

**VİDEO FİLMLERİN KULLANILMASIYLA ORTA DÜZEY ALTI
HAZIRLIK OKULU ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCE OKUMA
ANLAMALARININ GELİŞTİRİLMESİ**

**USING VIDEO FILM SEGMENTS IN
READING CLASSES TO IMPROVE LOW
LEVEL PREP-SCHOOL STUDENTS'
COMPREHENSION**

**Hakan AVCI
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)
Eskişehir 1999**

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Ekim 1999

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

VIDEO FİMLERİN KULLANILMASIYLA ORTA DÜZEY ALTI HAZIRLIK OKULU ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCE OKUMA ANLAMALARININ GELİŞTİRİLMESİ

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Bu çalışmada, videonun görsel yardım aracı olarak kullanılmasının İngilizce bir materyali okuyup anlama becerisi gelişimine olan etkisi araştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmada, veriler 1997-1998 öğretim yılı Güz döneminde Anadolu Üniversitesi İletişim Bilimleri Fakültesi Hazırlık programına katılan öğrencilerden orta düzey altı 52 öğrenciden alınmıştır. Bu öğrenciler deney grubu ve kontrol grubu olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Kontrol grubuna geleneksel anlamda okuma anlama dersi yapılırken deney grubuna videonun görsel yardım aracı olarak kullanıldığı bir öğretim yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmada "Sights and Sounds" isimli kitaptan öğrencilerin ilgilerini çekebilecek "Stunds and Special Effects", "Sky Divers" ve "Paramedics" isimli üç okuma parçası ve video filmleri seçilmiştir.

Gruplara ön test verildikten sonra iki hafta süren uygulamaya geçilmiştir. Uygulamanın sonunda her iki gruba son test verilmiş ve bu testlerin sonuçlarının istatistiksel analizi yapılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan öğrencilerin İngilizce bir materyali okuyup anlama becerisinde ilerleme kaydedip kaydetmediklerinin tespit edilebilmesi için hem grupların kendi içlerinde hem de gruplar arasında karşılaştırmalar yapılmıştır. Deney ve kontrol gruplarından elde edilen ön ve son test sonuçlarına göre deney grubunun bu uygulamadan kontrol grubuna oranla daha çok faydalandığı tespit edilmiştir.

THESIS OF MASTER OF ARTS ABSTRACT

USING VIDEO FILM SEGMENTS IN READING CLASSES TO IMPROVE LOW LEVEL PREP-SCHOOL STUDENTS' COMPREHENSION

Hakan A VCI

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Anadolu University Social Sciences Institute, October 1999

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In this study, the effects of using video as a visual aid in reading comprehension improvement were investigated. The data were collected from 52 lower-intermediate level students attending Anadolu University Faculty of Communication Sciences Preparatory School. These students were divided into two groups, an experimental group and a control group. The control group was exposed to traditional reading skill instruction and the experimental group received an instruction by using video as a visual aid in the classroom. Three video based reading materials; "Stunds and Special Effects", "Sky Divers" and "Paramedics" were chosen from the book "Sights and Sounds" by considering the interests of the students. After the pre-tests were given the treatment, which continued for two weeks, started. At the end of the treatment the post-tests were given and the statistical analysis of the results of these tests were done. The improvement of the subjects in terms of reading comprehension were compared within the groups and between the groups by analysing the statistical data and the results of the pre and post tests.

According to the statistical data obtained from the pre and post test results of the experimental and the control group, it was observed that the experimental group gained more improvement in reading comprehension compared to the control group.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Hakan AVCI'nın "Using Video Film Segments in Reading Classes To Improve Low Level Prep-School Students' Comprehension" başlıklı tezi **8 Aralık 1999** tarihinde, aşağıdaki jüri tarafından Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca, **İngiliz Dili Eğitimi** Anabilim Dalında, yüksek lisans tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

SECTIONS

	<u>Page</u>
ÖZ	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
ÖZGEÇMİŞ	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x

CHAPTER

1.	INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1. Background to the Problem	1
	1.2. Approaches to Teaching Reading	3
	1.3. Problem	5
	1.4. Purpose of the Study	6
	1.5. Research Questions	6
	1.6. Aim and the Scope of the Study	7
	1.7. Limitations of the Study	7
2.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	9
	2.1. What is Reading	9
	2.2. The Role of Reading in a Language Class	11
	2.3. The Role of Visual Materials in a Language Class	11
	2.3.1. Video in Language Teaching	12
	2.4. Visual Materials and the Importance of Cultural Background Knowledge in Reading	12
	2.5. Research on Reading Achievement Supplied by Visual Cues	14
3.	THE METHOD	16
	3.1. Research Design	16
	3.2. Subjects	16
	3.2.1. The Experimental Group	17
	3.2.2. The Control Group	17

3.3. Instruments	17	
3.3.1. Michigan Placement Test	17	
3.3.2. Reading Comprehension Tests	17	
3.3.2.1. Mid-term Exam	17	
3.3.2.2. Reading Quiz	17	
3.3.2.3. Pre-test and Post-test	18	
3.4. Materials	18	
3.4.1. Reading Passages	18	
3.4.2. Video Cassettes	18	
3.5. Procedure	18	
3.5.1. Instruction: The Experimental Group.....	19	
3.5.2. Instruction: The Control Group.....	20	
3.6. Data Analysis	20	
RESULTS		
4. INTRODUCTION	21	
4.1. Officially Administered First Midterm	21	
4.2. First Quiz After the Midterm	22	
4.3. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group	23	
4.4. Post-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group	23	
4.5. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group	24	
4.6. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group	25	
5. DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION	27	
5.1. Summary	27	
5.2. Discussion	28	
5.3. Conclusion	29	
5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies	31	
APPENDICIES.....		32
Appendix A STUNTS AND SPECIAL EFFECTS	32	
Appendix B SKY DIVERS	34	
Appendix C PARAMEDICS	36	
Appendix D Mid-Term Scores of Both Groups	39	
Appendix E Quiz Scores of Both Groups	40	
Appendix F1 Pre-test Scores of the Control Group	41	

Appendix F2	Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Group	42
Appendix G1	Post-test Scores of the Control Group.....	43
Appendix G2	Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group	44
Appendix H1	The Pre and Post-test Mean Scores of the Control Group	45
Appendix H2	The Pre and Post-test Mean Scores of the Experimental Group...	46
 BIBLIOGRAPHY		47

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 3.5. The Procedure for the Reseachr, the Teaching Technique and the Time Given for Each of the Passage are Shown in the Following Table (Text-1 “Stunds and Special Effects”, Text-2 “Sky Diving” andText-3 “Paramedics”) 19

TABLE 4.1. Officially Administered First Midterm Scores
T-test for Independent Samples 21

TABLE 4.2. Quiz Scores T-test for Independent Samples 22

TABLE 4.3. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group
T-test for Independent Samples 23

TABLE 4.4. Post-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group
T-test for Independent Samples 24

TABLE 4.5. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group
T-test for Dependent Samples (The Control Group) 25

TABLE 4.6. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group
T-test for Dependent Samples (The Experimental Group) 25

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Problem

The changes in the world after the second half of the 20th century have increasingly required people to learn languages other than their mother tongues. Today, people have different reasons to learn languages; to learn about different cultures, to visit other countries and meet people, to trade goods, to watch international TV channels, to use the global computer network the Internet and to read internationally published newspapers and magazines. Seeing this necessity; governments, families, companies and ordinary people give great importance to learning languages. Since most of the education programs are designed in English, French, German or other languages, families want their children to learn languages even starting from the elementary school. Companies seek for workers who can speak foreign languages and even design education programs for their employee. Ordinary people want to learn languages for various reasons; to go abroad, to study in foreign schools, to emigrate to a foreign country, to read and maybe the most popular reason nowadays-for surfing in the Internet.

Most countries give great importance to teaching languages in their educational programs at every level of their citizens education. Language programs play an important role at the university level as well as elementary and secondary school levels. Most of the universities carry out intensive language training programs which students have to complete successfully to continue to upper classes where they take obligatory English lessons. All these programs aim to give the students the necessary language skills that will help them in their academic studies and future careers.

Language teaching programs, however, are not completely successful all the time. In other words, students' level at the end of these programs cannot reach the aimed level. Since these problems are very common among the language teaching programs, many researches are carried out in order to enlighten shared problems in the area (Sebüktekin, 1981; Göktürk, 1982; Demirel, 1987; Başkan, 1988; Soytekin, 1989).

Students attending language training programs, in high schools and universities in Turkey, who are also called English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students, are generally confused because of the difficulties of the language skills and have problems in some skills either receptive or perceptive. Jolly (1978) argues that students are not just concerned with one of the four skills: Reading, writing, speaking and listening are all

necessary and important in their learning. However, as reading knowledge is important for academic studies, it is also vitally necessary for professional success and personal development. Since much professional, technical and scientific literature is published in English, reading ability is a need for EFL students.

Today; language programs are designed to meet the needs and interests of the learners, and teachers realize that students need more and more reading.

Dubin states that;

"By all measures, reading would seem to be the most attainable language skill for students in countries where English is not widely spoken. While it is almost impossible to achieve fluency in speaking without the opportunity to practice frequently with native speakers, reading requires only a text and readers, and possibly a dictionary" (1996: 125).

Reading is basically regarded as information processing. Reading is simply comprehending written language. Through reading people reconstruct the message encoded by the writer. Many attempts have been made to define or describe the nature of reading. It is generally agreed that there are two levels, as John Greenwood assumed; there is first a basic visual task, that of deciphering the marks on the page, the brain receiving signals from the eye. Secondly, there is a cognitive task, that of interpreting the visual information (1995: 81-82).

For a reading task, the reader needs the skill of interpretation, that is, the ability to solve the problem of unlocking meanings by adding together a number of associations. Kolers says that more information is contributed by the reader than by the print on the page (1969: 100). According to Rivers, the reader must learn to extract from the graphic script three levels of meaning (1978: 202).

1. Lexical meaning: The semantic implications of the words and expressions.
2. Structural meaning: Which is expressed at times by semantically empty function words and also by interrelationships among words.
3. Socio-Cultural: The evaluative dimensions which English speaking people give to words in their culture.

Socio-cultural meaning is the most difficult part to interpret for a foreigner. This is the meaning which springs from shared experiences, values and attitudes. Rivers argues that when this kind of meaning is not taken into account or when students interpret an English text according to their own cultural experiences, distortions and misapprehension happen. Fleming and Levi (1978: 15) stated that culturally determined expectations as to how an object or an event will be perceived are obviously very important to the designer of messages for people of the particular culture. Living among English-speaking people for a long time will give students insight into this aspect of meaning however average students will need to depend on footnotes and teacher explanations. By having cultural meaning, students will come to a deeper understanding of the full meaning of many texts.

Mackay (1989: 80) stated that a typical taxonomy of comprehension skills would include; the ability to extract the literal meaning from the text, to identify the main ideas of facts, supporting details and the relationships between ideas or facts, and to identify longer units of text which convey "thought units" or "units of information" essential to the development of the information.

Thorndike (1992) summarized the comprehension process in this way:

"... understanding a paragraph is like solving a problem in mathematics. It consists in selecting the right elements of situation, putting them together in the right relations, and also with the right amount of weight or influence or force for each. The mind must select, repress, soften, emphasize, correlate and organize, all under the influence of the right mental set of purpose or demand" (Thomas P. Gorman, 1994: 159).

Good comprehension, therefore, depends upon the correct interpretation of the linguistic signals, words and cultural meaning of a text and the background of the reader.

1.2. Approaches to Teaching Reading

There are various language methods to teach reading. These approaches generally depend on the language teaching method that they belong to. They are:

- a. Grammar-Translation Approach: The main purpose of this method is to help students read foreign language literature. Grammar rules and vocabulary are taught through reading. Little attention is paid to the context of texts.
- b. The Direct Approach: Reading is regarded as a source of context for oral drills. Reading comprehension questions are given orally, and proceed much like a pattern practice drill. A teacher centered classroom is another main characteristic of this method.
- c. Reading Approach: In this approach the acquisition of vocabulary is considered to be very important. Pronunciation is not as important as vocabulary. Eskey summarizes this approach as: "Part of our responsibility as teachers of reading must be, first, to identify the problem structures, and second, to find some effective means of teaching our students to read them with understanding (Silberstein, 1993: 29).
- d. Audio-lingual Approach: In this approach, it is assumed that reading instruction can proceed only after students have developed a working knowledge of the spoken language. Reading text reinforces the spoken language and provides cultural information that contextualizes speech. Pronunciation is important in this method (Silberstein, 1993: 28).
- e. Cognitive Approach: In this approach, reading is viewed as a complex information-processing skill. The reader is seen as an active, planning, decision making individual. The importance of comprehension is emphasized. There is

contextualization of all teaching points through the use of visual aids, stories or other appropriate means (Silberstein, 1993: 30-31).

- f. Interactive Approach: This approach emphasizes that meaning is not fully present in a text waiting to be decoded. Rather, meaning is created through the interaction of text and reader. Background knowledge of the reader facilitates comprehension. This brings "schema theory", and the lack of schema availability prevents comprehension. An interaction between thought and language determines students' efficiency in reading (Silberstein, 1993: 31).

Reading is a complex and multifaceted skill made up of a number of psychological, physical and social elements. Few students, even after years of study, are able to read English easily. The vocabulary and syntax of newspapers, magazines, novels and nonfiction books seem quite beyond the reach of most students. These materials, which also bring real life into a classroom, are what teachers want their students to read. Students must go beyond the language textbook if they want to achieve a level where they can read for the purpose of learning.

As it can be seen from the mid-term and quiz results (App.: D-E) students at Anadolu University Communication Sciences Faculty Prep-school are not very good at reading comprehension and reading is the most useful skill for them, since they are expected to prepare homeworks, make translations and have their obligatory lessons in English.

Charles Alderson suggested that:

"... no language text is ever complete in itself. In order to be comprehended in a satisfactory manner, the text must be related to the reader's background knowledge..." (1991: 45).

If the text is not related to the reader's background knowledge, students need some extra information. The use of video can supply this kind of information. Since video is available in every language teaching program and it is easy to operate, video is still preferred to computers and CD-Rom players which are considered to be very complex by many teachers. Barry (1990: 3) states that, a teacher can be shown how to use video efficiently in fifteen to twenty minutes. Not only it is as easy and flexible to use as a cassette, but it adds the advantage of sound, picture and motion combined. According to Miller and Brennan (1986: 286), an English language teaching videotape can be used as an additional context to reinforce a language point.

As Skerit (1989: 268) stated, if students learn linguistic skills without the cultural background knowledge, they will have difficulty in using or they will just misuse the foreign language. On the other hand, if, students study some aspects of a foreign culture by its translated literature, which sounds pretty good for some students, they will miss a great deal of authenticity of the original. Thus, every foreign language course should be a

part of an integrated, coherent, interdisciplinary program in which students of foreign languages have to perceive and communicate, that is, speak, hear, listen, write and read, the multifaceted knowledge in a foreign language. Video can be used as the most valuable aid in this whole learning process.

According to Schwartz (1991: 16), there are numerous benefits of using video in a language class, for example; immediacy, visual sense in learning authenticity, and interpreting the meaning of a text.

Lonergan (1984: 41) stated that, printed materials have the great advantage of performance and the learner can keep the text for prolonged study. The language content of the text can be subjected to detailed study; syntax and morphology can be studied at leisure time. But printed materials give students little information about how the language is spoken and also contextual clues are limited. Some other benefits of using video in a language class can be as follows: Sometimes printed texts are too complex and didactic and do not seem to offer the reader, the student an opportunity to comprehend the meaning of a text as a whole. Neither any source of extra or paralinguistic clues nor illustrations to interpret the meaning are provided to supplement the text. However, these visual clues are very important for the comprehension.

1.3. Problem

Students attending language training programs in schools and individuals attempting to learn foreign languages on their own seem to experience common language problems. Generally, their complaints are: They cannot learn new vocabulary easily, they do not understand the spoken language completely, they cannot write anything and they do not have any idea about what they are trying to read. Reading is considered to be the most difficult of the four skills for EFL learners (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott and Wilkinson 1984). Therefore students often face reading materials and courses with anxiety. Because, they get very confused when they can not comprehend the text. As it was observed by the researcher during reading courses, sometimes students partly understand or misunderstand the given texts. When that happens they often respond like "I thought... because we do not see the setting" or "... I have no idea about the appearance of the character, if I had...". This generally gives the teachers the idea to use visual aids in order to help the students, and maybe that is why some of the reading materials contain photographs, pictures, diagrams, maps e.t.c. Fleming and Levie states that (1978: 49) while printed words appear to some perceptual advantage over speech and pictures, the learning research clearly favors pictures over words. This leads reading teachers: to choose reading materials which contain visual aids, stories with more pictures or novels which are filmed and available in video cassettes. Lonergan states that (1990: 3) the benefits that a video recorder brings into the classroom, more producers of language-

teaching materials are designing video tape materials with the classroom exploitation in mind, four or five minutes of video tape material can easily provide enough stimulating input for one hour's teaching.

In this study the effect of using video as a visual aid in teaching reading is going to be discussed. The problem is that with the lack of visual aids, most of the students have difficulty in comprehending the reading texts. In other words this study will attempt to answer the following question:

Will there be any difference between the two groups of students who are exposed to video film segments related with the given reading texts and those who are not exposed to any video film segments and just given the reading materials?

1.4. Purpose of the Study

Visual aids can be used in teaching reading to obtain better comprehension. Margaret Allen (1985: 49) defines video as "a wonderful aid that helps us provide a richer and more varied language environment within which learning can take place".

In real life when we pick something up to read, we usually know roughly what is written and what it is going to be about. We rarely read anything that we are not familiar with. Reading passages in language textbooks are taken out of their normal contexts so we have fewer clues to ask what they might be about and the task of reading with understanding, therefore, is more difficult. Pictures and titles help us to predict the subject matter, but students need both guidance and motivation in order to read with purpose and satisfaction. The way a teacher introduces a reading passage can be vital (Allen: 1985).

The purpose of the study is to find out whether there is a significant difference between the two groups who were taught through traditional reading skill instruction, and teaching reading by using video as a supporting aid in the beginning of the reading.

1.5. Research Questions

The study will supply answers to the following questions. These questions will be considered as the null hypotheses of the study as well.

1. Is there a significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-tests of the two groups of students given before any type of teaching done in the classroom?
2. Is there a significant difference between the mean scores of the control group in pre-tests and post-tests who was not exposed to visual aids by using video?
3. Is there a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group in pre-tests and post-tests who was exposed to visual aids by using video?
4. Is there a significant difference in the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group in post-tests?

The answers to these questions may be considered when designing reading syllabus for low level students, by doing so, low level students will get reasonable help when they are improving their reading comprehension.

1.6. Aim and the Scope of the Study

This study is going to assist Anadolu University Faculty of Communication Sciences prep-class reading teachers to find out an effective way in teaching reading and to make students enjoy reading courses.

To derive some conclusions; the research method has been proven to be given enough reliable data. To show that there is not a significant difference between English levels of the control and the experimental groups, comparing the students' scores in the first mid-term examination, the first quiz following the mid-term examination and using the independent samples of the t-test was found agreeable. The written materials like articles and earlier researches have been accepted as reliable and Valid.

Although the findings of the study cannot be generalized to every EFL situation and EFL students, they may be beneficial to:

- a. Field researchers who plan to do further research on using video in reading skill as a visual aid.
- b. The EFL teachers who wonder about the advantages of visual aids, especially video in reading.
- c. Program developers who look for possible ways to improve reading skills of low level students.
- d. Those teachers who look for applicable teaching reading skill in their classes.

The following assumptions are the starting point of this research: To drive some conclusions, the research method has been proven to be given enough reliable data. To show that there is not a significant difference between English levels of the control and the experimental groups, comparing the students' scores in the first mid-term examination, the first quiz following the mid-term examination and using the independent samples of the t-test was found agreeable. The written materials like articles and earlier researches have been accepted as reliable and valid.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

1. This study was carried out in the Faculty of Communication Sciences involving total 52 prep-school students as study subjects.
2. Only three reading passages were used.
3. There were two group of students; one control group and one experiment group both including 26 students.
4. The students in the experimental group received visual aids by using the video, but the control group only read the given materials without any aids.
5. This study was limited with the given time, and that was 90 minutes for each material.
6. This study was limited to low-level prep-school students.

7. Total teaching time was limited with two weeks in this study. The subjects participated in this study also attended their lessons in the intensive English program and the teaching for this study was done in their extra-time and that was after 17:00 PM. The teaching time could have been longer, however two weeks time is considered to be enough for retention period (Fleming and Levie 1978).

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The definition of reading and the role of reading in a language class will be mentioned and the importance of cultural knowledge of the target language community in reading comprehension will be explained in this chapter.

2.1. What is Reading

Until the mid 1960's, reading instruction could proceed only after students had developed a working knowledge of spoken language, that was because of teachers, trained in the audiolingual approach, who thought that language was speech and reading was simply speech written down. According to this approach, the natural order of language instruction was; listening, speaking, reading and writing. Many language programs ignored the teaching of reading (Silberstein, 1993: 28). Coady noted the importance of reading in this way:

"It has been more than a decade since the linguistic and psychological theories on which the audio-lingual method was based were first called into question, and the method itself is now undergoing intensive reassessment. It is my belief that out of this reassessment, which is long overdue, the role of reading will assume a more significant place than it has had in the recent past." (1990: 23)

Reading was emphasized by the grammar-translation and the direct method. The emphasis was shifted to spoken English by the audiolingual method. It kept its importance completely, because people could contact the foreign culture, technology etc. through reading. It is known that the only place that EFL students use the language is the classroom and the study is done mostly with the textbooks. As Dubin (1996) and Mackay (1989) stated, the teachers should give the necessary importance to "Reading".

According to Lansdown (1985) "Reading is an activity prized beyond all others, except speaking". It is known that reading consists of making out the meaning of written language. Having this statement as a starting point, it is possible to get to some definitions. As Williams says; "Reading is a process whereby one looks at and understands what has been written" (Williams, 1991: 2-3).

Reading is essentially a process of communication from the printed page to the student. It is a thought getting process (Barbe, 1965: 6). Gunderson (1970: 38) indicates reading has been interpreted as the process of translating from which the native speaker can already derive meaning. Though the definitions are quite varied, all seem to grasp the

fundamental idea that to read is to comprehend what is read. It can be concluded that reading is not a simple mechanical skill; it is essentially a thoughtful process. It can embrace all types of thinking; judging, imagining and reasoning.

Sonka (1986: 120) describes reading as:

“Reading is a service skill. Although we may read fiction for pleasure, we often read nonfiction with an eye to performing some other task: The point of getting information and ideas is to use them. Reading thereby serves to integrate a variety of language activities”.

Reading is used in language classes to teach the language. We read for information and for pleasure. As a foreign learner reading is used to help us learn the language, but a native speaker uses knowledge of the language to help him read (E. Williams, 1991: 4). Reading is the skill in which the students will have the greatest ability at the end of their language study. The ability to read will stay with them longer than the other skills, and this skill will be the most convenient to use. It is very important that students should be trained to read for information and that such reading should be geared to work that is expected of them now or later in their field studies (Allen and Campbell, 1992: 173).

Reading is not a single skill but a process comprising a complex set of interrelated skills. These involve:

1. Recognizing English words and to build up an appropriate vocabulary.
2. Identifying sentence patterns.
3. Reading to typographic conventions.
4. Identifying “the longer passages that constitute thought units”.
5. Following and evaluating the development of the information being presented (Mackay and Maunford, 1989: 113).

The first three of these skills are those traditionally taught in the elementary stages of reading instruction. Moreover, the units used in teaching these skills of recognition and structuring correspond more or less exactly to the units in speech sound, or letter, morpheme, word, group, phrase, clause and sentence. Teachers teach the rules by which the units of the language are put together to form the variety of sentence structures permitted in English, and this knowledge makes it possible for the reader with an adequate and appropriate vocabulary to understand the meanings of English sentences. The teaching of the last two skills in the list, the identification of longer passages which constitute “thought units” and the ability to follow the development of a theme are not provided for in instructional materials.

As a conclusion, reading aims a valid goal in the foreign language classroom. The goal of reading is to be able to read comfortably in the foreign language.

2.2. The Role of Reading in a Language Class

As it was mentioned earlier in this study, reading is the most important skill of all for most EFL students. But the role of reading and the use of dealing with reading passages in the classroom should be considered first.

Reading in the real sense is really getting meaning from symbols and reading comprehension is one of the skills acquired. "Reading comprehension" is usually done silently and it is called silent reading. The teacher's responsibility is to select the material which is relevant to student interest and at the same time within the student's knowledge of language. The subject of reading materials should be of high interest and relate well to the background of the reader, since strong semantic input can help compensation when syntactic control is weak. The interest and background knowledge will enable the student to comprehend at a reasonable rate and keep him involved in the material inspite of its syntatic difficulty (Coady, 1990: 12). In reading comprehension, the objective is getting the general idea of the text, reading and then segmenting it into smaller units of specific information. Students with this kind of comprehension should have reached a certain linguistic level of comprehension. The transition from the stage of reading aloud to reading for comprehension is not a sudden one.

Teachers want learners to read for the following reasons:

- i. Learners can have further practice of language that they have already met through listening and speaking.
- ii. Learners can learn how to make sense of texts, in order to extract the information they need for them.
- iii. Learners can practice language in order to re-use it in writing.
- iv. Learners can find enjoyment through reading.
- v. Teachers can relax from time to time in the classroom (Williams, 1991: 13).

The function of EFL reading is to learn to read in the foreign language. If the students do not have the need to use the foreign language outside the classroom, then the students' motivation will be low (Nuthall, 1983: 3). For this reason, students should be given the materials that reflect the authentic purposes for which people do read. This may help them realize that reading involves getting meaning out of a text for some purpose.

2.3. The Role of Visual Materials in a Language Class

Language classroom is one of the worst possible places in which to learn a living language. Realisation of this has led teachers to search for methods and materials which will help overcome the problems of this unhelpful situation. A whole range of inventions- from language labrotories to video cassettes, from magnet boards to armchairs- have been used to try to bring reality to what is an unnatural way of learning a creative, living system of sounds and forms. Hill (1990: 1) states that if a language teacher is not in sympathy with visuals; such as video films or photograhic and drawn pictures, s/he will not be able to help the learners benefit from what it offers.

Visual materials, bring images of reality into the unnatural world of the language classroom. Besides specific lessons in which pictures are the central focus, the teacher will find many occasions on which visuals will be useful for just part of the lesson: as a stimulus for writing and discussion, as an illustration of something being read or talked about, as background to a topic (Hill, 1990: 2).

Learners generally find reading passages boring especially when they are long. Visual materials illustrate elements of a written passage, thus making the reading easier. Hill states that:

“In many ways, looking at pictures and reading are very similar, and as such, mutually exclusive; they may both be used as the starting point for other work, and they may both be used as illustrations of ideas” (1990: 58).

Visual materials are especially helpful when there is a culturally-based difficulty in comprehension.

2.3.1. Video in Language Teaching

Since the 1970's, video has been used in EFL classrooms. Tomalin (1990: 3) defines video: “Video is the sound and the vision recorded onto video tape and played through a video recorder onto a TV screen.” In addition to what Tomalin says, Allan (1991: 49) defines video as “a wonderful aid that helps us provide a richer and more varied language environment within which learning can take place.” Video gives a lot of advantages to the teachers and the students, not only can it motivate the learners; beside this, it gives a chance to variety, interest, and entertainment. These researchers are all show video as an aid. Tomalin (1990: 7) says, “Video is not a method, but it is an aid to the teacher in the same way as the audio tape, the magnet board and flash cards are. Teachers may plan lessons around a video or plan lessons using video as one of the aids.”

Since the 1970's, both ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers have been using films and video-tapes in their classrooms. Since then, the number of films and video-tapes has increased day-by-day. Teachers easily find video-tapes and films according to their teaching purpose. Nowadays, video is an excellent aid in language teaching and it is considered as an extensive source of information.

2.4. Visual Materials and the Importance of Cultural Background Knowledge in Reading

The role of visual materials in overcoming the difficulties in reading comprehension caused by the lack of learners' background knowledge of the target language community is considered to be very important by many researchers. Hill, who considers his role very important, states that:

"Teaching language is teaching the culture of the people who speak that language, and any authentic materials will have reference to objects, places, customs, habits and traditions which are alien to the language learner. It is up to you to make the meaning clear to the learner in the best possible way. If the explanation is accompanied by a visual image - where appropriate - the learner will understand far better: the picture makes the words more accessible." (1990: 15)

Since the late 1970s, a number of studies have investigated the effect of cultural background knowledge upon the comprehension, memory, and recall of texts. It has been shown that when a reader and writer share cultural assumptions and knowledge about social systems and rituals, there is a much higher level of interaction of the reader with the text than occurs when such assumptions and knowledge are not shared (Steffensen, 1987: 43).

Foreign language teachers and theorists have been aware of the fact that students from different cultures will bring different systems of background knowledge to the comprehension process.

Fries was the first American linguist to incorporate cultural background information into a description of meaning. In his analysis, there are three levels of meaning: lexical, grammatical, and sociocultural. Comprehension of the total meaning of a sentence occurs only when the linguistic meaning of the sentence is fitted into 'a social framework of organized information'. For mastery of a foreign language, he argues that "one must find some substitute for the kind of background knowledge he has in his own language" (1985: 100).

But Steffenson and Joag-Dev (1984: 49) explained that there will be cultural interference at the effective level, in the connotative values of words and in the attitudes expressed in, and underlying the passage. Also there will be interference at the denotative level as well, and students must have a rather complete understanding of the background information if there is to be complete comprehension of a text.

Rivers (1978) identifies differences in values and attitudes, especially at the lexical level, as one of the main sources of problems in a foreign language and one area in which significant progress can be made in understanding a foreign culture.

Goodman (1991) stated that "learning to read is easier when the cultural background is familiar and students can draw on cultural information in the decoding process.

Robinett said that;

"Many things enter into comprehension: The students graps of the subject matter of the reading, their understanding of the cultural content implicitly or explicitly expressed, and their ability to cope with the grammatical structures in the passage" (1991: 255).

Language derives its meaning from the situations, or the contexts, in which it is used. A variety of means is suggested for providing the background information needed

for mastery of a foreign language, such as; pictures, films, literature, and descriptions of the teacher's own experiences in the target language.

2.5. Research on Reading Achievement Supplied by Visual Cues

Bransford and Johnson (1972) researched how comprehension depends on the activation of relevant knowledge. The procedure for illustrating how comprehension depends on the activation of relevant knowledge is to manipulate the availability of knowledge and assess the effects on comprehension and memory.

Bransford and Johnson read a passage to a group of students, called the No Knowledge Context Group. After hearing the passage, the group was asked to rate it for comprehensibility and then to attempt to recall it. People in this group rated the passage as very incomprehensible, and their recall scores were quite low.

In the second group, students who first saw the appropriate picture and then heard the passage rated the passage as very comprehensible. Furthermore, their recall scores were over twice as high as the first group's. This group was called the Appropriate Context Before Group.

Bransford and Johnson presented another group with the picture after hearing the passage. This group was called The Context After Group. Seeing picture after hearing the passage did not significantly increase their comprehension or memory scores. This group's comprehension or memory scores were relative to the No Knowledge Context Group.

Bransford and Johnson claimed that the same passage becomes quite comprehensible if one is supplied with an appropriate knowledge framework or context. They suggested that pictorial information provides a basis for interpreting the words and phrases that the passage contains. When one reads the passage in the context of the appropriate picture, it becomes clear.

In 1980's much research focused on using visual materials in teaching reading comprehension. After the movement towards the use of literature in the English language classroom in recent years, literary texts became very common in reading lessons. Brumfit and Carter (1986) conducted a study in which two groups receiving different instructions were compared. This research was about the introduction of the subject matter of the literary text by using visual materials. The experimental group started the lesson by seeing color pictures of the related literary text, then read the text, and answered the comprehension questions. The control group read the text and answered the same questions. In the experimental group there were no subjects who scored less than the average of the control group. The results imply that the subjects in the experimental group benefited a lot from the visual aids.

Carter and Long (1987) evaluated the effect of using visual materials in reading texts which were chosen to inform the students about the target language community's culture. Carter and Long picked up the reading texts below; "The Royal Family", "Pubs in Britain", "English Breakfast". The subjects who were elementary level students, were divided into two groups, the experimental group was exposed to pictures and video films related with the reading texts, where the control group received no visual aids. After the instruction the subjects were given exams papers; including comprehension and vocabulary questions. The mean score of the experimental group was %25 higher than the control group. The results of this study showed that the use of visual materials have positive effect in comprehending cultural information in reading materials.

Finally, Allen (1991) conducted a study in which two groups received different instructions were compared. Reading texts which were about "Leisure Interests" were chosen for a group of adult learners. These texts included some step by step instructions as well (For such activities as; decoration, gardening, origami etc.). The subjects in the experimental group watched video films about leisure time activities after reading the texts, the control group did not see the films and just read the texts. The results of this study showed the significant impact of using video films in reading instruction.

As the studies discussed above suggest, the use of visual materials are great help in reading comprehension and in some cases vitally needed by the learners.

3. THE METHOD

In this chapter; research design, subjects, instrument and materials used and data collection procedures followed during the treatment sessions are presented.

3.1. Research Design

The purpose of this study is to find out whether there is a significant difference between the reading comprehension of the experimental group who was exposed to visual aids by using video films in reading and the reading comprehension of the control group who was not exposed to any visual aids.

In this study, 52 students in two groups participated. There were 26 students in each group, the experimental group and the control group. The reading materials, first, were given to the subjects with the general reading comprehension questions and subjects were asked to answer these questions before the materials were taught in both groups. These tests were accepted as 'pre-tests' and the same procedure was applied for all of the three reading materials "Stunds and Special Effects", "Sky Divers", and "Paramedics".

Later the reading materials were taught by using video films to the experimental group (Group A), and the traditional reading skill instruction (which is held in detail in 3.5.2.) was used to teach the control group (Group B), for all of the three reading materials. The exercises and activities used in the classroom varied according to the teaching techniques. In other words, two different techniques were used with the two different groups, while the materials and questions in the tests were the same in both groups.

The study took 2 weeks, after the study was completed in both groups, the same questions with the same reading materials were given to the subjects and these tests were accepted as 'post-tests'. So, Test-1 followed material-1 which was studied in accordance with the traditional way of teaching reading in the control group (Group B), and the same material was studied in accordance with the teaching instruction by using video in the experimental group (Group A). The same procedure was applied for Test-2 and Test-3.

3.2. Subjects

52 subjects (who were randomly selected) in the Intensive English Program at the Communication Sciences Faculty at Anadolu University, Eskişehir participated in this

study. Subjects were native speakers of Turkish and their ages ranged from 17 to 22. All of them were preparatory class lower intermediate level students and their levels were determined by Michigan Placement Test administered at the beginning of the 1997-1998 academic year. Their scores ranged from 20 to 35 out of 100. Students were divided into two groups; an experimental and a control group.

3.2.1. The Experimental Group

26 students attending preparatory class 4 were in the experimental group. The students in this group were exposed to video film segments in reading lesson.

3.2.2. The Control Group

26 students attending preparatory class 5 were in the control group. The students in this group were not exposed to any video film segments, they only read the given reading materials.

3.3. Instruments

The following instruments were used in this study.

3.3.1. Michigan Placement Test

This is a standard test to place students enrolled in the Intensive English Program at the Communication Sciences Faculty at Anadolu University, Eskişehir in various classrooms according to their level of English. Michigan Placement Test is composed of three parts; listening comprehension, grammar and reading comprehension parts which also contain vocabulary questions. There are a total of 100 questions in this test and each question has the value of 1 point.

3.3.2. Reading Comprehension Tests

3.3.2.1. Mid-term Exam

The students who participated in this study were continuing their reading lessons in the intensive EFL program and they were given official mid-term exam after a complete teaching of 6 weeks. This test was prepared by a group of English teachers who were teaching reading lessons in the faculty of Communication Sciences.

3.3.2.2. Reading Quiz

The students were given a quiz 2 weeks after the mid-term exam as it was planned at the beginning of the fall semester by the group of reading teachers and this quiz was prepared by the same group of teachers (There were 5 reading comprehension questions following a short text and the students were given 15 minutes to answer them).

3.3.2.3. Pre-test and Post-test

The reading texts which were chosen from the book "Sights and Sounds" already presented comprehension questions after the reading texts. The researcher used these comprehension questions (See App.: A-B-C) as pre-test and post-test for each of the three reading texts at the beginning and at the end of the study.

3.4. Materials

Reading and video materials were used in this study.

3.4.1. Reading Passages

In this study, three reading passages and their video films were used which were chosen from the book "Sights and Sounds". The passages are; "Stunds and Special Effects", "Sky Divers", and "Paramedics". The passages were chosen according to the level and interests of the subjects.

3.4.2. Video Cassettes

The video films of the reading materials were recorded in the "Vision" series of 40 film segments of the book "Sights and Sounds". In the film segment "Stunds and Special Effects"; the film sector in Hollywood, the special effects used in films and their creation and the dangerous shows that stunds took place are shown. This film segment was found quite interesting by the subjects. "Sky Divers" was also an interesting film segment. There were sky diving shows in the film which was explanatory for the subjects. The third film segment "Paramedics" was about the non-medical personnel in the hospitals. This film segment was also quite useful for the distinction in the hospitals. This film segment was also quite useful for the distinction of the medical personnel and paramedics, the non-medical personnel.

The reason to choose these reading and video materials could be summarized as follows:

"Stunds and Special Effects" was about the film industry and it was found to be an interesting topic for the subjects because most of the students at the Faculty of Communication Sciences are interested in such topics. The second topic "Sky Divers" was about skydiving. Since sports like bungee-jumping, parachuting and hang-gliding are very popular among young people, this topic was found interesting too. The third topic "Paramedics" was not found very interesting but the film segment was explanatory.

3.5. Procedure

The procedure lasted for two weeks. It started after the first quiz following the mid-term exam of the fall semester of 1997-1998 academic year. The mid-term scores (See

Appendix D) and the quiz scores (See Appendix E) following the mid-term exam were found to be equal statistically in terms of reading proficiency. Therefore the study, in other words, the treatment sessions started for both groups. The subjects were in two groups. Both groups were given the three reading materials one by one. 20 minutes were given to the subjects to answer the 10 comprehension questions following each reading passage. Then their answers were graded and for each subject, the 3 scores given to 3 different exams were added and divided into 3 in order to get their mean scores. These scores were called “pre-test” scores. Then, in both groups the treatment took place and it lasted for 50 minutes for each reading material. After the treatment sessions the subjects were given the same comprehension questions following the reading passages, the passages and the questions were given one by one with the given time, 20 minutes for each passage. Their answers were marked and their mean scores were calculated in the same way before the treatment started. Their mean scores were called “post-test” scores.

It might be helpful to clarify the time and the design of the study with a table showing; times spent on each topic and the technique used in each group (Group A, the experimental group, GroupB, the control group).

Table 3.5. The Procedure for the Research, the Teaching Technique and the Time Given for Each of the Passage are Shown in the Following Table (Text-1 “Stunds and Special Effects”, Text-2 “Sky Diving” and Text-3 “Paramedics”).

	Pre-test for Group A and B	Group A Teaching Reading by Video	Group B Teaching Reading in a Traditionalway	Post-test for Group A and B	Totaltime for each text
Text-1	20 minutes	50 minutes	50 minutes	20 minutes	90 minutes
Text-2	20 minutes	50 minutes	50 minutes	20 minutes	90 minutes
Text-3	20 minutes	50 minutes	50 minutes	20 minutes	90 minutes
Total Time	60 minutes	150 minutes	150 minutes	60 minutes	270 minutes

3.5.1. Instruction: The Experimental Group

In the experimental group, video was used while teaching the material as it was suggested in the course book “Sights and Sounds”. Before watching the video films the subjects were asked to answer some questions about the topics. Here are some examples to the questions asked about “Stunds and Special Effects”: “Do you think that special

effects are important in films?” “Would you take place in a dangerous scene if you were a movie star or would you prefer a stuntman / stuntwoman to take your place?”. These kind of questions were asked subjects to consider them while viewing the video films and the aim of these questions was to introduce the topic, to draw the subjects’ attention to the topic and to reinforce comprehension.

After the pre-viewing questions session, the summary of the material was presented by the teacher. Then, the film was shown without sound and the subjects were asked to answer some questions such as: “Does this film; a- describe something, b- tell a story, c- advertise something?”, and “Does it contain primarily; a- a dialogue, b- tell a story, c- an argumentation?”.

Then the researcher, presented the new vocabulary prior to viewing the film to facilitate the subjects’ comprehension. Then, subjects watched the film with sound. After watching the material, the subjects were given the reading texts and read them silently. After reading, general comprehension questions were answered by the subjects.

3.5.2. Instruction: The Control Group

In the control group, the texts were introduced in a traditional way. Researcher asked guiding questions before reading the texts. Subjects answered the questions and then researcher asked the subjects to underline the new vocabulary while he was reading the text aloud. Then researcher asked some of the subjects to read the text aloud. The new vocabulary was explained by the researcher by giving synonyms and antonyms or miming. The subjects were asked to read the text silently. After silent reading the subjects were asked to answer the comprehension questions following the text.

3.6. Data Analysis

The data obtained from the subjects’ scores in Test-1, Test-2 and Test-3 were shown by getting the mean scores of all tests. The test scores for both groups in the pre-test are shown in Appendices F1-F2, and post-tests scores are shown in Appendices G1-G2. In order to achieve the goal of this study these scores were subjected to a statistical analysis. Since the number of subjects in each group was below 30, t-test for independent samples, to determine if there were significant differences between the two groups in terms of reading comprehension and t-test for dependent samples, to determine the improvement within groups, was applied to compare the scores of pre-test with that of post-test.

The results are given in the next chapter.

RESULTS

4. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the results of the study were analyzed. Since, the number of subjects in each group (Group A- the experimental group and Group B- the control group) were below 30, t-test for dependent and independent samples were used at the 0.05 level of significance.

4.1. Officially Administered First Midterm

The results of the officially administered midterm exam at the Intensive English Program were outstanding in giving clues about the reading proficiency levels of both groups (See Appendix D for the summary of the midterm scores).

Average of the midterm exam was 56.3 for the control group and 56 for the experimental group. The control group scored higher than the experimental group (mean difference= 0.3). Since there is a difference between the two groups, t-test for independent samples was applied to see if the difference was significant or not in terms of reading proficiency (See Table 4.1).

Null Hypothesis 1

Ho: There is not a significant difference between the midterm scores of the experimental and the control group

Table 4.1. Officially Administered First Midterm Scores
T-test for Independent Samples

	n	Mean	Mean Difference	t	p
Control group	26	56.3			
			0.3	0.461252	0.628311
Experimentalgroup	26	56			

at 0.05 level of significance

Although the mean score was 0.3 higher for the control group compared to that of the experimental group, the results of t-test for independent samples indicate that this difference is not significant, ($t=0.46$, $p=0.628$) since $p>0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance. This suggests the reading proficiency level of these two groups were similar. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted.

4.2. First Quiz After the Midterm

The results of the first quiz administered after the midterm exam were more outstanding in giving clues about the reading proficiency levels of both groups. Since, these results were a second criteria, they were analyzed (See Appendix E for the summary of the quiz results). The average of the quiz was 73.07 for the experimental group and 72.69 for the control group. Opposite to the midterm exam the experimental group scored higher than the control group (mean difference=0.38). T-test for independent samples was applied to see if this difference was significant or not in terms of reading proficiency (See Table 4.2).

Null Hypothesis 2

Ho: There is not a significant difference between the quiz results of the experimental and the control group

Table 4.2. Quiz Scores
T-test for Independent Samples

	n	Mean	Mean Difference	t	p
Control group	26	72.69			
			0.38	0.481262	0.679324
Experimentalgroup	26	73.07			

at 0.05 level of significance

Although the mean score was 0.38 higher for the experimental group compared to the control group, the results of t-test for independent samples show that this difference is not significant ($t=0.48$, $p=0.679$). Since $p>0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance, the reading proficiency levels of both groups were similar. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted.

4.3. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

The pre-test scores of the experimental and the control group were compared before the treatment session (See Appendix F1 for the summary of the pre-test scores of the control group and Appendix F2 for the experimental group). The average of pre-test scores was 29.03 for the control group and 28.07 for the experimental group (mean difference=0.96). This difference was examined by applying t-test for independent samples in order to see if it was significant or not (See Table 4.3).

Null Hypothesis 3

Ho: There is not a significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental and the control group

Table 4.3. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

T-test for Independent Samples

	n	Mean	Mean Difference	t	p
Control group	26	29.03			
			0.96	0.471363	0.639432
Experimentalgroup	26	28.07			

at 0.05 level of significance

Although subjects in the control group scored 0.96 higher than subjects in the experimental group in pre-test, the results of t-test for independent samples show that this difference was not significant ($t=0.47$, $p=0.639$). Since $p>0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance, the pre-test scores of both groups did not show significant difference. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted.

4.4. Post-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

The post-test scores of the experimental group and the control group were compared after the study was completed in both groups (See Appendix G1 for the summary of the post-test scores for the control group and Appendix G2 for the experimental group). The average of post-test scores was 55.03 for the control group and 72.07 for the experimental group (Mean difference=17.03). The difference between the two groups was examined by t-test for independent samples in order to see if the difference was significant or not (See Table 4.4).

Null Hypothesis 4

Ho: There is not a significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and the control group

Table 4.4. Post-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group
T-test for Independent Samples

	n	Mean	Mean Difference	t	p
Control group	26	55.03			
			17.04	-8.16166	0.000000
Experimentalgroup	26	72.07			

at 0.05 level of significance

Although both groups improved after the treatment, subjects in the experimental group scored 17.04 higher than subjects in the control group in post-test. The results of t-test for independent samples show that the difference was significant ($t=-8.16$, $p=0.00$), since $p<0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance, the post-test scores are significantly different. Thus, the null hypothesis 4 is rejected.

4.5. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group

The mean score for pre-test in the control group was 29.03 and the mean score for post-test was 55.03 (See Appendix H1 for the summary of the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group). The difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the control group was 26. To determine whether there was a significant improvement between the pre and post tests within the control group, t-test for dependent samples was applied (See Table 4.5).

Null Hypothesis 5

Ho: There is not a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group

Table 4.5. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group
T-test for Dependent Samples (The Control Group)

Control group	n	Mean	Mean Difference	t	p
Pre-test	26	29.03			
			26	-14.7269	0.000000
Post-test	26	55.03			

at 0.05 level of significance

For the control group, mean difference between the pre and post-test was 26. The results of the t-test for dependent samples indicate that this difference was significant ($t=-14.72$, $p=0.00$). Since, $p<0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance, the difference is statistically significant. Thus, null hypothesis 5 is rejected.

4.6. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group

The mean score for pre-test in the experimental group was 28.07 and the mean score for post-test was 72.07 (See Appendix H2 for the summary of pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group). The mean difference between the pre and post-test of the experimental group was 44. To determine whether there was a significant improvement between the pre and post-tests within the experimental group, t-test for dependent samples was used (See Table 4.6).

Null Hypothesis 6

Ho: There is not a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group

Table 4.6. Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group
T-test for Dependent Samples (The Experimental Group)

Experimental group	n	Mean	Mean Difference	t	p
Pre-test	26	28.07			
			44	-22.9847	0.000000
Post-test	26	72.07			

at 0.05 level of significance

For the experimental group, mean difference between the pre-test and post-test was 44. The results of the t-test for dependent samples indicate that this difference was significant ($t=-22.98$, $p=0.00$). Since, $p<0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance, the difference is statistically significant. Thus, null hypothesis 6 is rejected.

When the statistical results were observed it can be concluded that the experimental group who was exposed to visual aids by using video in reading comprehension is more successful than the control group who was not exposed to any visual aids. Since, the experimental group (Grup A) got better scores than the control group (Group B), we can say that using video materials as visual aids in reading comprehension is more useful than the traditional way of teaching reading.

Discussion of the results, conclusions and suggestions for further studies will be indicated in the next chapter.

5. DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

5.1. Summary

The general purpose of this study was to find out whether there were significant differences in terms of reading comprehension between the experimental group who was exposed to visual aids by using the video and the control group who was not exposed to any visual aids. Video materials were used in the treatment sessions of the experimental group, subjects were exposed to a reading lesson in which video film segments were used. Traditional reading instruction was used in the control group, subjects were not exposed to anything new. Three separate texts were studied in both groups and this was called the treatment session. Before the treatment session pre-test was given to the subjects in both groups, this test was given again as the post-test at the end of the study. The aim of this study was to indicate which group of subjects received the most effective teaching. To get this goal some statistical analysis, which will be explained later in this chapter, was needed.

Since another concern of this study was to improve the reading comprehension of the subjects by using video film segments, the instruments used in the study were chosen among video based reading materials. Interpretation, that is the ability to solve the problem of unlocking meanings by adding together a number of associations is very important in reading. As it was mentioned earlier in this study, students need to recognize the unknown vocabulary, to have some background knowledge and to have cultural knowledge of the target language. However, to have this kind of knowledge, especially, in terms of general and cultural background is very difficult without interacting in the target language community. This is the reason why EFL students miss a great deal of authenticity of the original form of the target language. On the other hand, the use of video supplies this kind of knowledge and gives EFL students much information about the target community and how the language is spoken in real life situations in that community. The use of video also provides contextual clues of the given material for effective comprehension where these contextual clues are very limited in a written text. Determining the reference of phrases and words is one of the difficulties EFL students face in reading, however when one reads a passage in the context of appropriate visual clues, it becomes clear what the theme centers around, and also visual clues provide concrete reference for words; e.g. the word "squid" in "Stunts and Special Effects"

material was confusing for the subjects in the control group, but the subjects in the experimental group who saw the video film segment saw what squid was and how it was used as a special effect, so they could interpret better than the subjects who did not have the chance to see the visual clue. "Maneuver" was another example in "Sky Divers" material, as the subjects saw how the jumpers moved in the air they could interpret better than the subjects in the control group. Hearing the language as it is spoken and the visual aspect helps the subjects to interpret the meaning; that is, video appeals to the eyes and ears at the same time. It can be said that video also provides practice in listening comprehension, to have a chance to use the eyes and ears by using video makes the complex verbal situations clear and it also makes the comprehension of the material easier and more effective.

As Tomalin (1990: 100) states the English language is not fixed but constantly changing. The media, TV, radio and newspapers, reflect that change. For that reason alone they deserve their place as part of an English course.

5.2. Discussion

In this part, the results of the study will be discussed. Since, the number of subjects in each group were below 30, t-test for dependent and independent samples were used at the 0.05 level of significance in order to make clarifications by the statistical data.

The subjects in both groups were equal in terms of proficiency level in English and reading proficiency before the treatment. As it is mentioned above, both groups had similar results in the midterm exam and the first quiz following it. There was no significant difference between them in terms of reading proficiency. The mean score of the experimental group in the mid-term exam was 56 and the control group's score was 56.30, however in the first quiz following the mid-term exam, the experimental group's mean score was higher than the control group. The experimental group's mean score was 73.07 where the control group's mean was 72.69. Although these scores were different, the difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, the proficiency level of the subjects in both groups were accepted equal. It is very important to have two equal groups in terms of proficiency level when conducting an experimental study like this. Equal proficiency level of the experimental and the control group makes it easier to see how useful are or are not the materials used in the experimental group. As this could be observed numerically after the study by looking at the subjects' scores, it can also be observed in the classroom while teaching.

Before the treatment, pre-tests were given to the subjects in each groups. The experimental group's mean score was calculated as 28.07 and the control group's mean score was 29.03, although there was a 0.6 difference between the pre-test scores of the two groups this difference was not found to be significant according to the statistical

analysis done with the t-test for independent samples. The difference between the scores of the experimental group and the control group or the difference within the groups should not be stated in the study before statistical analysis. Because the difference may not be significant as it was not here.

After the treatment, the tests which were given as pre-test before the study were given again as post-test. The statistical results of the post-test scores between the two groups indicated that there was a significant difference between the control group which received traditional reading instruction and the experimental group which was exposed to video film segments in reading. This difference was seen within the groups too. The control group's mean score was 29.03 in the pre-test and the same group's mean score in the post-test was calculated as 55.03 the difference being 26. According to the results of the t-test for dependent samples this difference was significant. This indicates that there was an improvement in the control group too. However, the improvement within the experimental group was higher than the control group. The experimental group's mean score in the pre-test was 28.07, and the mean score in the post-test was 72.07. The difference between the pre-test and the post-test score was calculated as 44, according to the results of the t-test for dependent samples, this score was significant too. The post-test scores indicates that the experimental group benefited from the treatment more than the control group, since the mean post-test score of the experimental group was 72.07 and this was significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group which was 55.03 and according to the results of the t-test for independent samples ($p=0.00$ and $p<0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance).

This significant improvement observed in the experimental group, which was higher than the control group, was proven numerically by the comparison of the post-test scores and was approved by the statistical analysis of these scores. As a result, it can be said that the degree of improvement in reading comprehension in the experimental group was higher than the control group. It is a fact that the use of video film segments helped the subjects in the experimental group a lot to get high grades. However, photographs or drawn pictures might also be great help for illustration and clarification of some language points. So video films must not be considered as the best visual support in reading. Photographs and drawn pictures are less time consuming than video and might be preferred to video as they are more practical.

5.3. Conclusion

In this study, the following research questions were answered in the following ways.

- 1- Is there a significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental and the control group?

The pre-test scores were equal according to the results of the t-test for independent samples. The control group:29.03, the experimental group:28.07, mean difference:0.96, $p=0.639$ and $p>0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance.

2- Is there a significant difference between the pre and post-test results of the control group?

The mean score of the pre-test was 29.03 and the post-test was 55.03 with the mean difference 26. According to the results of the t-test for dependent samples, $p=0.000$ and $p<0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance. As these results indicate, there was a significant improvement in the control group too. This was because of the reading materials, the reading materials/texts were short and the teaching time was quite long. Therefore the control group improved more than expected and scored pretty high in post tests, but this improvement was higher in the experimental group.

3- Is there a significant difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group?

The experimental group's mean score in pre-test was 28.07 and in post-test the mean score was 72.07. The difference between these scores was 44 and according to the t-test for dependent samples this was a significant difference, $p=0.000$ and $p<0.05$ at the 0.005 level of significance. As the results indicate the improvement in the experimental group was quite significant.

The help given by video film segments, guiding questions and vocabulary definitions effected this significant improvement, however it can be considered as more than enough to teach a short reading text.

4- Is there a significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and the control group.

The post-test scores were not equal according to the results of the t-test for independent samples. The control group:72.07, mean difference:17.04, $p=0.00$ and $p<0.05$ at the 0.05 level of significance. It can be indicated from the results that the difference between the post-test scores of the experimental group and the control group was significant.

Both groups improved to some extent. However the improvement in the experimental group was considerably higher than the control group in terms of reading comprehension. Thus, it can be concluded as using video as a visual aid in reading helps the improvement of reading comprehension.

Finally, it can be said that using video films in reading lessons means not only a lot of extra work for the teacher but also too much time spent when searching for appropriate films.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

In this study, lower-intermediate level EFL students were used. Further studies can be conducted with other groups such as elementary, intermediate and advanced to see if there will be differences in the results in terms of reading comprehension.

In further studies different video based reading materials on other topics can be used. A study can be conducted in which video films compared to photographs and pictures as visual support in reading.

Since, the effects of using video as a visual aid in reading comprehension is observed in this study through three video based reading materials, in a further study the number of materials and the treatment time could be increased numerically.

Video films which are widely used in listening skill can be used in other skills as pre-activities or in the presentation of a new topic as well. Video films can also be used as illustrations of ideas in essay writing.

Reading materials presented by using video film segments or just video films can be used as a starting point for speaking activities (such as discussion topics) as well.

APPENDIX A

STUNTS AND SPECIAL EFFECTS

NARRATOR: The American action film has depended on the stunt man since the beginning of films. Director Ralph Nelson, in staging his recent western, leaned heavily on a cadre of stunt and special effects personnel. Robert Mitchum plays an adventurous priest who finds himself in dangerous circumstances throughout. Rita Hayworth is the Senora de la Plata. Stuntmen will often double or stand-in for a star where the action is physically tiring or hazardous. During rehearsal, the stunt director and his men examine ways to perform the stunts assigned by the director. Little known is the detailed preparation which goes into construction of a single gunfight. After the blood pack is taped in place, a small charge, called a squid, is placed on top. A piece of fiberboard is then placed over the squid to protect the stuntman. A wire is connected to the squid inside the shirt through the sleeve to a button hidden in the palm of his hand. A battery supplies the necessary current to detonate the small charge.

INTERVIEWER: What is - exactly is going to happen with you in this scene? What are they rigging you for?

STUNTMAN: Well, they're putting - uh - squids - uh, it'll be a bullet effect.

INTERVIEWER: Is there blood in there?

STUNTMAN: I think there's blood in there. The blood'll spurt and form the machine gun; then I fall back down the steps - dead.

INTERVIEWER: How many - how many bullets are going to hit you?

STUNTMAN: Three in the front - I guess there will be three total, but there will be three squids in the front and three in the back. The blood will go both ways.

NARRATOR: Meanwhile, special effects technicians prepare areas for the explosions needed in the sequence. A detonator is placed in the hole where an explosion will occur. White powder is sprinkled on top, and over that, harmless pieces of cork are broken up to represent the exploding ground.

INTERVIEWER: What are you doing to the horse there?

MAN: I'm putting cotton in his ears so the explosion isn't too bad on him.

NARRATOR: Trees are prepared in the same way - the explosions are triggered when a small amount of white powder is detonated. A final touchup - now the director and his cameraman are ready to film the sequence. So the next time you think you've had a hard day, think of - the stuntman.

Comprehension Questions

- 1- When there is a squid on a stundman's chest, how does he detonate it?
- 2- In which cases do the stundmen do their job?
- 3- What do the stundmen do during the reharsal?
- 4- What are the details of constructing a single gun fight?
- 5- What do the specialists do to protect the stundman when placing a squid?
- 6- How were the explosions prepared?
- 7- Where do the technitions place detonators for the explations?
- 8- Why did the man put cotton in the horse's ears?
- 9- Why do stundmen stand in for actors?
- 10- What kind of life do you think a standman has?

APPENDIX B

SKY DIVERS

NARRATOR: Since its early beginning SKYDIVING has developed from a sport of individual daredevils to a team sport where groups train and compete together throughout the country - and the world. Kevin Brady is one of America's outstanding skydiving cinematographers. He's been jumping for 13 years and has over 1,200 jumps to his credit, many of them with the helmet camera he uses to photograph the nation's outstanding skydiving teams. His films are often used in feature motion pictures and in television. Skydiving clubs use them to study their own team - jumpers refine their maneuvers and diving techniques, just as a football team will watch the films of last week's game to improve for next week.

BRADY: Most of these jumps we make are between ten and twelve thousand feet, and this allows plenty of time in the air. We generally have about a full minute of time that we're falling, so you've got a minute's worth of camera time to snoop around and swoop around and try to get where you want. I try to shoot at true time which is 24 frames a second - I'm trying to get or capture all the speed and the real time - a view of what it really looks like to be out there in the air. The cameras that I use are 16mm cameras. Generally, the most I'll shoot on - on one jump is forty or fifty feet.

NARRATOR: To be a skydiving photographer, you need to be better than the best jumper in the air.

BRADY: Years ago, I remember we'd get out of the airplane and there'd only be two or three people in the air, but now the changing is going on each year to team jumping. The activity now is in groups of ten to often more than 20 jumpers at a time; and this, this sure adds a lot to the excitement of what happens on the way down. I've noticed just in the last five years, how the jumpers - their individual skills have improved so much. There's jumpers starting out today with maybe a year or two experience that can do much better and perform better than jumpers that took maybe five or six years to learn what they've learned in two years.

NARRATOR: A recent daring innovation is the maneuver in which the 10 men form a circle, break into a straight line, then group into two circles called stars. They then regroup into the original formation before opening their chutes.

During the past ten years parachutes of improved aerodynamic design have added confidence to the jumpers and flexibility to the diving. With the increase in the number of parachute clubs, skydiving has become more available to anyone wanting to try it - and also more fun, according to the jumpers.

Comprehension Questions

- 1- How has skydiving changed?
- 2- Who is Kevin Brady?
- 3- How long has he been jumping?
- 4- How do jumpers train themselves?
- 5- What does Kevin do before he begins to shoot with his camera in the air?
- 6- What has he noticed in the last five years?
- 7- How does he compare new starters with a year or two experience?
- 8- What has added confidence to the jumpers?
- 9- Why do people like to skydive?
- 10- Why must you use a parachute?

APPENDIX C

PARAMEDICS

There has always been a desperate need for immediate help between the time when accident or illness strikes and the victim can get to a hospital. The paramedic answers that need.

For rookie Pat Sullivan, this is the first time his long months of training will be put to the test.

Paramedics are non-medical personnel trained to give emergency medical treatment. Pat Sullivan's training began five months ago at Harbor General Hospital in Los Angeles, under the supervision of doctors and critical care nurses.

After intensive classroom training, Pat Sullivan went into a hospital emergency room. There he was exposed to the wide range of cases he will encounter in the field.

He learned to operate the equipment and master the medical procedures he will need to save lives.

(BACKGROUNDCONVERSATION)

In Los Angeles, there are 200 firemen, who have volunteered to become paramedics. Similar training is being given to thousands of people throughout the country.

Now, for the first time away from the protected environment of his hospital training, Pat Sullivan starts his internship in the real thing.

(BACKGROUNDCONVERSATION)

The paramedic team has the capacity for most emergency procedures. They carry a radio to establish contact with a doctor in the hospital, a defibrillator in case the victim's heart stops, and an EKF machine to record the electronic current produced by the action of the heart muscle.

(BACKGROUNDCONVERSATION)

As they work, back - up fire department units arrive and begin support action.

(BACKGROUNDCONVERSATION)

Once a preliminary diagnosis of heart attack is made, contact is established with the hospital.

(BACKGROUNDTELEPHONECONVERSATION)

Working as a team, the paramedics become the eyes and ears for the doctor who, by law, is the only one who can authorize some emergency procedures.

(CONVERSATION)

Suddenly the heart stops. Pat Sullivan begins immediate massage while one partner administers oxygen and the other gives intravenous saline solution to counter the effects of shock.

(CONVERSATION)

Using specially designed radio equipment they transmit the data on the victim's life functions directly to the hospital.

(CONVERSATION)

The paramedic works against time and location. Not only must he be able to apply his newly learned medical skills, but also effect the rescue of the victim from frequently difficult locations.

For Pat Sullivan this stranger has become his primary responsibility.

Even during the race to the hospital, the paramedic continues to monitor and transmit data - ready to respond instantly to a sudden change in the patient's condition.

Pat Sullivan cannot guarantee that this man will live. He does know that he and 200 other paramedics in Los Angeles County are making the possibility of survival much greater.

Comprehension Questions

- 1- When do we need paramedics?
- 2- Who is Pat Sullivan?
- 3- What are paramedics?
- 4- Where was Pat trained?
- 5- Do the paramedics work in the hospitals?
- 6- What are the equipment of a paramedic team?
- 7- Why do they carry an EKG machine?
- 8- What did Pat do during the race to the hospital?
- 9- What kind of data do they transmit during the way to the hospital?
- 10- Describe what paramedics do with heart attack cases?

APPENDIX D
Mid-Term Scores of Both Groups

Number of Subjects	Control Group	Experimental Group
1	54	30
2	66	62
3	60	62
4	88	38
5	36	46
6	74	42
7	68	28
8	22	62
9	72	20
10	80	50
11	36	80
12	84	58
13	50	56
14	60	52
15	60	58
16	61	64
17	54	60
18	42	52
19	34	66
20	80	68
21	20	70
22	46	60
23	58	60
24	52	78
25	53	80
26	54	54

APPENDIX E
Quiz Scores of Both Groups

Number of Subjects	Control Group	Experimental Group
1	50	81
2	65	80
3	70	73
4	64	94
5	71	59
6	70	77
7	46	89
8	85	31
9	33	80
10	68	86
11	90	61
12	74	92
13	82	62
14	70	83
15	84	90
16	81	80
17	73	74
18	64	61
19	80	57
20	89	90
21	93	50
22	76	59
23	71	71
24	92	58
25	90	86
26	59	76
MEAN	72.69	73.07

APPENDIX F1

Pre-test Scores of the Control Group

Number of Subjects	Pre-test			
	TEST1	TEST2	TEST3	Mean Scores
1	35	35	50	40
2	35	40	30	35
3	40	20	60	40
4	30	10	20	20
5	35	35	20	30
6	50	30	40	40
7	40	55	25	40
8	30	25	35	30
9	30	40	20	30
10	35	20	35	30
11	30	30	30	30
12	15	25	50	30
13	10	15	35	20
14	20	30	40	30
15	35	10	45	30
16	15	25	20	20
17	35	30	25	30
18	20	15	25	20
19	30	35	25	30
20	15	15	30	20
21	25	15	20	20
22	20	30	10	20
23	40	20	30	30
24	25	35	30	30
25	50	20	50	40
26	15	20	25	20

APPENDIX F2**Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Group**

Number of Subjects	Pre-test			
	TEST1	TEST2	TEST3	Mean Scores
1	50	40	30	40
2	20	35	35	30
3	30	50	40	40
4	10	15	5	10
5	20	45	25	30
6	45	45	30	40
7	30	50	40	40
8	15	20	25	20
9	30	30	30	30
10	35	25	30	30
11	20	40	30	30
12	35	25	30	30
13	15	20	25	20
14	30	40	20	30
15	25	30	35	30
16	20	10	30	20
17	40	30	20	30
18	35	20	35	30
19	20	10	30	20
20	30	20	40	30
21	20	20	20	20
22	40	20	30	30
23	25	25	10	20
24	20	10	30	20
25	25	30	35	30
26	35	25	30	30

APPENDIX G1**Post-test Scores of the Control Group**

Number of Subjects	Post-test			
	TEST1	TEST2	TEST3	Mean Scores
1	50	40	60	50
2	60	50	60	57
3	55	55	70	60
4	35	40	45	40
5	60	45	75	60
6	70	50	40	60
7	45	60	75	60
8	50	55	75	60
9	50	75	55	60
10	60	65	55	60
11	50	55	45	50
12	30	50	70	50
13	50	55	45	50
14	60	50	70	60
15	70	80	60	70
16	40	50	30	40
17	60	60	60	60
18	60	65	55	60
19	40	70	70	60
20	35	50	65	50
21	65	65	50	60
22	30	50	40	40
23	70	45	55	57
24	40	50	50	47
25	70	50	60	60
26	50	45	55	50

APPENDIX G2

Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group

Number of Subjects	Post-test			
	TEST1	TEST2	TEST3	Mean Scores
1	70	70	90	77
2	60	50	70	60
3	80	60	70	70
4	70	65	75	70
5	80	70	90	90
6	80	60	70	70
7	75	75	90	80
8	80	65	65	70
9	60	80	70	70
10	60	50	70	60
11	65	70	75	70
12	80	80	80	80
13	70	55	85	70
14	60	65	85	70
15	65	65	80	70
16	80	70	90	80
17	80	75	85	80
18	70	60	80	70
19	65	80	85	77
20	90	85	95	90
21	65	45	70	60
22	80	50	80	70
23	70	70	70	70
24	50	60	70	60
25	65	65	80	70
26	75	75	90	80

APPENDIX H1

The Pre and Post-test Mean Scores of the Control Group

Number of Subjects	Pre-test Mean Scores	Post-test Mean Scores
1	40	50
2	35	57
3	40	60
4	20	40
5	30	60
6	40	60
7	40	60
8	30	60
9	30	60
10	30	60
11	30	50
12	30	50
13	20	50
14	30	60
15	30	70
16	20	40
17	30	60
18	20	60
19	30	60
20	20	50
21	20	60
22	20	40
23	30	57
24	30	47
25	40	60
26	20	50

APPENDIX H2

The Pre and Post-test Mean Scores of the Experimental Group

Number of Subjects	Pre-test Mean Scores	Post-test Mean Scores
1	40	77
2	30	60
3	40	70
4	10	70
5	30	90
6	40	70
7	40	80
8	20	70
9	30	70
10	30	60
11	30	70
12	30	80
13	20	70
14	30	70
15	30	70
16	20	80
17	30	80
18	30	70
19	20	77
20	30	90
21	20	60
22	30	70
23	20	70
24	20	60
25	30	70
26	30	80

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