell the class what you think about necktie. Are you in favor or against wearing a necktie? talk about your personal qualities. Can you answer these questions very quickly?	Students tell the class about their preferences about wearing a necktie.	Teacher to whole class Students to whole class
25 minutes	We are going to read a text. Before that let's look at target words from the text. (Teacher distributes the vocabulary exercise handout to the students. After they complete the exercises, teacher checks students' answers.)	Students complete the vocabulary exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
5 minutes	I am going to distribute the text and the comprehension questions. (teacher distributes the text and the comprehension questions)		Teacher to whole class
25 minutes	(Teacher walks around and helps students to complete the task.)	Students read the text and answers the comprehension questions.	Individual work
15 minutes	(Teacher checks the students' responses to the comprehension questions.)	Students answer the comprehension questions	Whole class
Break 10 minutes			

10 minutes	Remember, in the first class we discussed whether you are in favor of or against wearing a necktie. What does the author of the text think about this topic?	Students discuss the writers point of view on the neckties.	Whole class
20 minutes	Please get into groups of 5 and what your response is to this writer. You may include questions you may want to ask to the writer. Group leaders, please make sure you complete the task on time and hand in your essays to me at the end of the class. (Teacher walks around and makes sure students understand the task)	Students work in groups of five. They evaluate how the writer approaches the topic. They write their responses as an essay to be given to the teacher at the end of the class.	Group work
5 minutes	Can I have your essays? (Teacher collects the essays)		

Week 12- Lesson 12

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To see that ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions
- To see that ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:

Five reasons you should wear a tie

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
25 minutes	We are going to read another text on necktie. Before that, we focus on some target vocabulary from the text. (Teacher distributes vocabulary exercise handout to the students)	Students get the vocabulary exercise handouts and complete the exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
10 minutes	Let's check your answers for the vocabulary handout.	Students give their answers to the exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
10 minutes	I am going to distribute the reading text and the comprehension questions. Teacher distributes the reading text and the comprehension questions to the class.	Students begins to read the text and answer the questions.	Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Teacher walks around and help students with the comprehension questions.	Students go on reading the text and answering the questions.	Individual work
20 Minutes	Let's check your answers. (teacher makes necessary corrections)	Students give their answers to the comprehension questions	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
15 minutes	Please work in groups of five people to discuss the following question: Are you in favor or against wearing a necktie? (Teacher makes sure everyone finds the correct group. Then, projects the groups' responses on the board.)	Students get into their groups to discuss the question.	Teacher to whole class Group work
Break 10 minutes			

20 minutes	Would you like to revise your choice after you read the second text?	Students discuss as a group.	Group work
20 minutes	Please hand in your decision in written form. Group leaders, please help your group to complete the task on time.	Students write and hand in a written report to the teacher. The group leaders make sure the reports are written on time.	Group work
5 minutes	Can I have your written responses? I will keep them for you until the next class. (Teacher collects students written reports.)	Groups' leaders hand in the responses to the teacher.	

Week 13- Lesson 13

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To see that ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions
- To see that ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts
- To learn 10 high frequency words
- To answer comprehension questions

Material and resources:

Eat my fur coat eat! by Nasreddin Hoca
The Jay and The Peacock by Aesop

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
25 minutes	For the past two weeks, we have been discussing the necktie. If Nasreddin Hoca lived in this century, do you think he would wear the necktie? (Teacher writes the question on the board and gives time to students to discuss the question in small groups.)	Students discuss the following question: If Nasreddin Hoca lived in this century, do you think he would wear the necktie?	Teacher to whole class Group work
20 minutes	We are going to read a joke by Nasreddin Hoca and a fable by Aesop's. Before that let's look at target words from the two texts. (Teacher distributes the vocabulary exercise handout to the students. After they complete the exercises, teacher checks students' answers.)	Students complete the vocabulary exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
5 minutes	I am going to distribute the texts and the comprehension questions. (teacher distributes the text and the comprehension questions)		Teacher to whole class
25 minutes	(Teacher walks around and helps students to complete the task.)	Students read the texts and answers the comprehension questions.	Individual work
15 minutes	(Teacher checks the students' responses to the comprehension questions.)	Students answer the comprehension questions	Whole class

Break 10 minutes			
20 minutes	Would you like to revise your choice after you read the texts in the earlier classes? Are you in favor of or against wearing a necktie?	Students discuss as a group.	Group work
20 minutes	Please hand in your decision in written form. Group leaders, please help your group to complete the task on time.	Students write and hand in a written report to the teacher. The group leaders make sure the reports are written on time.	Group work
5 minutes	Can I have your written responses? I will keep them for you until the next class. (Teacher collects students written reports.)	Groups' leaders hand in the responses to the teacher.	

Week 14- Lesson 14			
Objectives: To see that texts are written in response to other texts To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers To see that ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions To see that ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts To learn 10 high frequency words To answer comprehension questions			
Material and resources: A brief history of necktie in Turkey.			
Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
20 minutes	Today we are going to read a text on the history of necktie in Turkish Culture. Before that, please form groups and brainstorm what you know about the history of necktie in Turkish Culture.	Students in small groups brainstorm information on the history of necktie in Turkish Culture.	Teacher to whole class. Group work.
25 minutes	We are going to read another text on necktie. Before that, we focus on some target vocabulary from the text. (Teacher distributes vocabulary exercise handout to the students)	Students get the vocabulary exercise handouts and complete the exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual work
Break 10 minutes			
10 minutes	Let's check your answers for the vocabulary handout.	Students give their answers to the exercises.	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
20 minutes	I am going to distribute the reading text and the comprehension questions. (Teacher distributes the reading text and the comprehension questions to the class. Teacher walks around and help students with the comprehension questions.)	Students read the text and answer the questions.	Individual work
15 Minutes	Let's check your answers. (teacher makes necessary corrections)	Students give their answers to the comprehension questions	Teacher to whole class Individual students to whole class
Break 10 minutes			
20 minutes	Would you like to revise your choice after you read the second text? Are you in favor or against wearing a necktie?	Students discuss the question as a group.	Group work

20 minutes	Please hand in your decision in written form. Group leaders, please help your group to complete the task on time.	Students write and hand in a written report to the teacher. The group leaders make sure the reports are written on time.	Group work
5 minutes	Can I have your written responses? I will keep them for you until the next class. (Teacher collects students written reports.)	Groups' leaders hand in the responses to the teacher.	

Week 15-Lesson 15

Objectives:

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To see that ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions
- To see that ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts

Material and resources:
Bir papyon severin kravat ağıtı by Doğan Hızlan
Medeniyet Yuları by Orhan Kemal

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
5 minutes	Today we are going to read an article and a short story on the necktie in Turkish. Even though the texts are in Turkish we will have our discussions in English.		Teacher to whole class.
15 minutes	We are going to read an opinion essay on the necktie by Doğan Hızlan. (Teacher distributes the text to the students)	Students gets the text and reads it silently.	Individual work
15 minutes	We are going to read a short story on the necktie by Orhan Kemal. (Teacher distributes the text to the students)	Students gets the text and reads it silently.	
Break 10 minutes			
20 minutes	Please form groups of 5 people. With your group members, discuss the two writers' approach to the necktie. Finally prepare a written summary of each writers' approach to the issue.	Students discuss and writes a report of the two writers' approach to the necktie.	Group work
20 minutes	Now each group give your summary to the group next to you. Do this until every group reads ever group's summaries.	Students read other groups' summaries.	Group work
Break 10 minutes			
20 minutes	Now let's summarize each writer's arguments one by one as a class. You will tell me, and I will write your ideas on the board. Please feel free to make corrections if necessary.	Students dictates the each writer's argument for the teacher to write on the board for them.	Whole class Students to the teacher.
2o minutes	Would you like to revise your choice after you read the second text? Are you in favor or against wearing a necktie?	Students write and hand in a written report to the teacher. The group	Group work

		leaders make sure the reports are written on time.	
5 minutes	Can I have your written responses? I will keep them for you until the next class. (Teacher collects students written reports.)	Groups' leaders hand in the responses to the teacher.	

Week 16-Lesson 16

Objectives: OBA 4

- To see that texts are written in response to other texts
- To see that writers asks for a certain course of action from readers
- To see that ideas presented in texts are the products of previous discussions
- To see that ideas presented in texts are going to be the topic of future texts
- To revise the OBA3 to include the ideas regarding historical and future directed qualities of written communication.

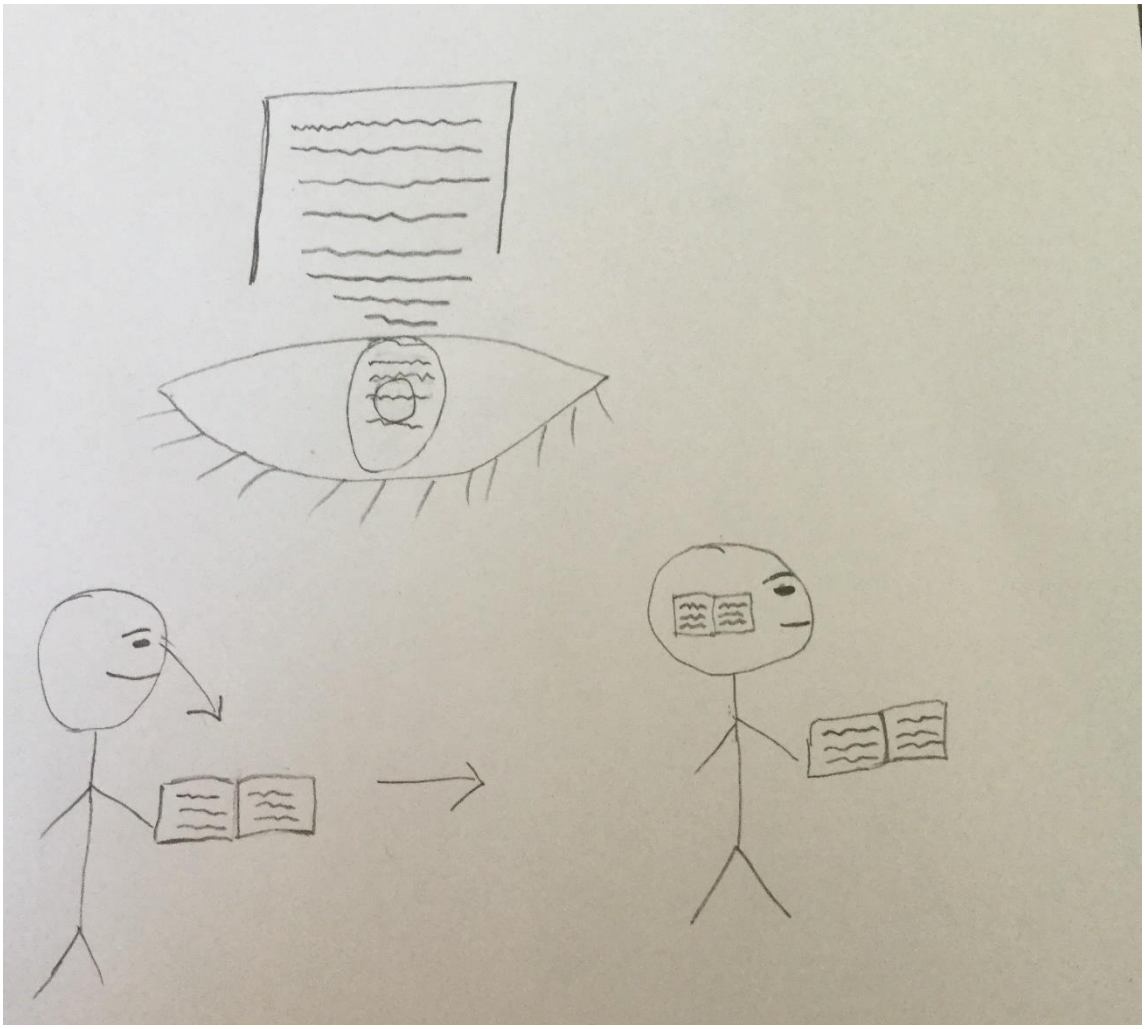
Material and resources:

Time:	**Teacher does /says**	**Students do /say**	**Interaction pattern**
15 minutes	In this class, we will go back to your OBA's. I am going to project it on the board. You have drawn it 4 weeks ago. Now that we have read many texts since then. In the light of your experiences in reading, please can you depict the communication process as groups of 5 students. Make revisions on the OBA 2 if you feel it is necessary. (teacher writes the following question on the board) How do you think written communication happens? Can you describe it in a visual form?	Students revise the OBA 2 as groups of five	Teacher to whole class
20 minutes		Students revise the OBA 2 as groups of five	Group work
10 minutes	Please choose a group leader who will tell us about the revisions you make on the OBA1 as a group. (Teacher walks around to make sure students understand the task.)	Students prepare for the presentation	Group work
Break 10 minutes			
30 minutes	(Teacher listens to students' presentations.)	Group leaders presents their new OBA	Group work Group leaders to whole class
Break 10 minutes			

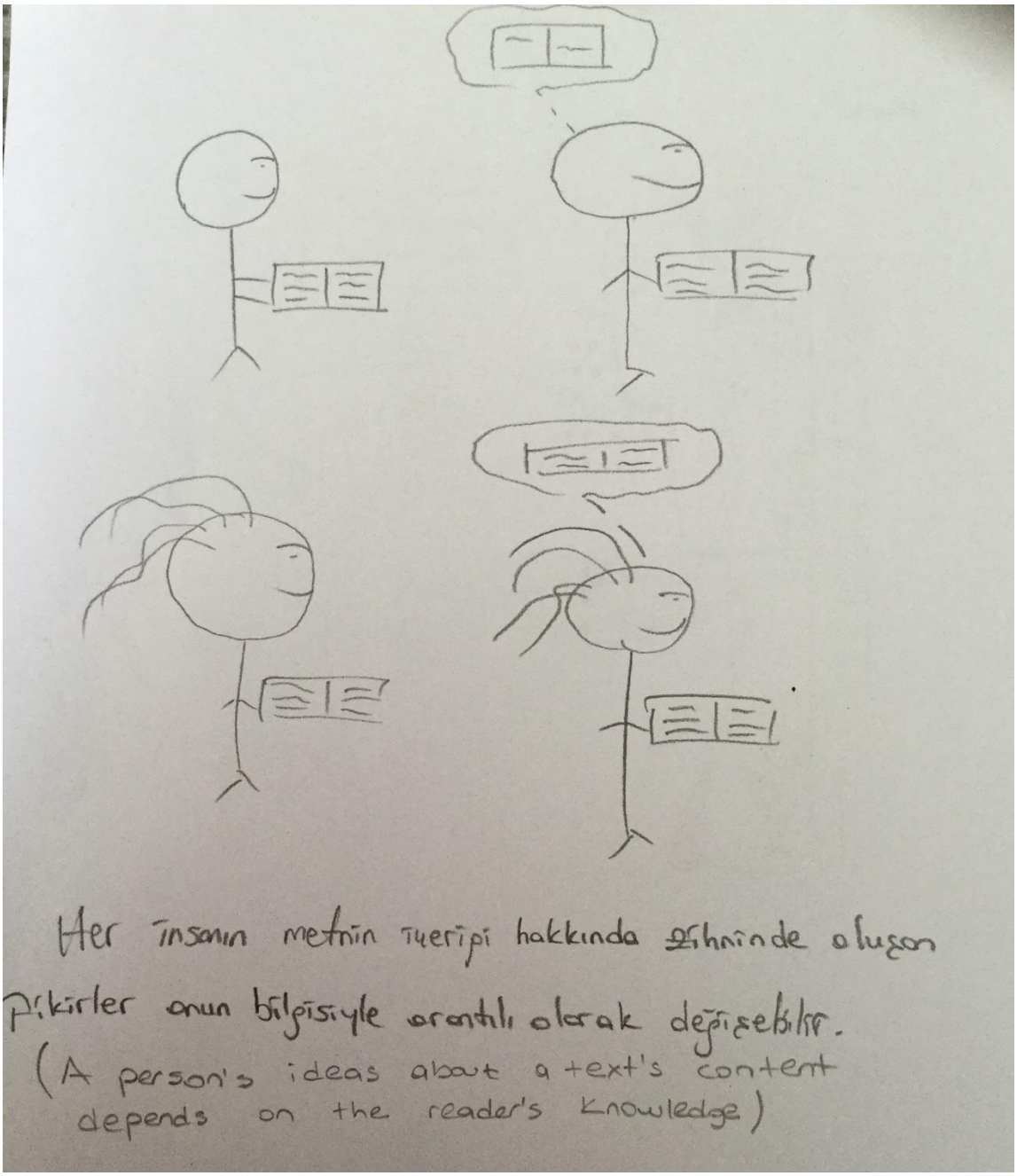
35 minutes	Please look at the depictions all the groups make and form a depiction that is agreed by all students in the class. (Teacher helps students to complete the tasks and takes a photo of the final depiction or the OBA)	Students depicts the communication process and discuss what ideas should be included in the new OBA.	Whole class
10 minutes	(teacher takes a photo of the final OBA)		

APPENDIX V: STUDENTS' OBA THROUGHOUT THE INSTRUCTION PHASE

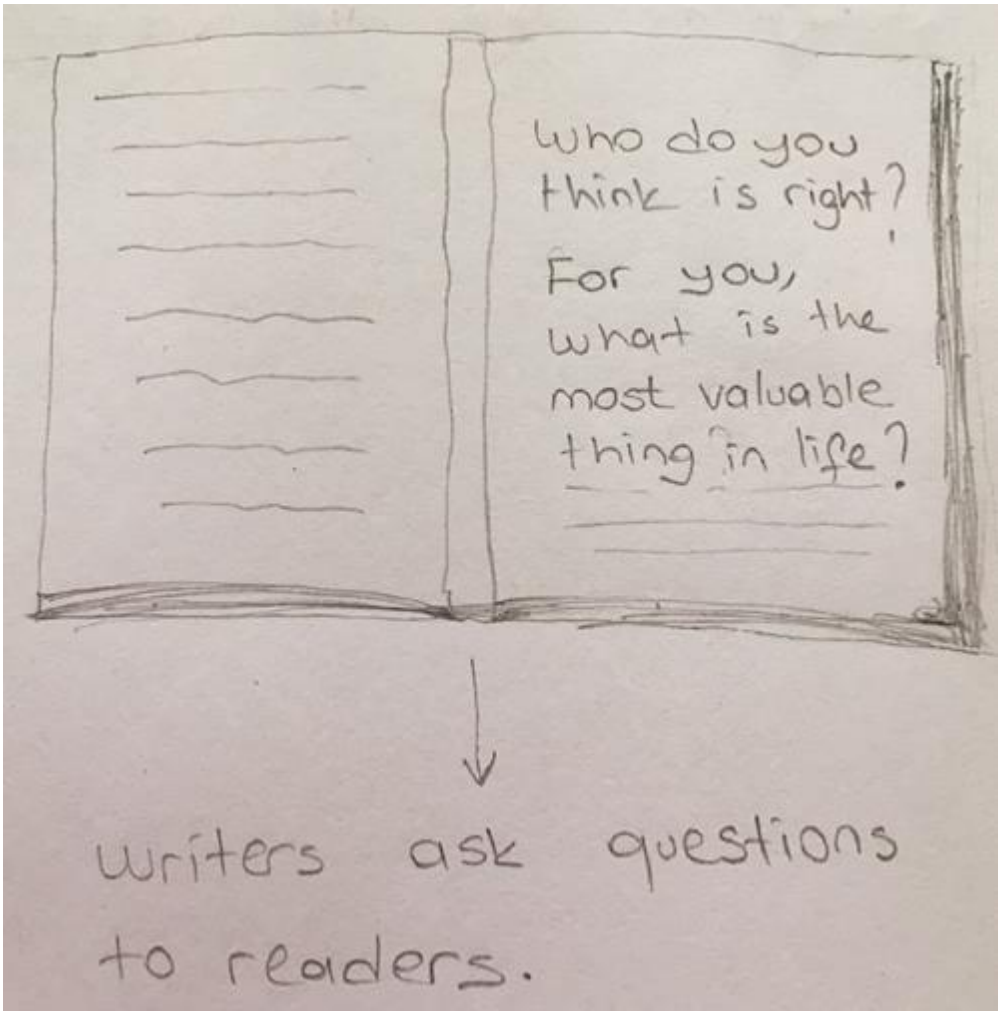
OBA 1



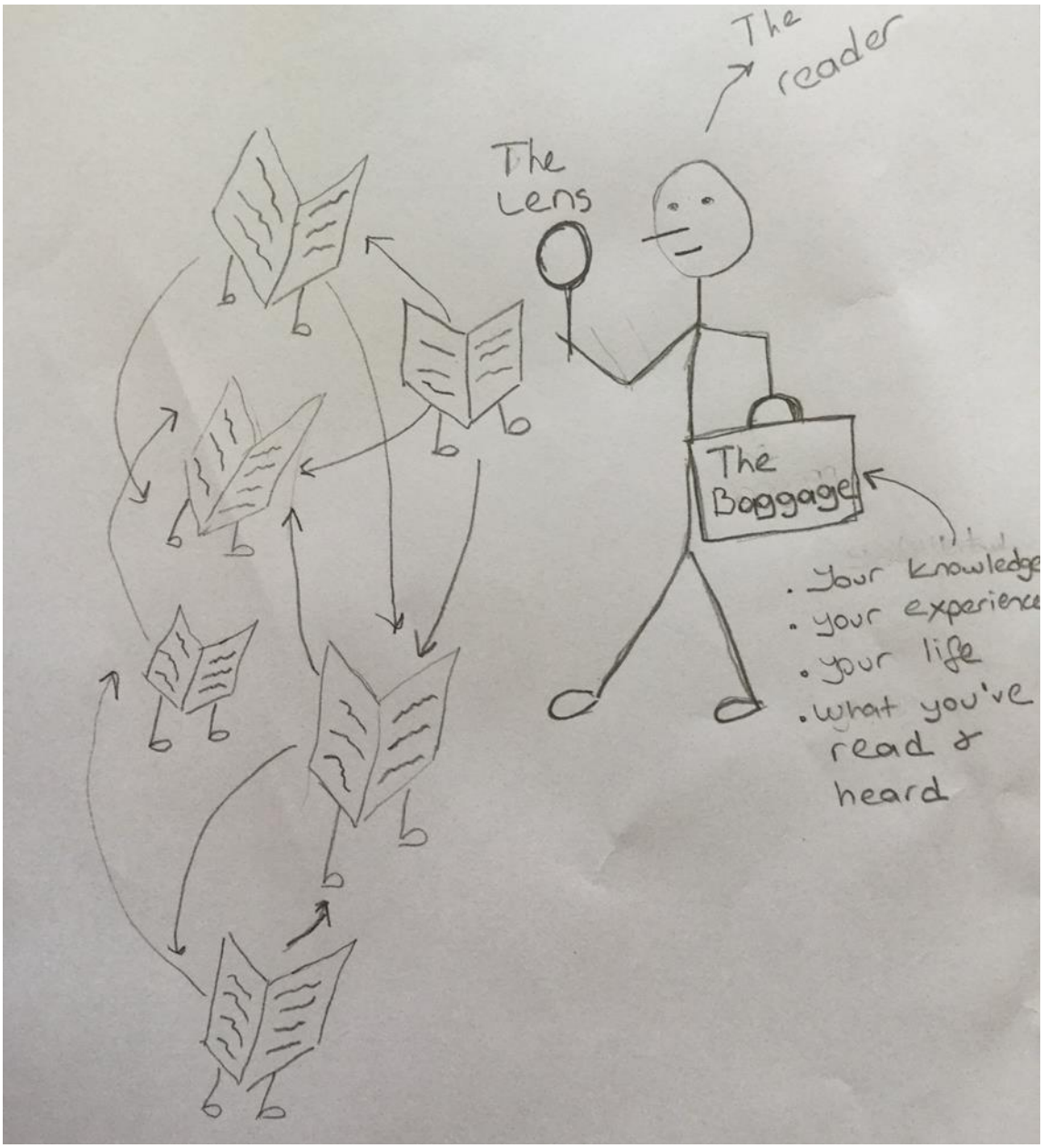
OBA 2


Her insanın metnin içeriği hakkında zihninde oluşan fikirler onun bilgisiyle orantılı olarak değişebilir.
(A person's ideas about a text's content depends on the reader's knowledge)

OBA 3


Who do you think is right?
For you, what is the most valuable thing in life?
Writers ask questions to readers.

OBA 4


The reader
The Lens
The Baggage
. your knowledge
. your experience
. your life
. what you've read & heard

APPENDIX VI: VITA

Ayşe Tokaç Kan received a B.A in Eglish Language Teaching from Selçuk University in 1999 and started on a teaching carrier as a teacher of English in Hoca Yusuf Erdem İlkoklu in Kayseri. In 2001, she transfered to Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages as an instructor of English. After working for 5 years, she earned a Master of Arts Degree in Teacing English as a Foreign Language at Bilkent Univeristy. She was sponsored as a gadute student during her MA degree at Bilkent Univerity by the Turkish Fullbright Commission. In 2009, she started her PhD in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Middle East Technical University. After completing the required courses for the doctorate deegree at Middle East Technical University, she transfered her studies to the Department of Curriculum Development at Necmettin Erbakan Univerity. At present, she works at Selcuk Univeristy as an instructor of English.