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Student Perceptions of Strategies Used for Reading Hispanic Literature:
A Case Study

Rebecca L. Brazzale

A thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

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ABSTRACT

Student Perceptions of Strategies Used for Reading Hispanic Literature: A Case Study

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This qualitative study investigated the experiences of students during their reading tasks for their university Spanish courses during the Fall 2013 semester at Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah. The purpose of this research was to explore what types of reading strategies university Spanish students use during literary readings tasks and their perceptions of the reading strategies they use. This case study employed stimulated recall protocol interviews, student reading logs and student notes in texts. Interviews were conducted within 24 hours of the reading, while reading logs and notes were completed during the reading. The data collected were analyzed for recurring patterns. Results suggested that students employ a variety of reading strategies but are less aware of metacognitive and affective strategies. Furthermore, it was found that individual affective factors such as stress, fatigue, frustration, confidence level and motivation might have a greater impact on strategy use than proficiency in the second language. Assessment and time constraints were also found to affect strategy implementation suggesting a strong washback in the foreign language classroom. Finally, participant comments demonstrated that students perceive reading in the foreign language class to be a pragmatic stepping-stone towards individual learning goals that may differ from the learning outcomes of a literature course.

Keywords: foreign language education, second language acquisition, literature, reading, reading strategies, motivation, affect, assessment, washback, university curriculum, student perceptions, foreign language proficiency, motivation, anxiety, differentiation

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In the field of foreign language (FL) education, reading has become an important topic because it has proven to be challenging for many FL students. One specific strand of research of reading in the second language has been to document the use of specific strategies by the student. While most research has focused on English as a Second Language (ESL), research on reading in either the first language (L1) or the second (L2) has shown to be generalizable to many different situations (Eskey, 2005). However, few studies have explored the role of student perceptions of specific strategies and how these perceptions affect the reading process. Therefore, this study endeavors to record the use of reading strategies by university FL students and how their perceptions affect their strategy choice.

Statement of the Problem

The present research has been designed to inform modern foreign language teachers as they work to better articulate their programs to meet the needs of students reading in the target language (TL). In its 2007 report *Foreign languages and higher education: New structures for a changed world*, the Modern Language Association (MLA) made a case for restructuring university level foreign-language programs to bring together the language curriculum with the literature curriculum, with tenure-track literature professors working more closely with language instructors in non-tenure-track positions. The report advocates against the “two-tier system,” in which literary study “monopolizes the upper-division curriculum, devalues the early years of language learning, and impedes the development of a unified language-and-content curriculum across the four-year college or university sequence” (p. 3). Instead, the MLA promotes an articulated program “to produce unified, four-year curricula that situate language study in

cultural, historical, geographic, and cross-cultural frames” with “a series of complementary or linked courses that holistically incorporate content and cross-cultural reflection at every level” (p. 5).

Specifically in the case of reading, program articulation may be especially difficult. In many current university FL programs, such as in the Department of Spanish and Portuguese at Brigham Young University, graduate student instructors teach most lower-division courses. While the majority of these individuals are highly proficient in the target language, some may not have yet mastered pedagogical methods. In the case of reading, for example, many instructors are unaware of a variety of teaching methods, and as a result their students are left to their own efforts to discover effective techniques. This may cause a disconnect as students reach upper-level foreign language courses where their professors expect them to interpret content meaning and text intricacies as independent FL readers.

For example, during interviews conducted by the researcher in a recent pilot study of an upper-division Spanish class, both students interviewed described their professor handing out the assigned reading without giving them any pre-reading guidance before the due date (Pilot-study interviews, August 1, 2013). This expresses the assumption that students are able to navigate the FL reading on their own and implies an expectation for autonomous application of reading strategies. As only 6.1% of FL majors go on to receive doctoral degrees, (MLA p. 5), many students may not consider literature as a priority and may need more specific guidance during reading tasks. This suggests that reading strategies need to be an explicit element of FL pedagogy. To assist in this endeavor, the MLA argues for the presence of literature, linguistic and pedagogy professionals working together, all contributing to the content and teaching methods in all levels of foreign language study, from the first year onward (pp. 6-7). This could

provide the needed articulation to better prepare students as they approach third and fourth year FL literature courses.

Purpose of the Study

The current research is driven by the concept that documentation of the experiences of FL students during reading activities can support university FL departments to not only articulate their curriculum to better meet the needs of students' overall proficiency goals, but to also help students acquire the appropriate reading strategies that will assist them in upper-division courses. In some instances, when a student is making the jump from novice to intermediate or from intermediate to advanced, reading may be especially difficult. This may be caused by a significant increase in the difficulty of the texts, a heightened expectation for language proficiency, and unknown or unrealistic expectations from both the teacher and the student. Because of these factors, students are often compelled to employ a variety of strategies that may or may not be effective in improving their L2 proficiency. As Oxford and Nyikos (1989) state, "unlike most other characteristics of the learner, such as aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality, and general cognitive style, learning strategies are really teachable" (p. 291). Thus, it is "imperative that we as teachers learn what to expect and what needs improvement in our reading curricula" (Lee-Thompson, 2008, p. 703). As we observe students reading in the FL, we can gain a better understanding of how to assist them, and consequently provide them with more successful reading opportunities.

Study Overview

This qualitative study examined the experiences of four, monolingual university students during their literary reading tasks for their university Spanish courses during the Fall 2013 semester at Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah. Two students were enrolled in Spanish

205: *University Spanish 3* (SPAN 205), an Intermediate level course, while two students were enrolled in Spanish 339: *Introduction to Spanish Literature* (SPAN 339), an Advanced level course. In each of these courses students were required to read a variety of texts as part of the course curriculum, but this study focused only on literary texts. Using case study methodology, this research employed a background interview, three stimulated recall protocol interviews, student reading logs and student notes in texts. Interviews were conducted within 24 hours of the reading, while reading logs and notes were completed during the reading. The data collected were analyzed for recurring patterns.

The current research was focused on the following questions. These questions will be explained in more detail later on:

1. What type of reading strategies do university Spanish students use during a literary reading task?
2. In what ways are students' perceptions of specific reading strategies related to their strategy use?

Chapter 2

Review of Relevant Literature

This literature review will briefly address relevant issues in student foreign language (FL) reading at the university level, followed by student opinions of reading in the FL. Afterwards, foreign language reading strategies will be discussed, including the classification of learning strategies, recorded student-use of strategies, and their perceptions of those strategies. Finally, I will briefly consider the role of affective factors in reading strategy use and end with an explanation of my research questions.

The Role of Literature in the Foreign Language Classroom

Literature is a very common element of almost all university FL programs in the upper levels. Most students who decide to study a FL will take at least one literature course that guides them through the standard works in that language. Still, not everyone agrees on the role literature should play during language acquisition. In an era when communicative competence is the new pedagogical focus, some see literature as only one element of L2 acquisition. In their chapter entitled “Literature in the communicative classroom,” Pachler and Allford (2000) point out that literature is no longer automatically accepted as an essential part of the modern language classroom: “Scepticism about the practical linguistic usefulness of the study of literature . . . [has been] partly justified. . . [in that] practical competence in the TL [target language] . . . [has] seemed to be developed in parallel with literary studies rather than as a consequence of them” (p. 238). Still, they argue that literature has a place in the communicative classroom, because “literary texts embody the TL in authentic use and can provide insights into social and cultural dimensions of the country where it is spoken” (p. 238). Although these researchers believe that literature has a place in the FL classroom, they do suggest that not all individuals value L2

literature with the same intensity as perhaps that of the professor. This difference may lead to a disconnect in reading purpose between the professor and student, which if not properly addressed, could cause less focused reading approaches on the part of the student.

Student perceptions of reading literature in the foreign language classroom. One study in particular elicited FL student opinions about the contributions of literary works to FL learning. Martin and Laurie (1993) gave questionnaires to and interviewed 45 university students enrolled in an intermediate French course. Through their investigations, they found that student motivations for learning French were predominantly “practical” (p. 190). Some of these practical motivations included desires to improve speaking abilities, travel to a French-speaking country and improve employment opportunities. They explained:

Students’ reasons for studying French were more related to linguistic than to cultural interests. All wanted to improve their speaking and understanding skills in the language, and most saw a strong connection between learning the language and travel and, to a slightly lesser extent, employment. (p. 190)

Furthermore, only four out of the 45 students listed the study of literary works as one of their most important reasons for studying French (p. 195), with 71% of students reporting a desire to improve speaking and understanding while only 55% identified enjoyment of the subject (p. 190). This demonstrates a more “instrumental” motivation for language learning (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) that may differ than that of the professors. Martin and Laurie explain:

Notwithstanding this student preference for the pragmatic aspects of language study, university language programs and teachers are still largely committed to a literary agenda, with language skills seen as ancillary to the goals of literary appreciation, analysis and theory. (pp. 188-189)

Still, it is important to note that while only 16% of students labeled literature as “very important,” none categorized the study of literature as “not at all important” (p. 195). The researchers concluded from this finding that while intermediate students may not feel prepared to approach the literary texts at their current proficiency, they do view literature as an element of FL learning about which they may be more interested as their language skills improve.

The concept of motivation for reading is very closely connected with purpose for reading. Linderholm (2006) states that “reading proceeds very differently depending on the reader’s purpose for reading,” and often “students do not effectively alter their cognitive processing to meet specific educational goals” (p. 70). For example, Linderholm designed a study to investigate the varying “standards of coherence,” or ways in which purposes for reading influence a reader’s cognitive processing and strategy use. She used verbal protocols to record the differences between reading for entertainment purposes and reading for study purposes in English as a native language. She found that low working-memory readers, or those who employed less effective cognitive resources when reading, employed less effective reading strategies than high working-memory readers. This difference only occurred when participants read for study purposes. Low working-memory participants re-read more often and “de-emphasized a comprehension monitoring strategy” (p. 73). They also made fewer inferences and paraphrased less, and consequently demonstrated less recall from their reading. Thus, although they spent more time on the reading and acknowledged that “reading something for study purposes requires *something* different” (p. 73), these readers gained few comprehension benefits. Often times, FL students acknowledge that reading the FL requires “something different,” but they are not aware of what differences in approach are most useful to their purposes or the learning outcomes of the literature course. As a result, the students may employ reading

strategies that do not successfully guide them to information important for successful reading comprehension.

Foreign Language Reading Strategies

In order to better understand the context of reading strategy use in the FL classroom, I will first address the primary classifications of reading strategies and language learning strategies in general. I will then explore student's use of reading strategies, followed by their awareness of the various strategies and their perceptions about specific strategies.

Strategy classification. Research on reading has primarily classified reading strategies into three different categories: bottom-up, top-down and interactive models. "Bottom-up" strategies are described by Eskey (2005) as a process "in which the reader is assumed to decode precisely . . . from left to right, from letters into words, and from words into larger grammatical units in retrieving the writer's meaning" (p. 564). "Top-down" strategies on the other hand occur when readers "do not decode in precise or sequential fashion but instead attack the text with expectations of meaning developed before and during the process, [and] take in whole chunks of text" (p. 564.) Finally, "interactive models" suggest that neither one of the previously mentioned types of strategies occurs in isolation but instead often occur simultaneously. It has, however, been shown that successful L2 readers often employ more top-down strategies than bottom-up strategies (Lee-Thompson, 2008).

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) group general language-learning strategies into five different categories: cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, and compensation. Cognitive strategies are used for "associating new information with existing information," and metacognitive strategies are for "exercising 'executive control' through planning, arranging, focusing and evaluating . . . [the] learning process" (291). Affective strategies include those dealing with feelings,

motivations and attitudes, while compensation strategies are those that attempt to overcome “deficiencies in the language” (p. 291). Finally, social strategies are those used while interacting with other speakers and learners. R. Oxford (1990) created a “Strategy Inventory for Language Learning” (SILL) that incorporates the above mentioned strategy categories into a questionnaire format. While all of these strategies may not directly apply to the reading process at all times, these categories offer a more descriptive quality to the reading process. In the Methods section of this thesis, these strategies have been tailored to fit the parameters of the current study.

Student strategy use. Many studies have been conducted that survey student use of specific strategies while reading in the FL. For example, Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) surveyed 122 undergraduate students at King Saud University in Saudi Arabia who were non-native Arabic speakers. They responded to questions on a background questionnaire and a Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) that explored their perceived use and metacognitive awareness of specific strategies while reading in Arabic. The SORS included 30 questions that related to three sub-categories of reading strategies: global reading strategies, problem-solving strategies and support reading strategies. Global strategies were described as “general” reading strategies that “are aimed at setting the stage for the reading act,” such as having a purpose for reading or previewing the content. Problem-solving strategies were those such as re-reading or checking for better understanding, which attempt to remedy problems with deeper understanding of the text content. Lastly, support strategies were defined as tools used to “maintain responsiveness to reading,” such as taking notes, dictionary use, or reading aloud (p. 237).

Results from the questionnaires indicated that all strategies included were used at a “high-usage” or “moderate-usage” level (p. 239). Furthermore, students reported a preference for problem-solving strategies followed by global strategies. The five most used strategies were re-

reading, paying closer attention during difficult sections of text, getting back on track after losing concentration, having a purpose in mind, and reading slower and more carefully. Some of the least used strategies were reviewing the text first, guessing what the content is about and using figures and tables to increase understanding. According to the authors, a preference for problem-solving strategies “suggests that these readers were, generally, aware of their reading process and capable of taking action while reading in order to overcome reading difficulties” (p. 240). In addition, they propose that high usage of reading strategies is an effect of slower reading in the L2 compared to in the L1. It is interesting to point out that the number of years of university study was directly related to awareness of strategy use, specifically problem-solving strategies (p. 247). This is reported as indicating more strategic reading as a result of more university education. It should be noted, however, that the researchers themselves mention that student perception of strategy use is not necessarily an accurate representation of actual strategy implementation.

Using the SILL, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) surveyed approximately 1,200 undergraduate students studying a FL. The majority of the students sampled (66%) had only studied one FL at the time of the study, and most (72%) were in their first or second semester of university language classes. Two questions guided the research. First, “what kind of strategies do university foreign language students report using?” and second, “what variables (sex, course status, motivation level, and so on) influence the use of these strategies?” (p. 293). Their findings demonstrated that the majority of learning strategies applied by participants were those appropriate for a “traditional, structure-oriented, discrete-point foreign language instructional environment geared toward tests and assignments” (p. 293). The use of authentic language strategies, such as summarizing and getting the gist, were less frequent.

In their conclusion, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) state that “everyone’s use of such strategies [functional practice or authentic language use] appeared to be suppressed by the traditional, academic environment of the classroom -- a setting which promotes and rewards performance on discrete tasks rather than interactive, communicative efforts” (p. 297). This suggests a negative washback from classroom assessment. Furthermore, they found that motivation was the variable that had the greatest effect on strategy choice. This implies that students adapt to the expectations of their learning environment, and are thus motivated to use approaches that will most likely produce desired outcomes within that learning environment. Hence, the authors state, if we as teachers want students to change their strategy use to those we consider more effective, we must conscientiously promote those strategies by our use of assessment.

Strategy effectiveness in the L1 vs. L2. While the above-mentioned studies indicate that certain strategies, primarily top-down or global strategies, may be more effective in the L2, another study indicates that this is not certain. Carrell (1989) distributed a questionnaire to 45 native Spanish speakers studying English and 75 native English-speakers studying Spanish. All participants were studying their respective language at the university level. It was found that “local” or bottom-up strategies had a more negative correlation with reading performance in the L1, but this was not the case for low-proficiency L2 students of Spanish. Furthermore, the native Spanish speakers who were more advanced in English as their L2 reported a correlation between effective reading and “global,” or top-down, strategies. This suggests that lower proficiency in the L2 may require more bottom-up strategies, while higher L2 proficiency does not. Even though more research is needed to confirm these findings, Carrell demonstrates that students may

naturally employ what strategies suit them best, using different types of strategies at different proficiency levels according to their needs.

Carrell (1991) also conducted an additional study with the same 45 native Spanish speakers studying English, and 75 native English-speakers studying Spanish as the previous study. The researcher distributed two reading passages in each of the two languages to the participants and gave them ten multiple-choice questions about each text to measure the effects of L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency on L2 reading ability. Through quantitative analyses Carrell concludes that L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency are both significant predictors of L2 reading ability (p. 166). Furthermore, she found that the participants performed overwhelmingly better with texts of their native languages, but found that the English-speaking participants were not as proficient while reading in Spanish as the Spanish-speaking participants were while reading in English. She suggests several possible explanations for this: the difference between L2 environments and FL environments, the directionality of learning, and the absolute level of proficiency. Carrell concluded that the last factor may be the more plausible explanation.

Strategy use according to L2 proficiency. Tsai, Ernst, and Talley (2010) conducted a study to examine the influence of L1 reading and L2 proficiency on L2 reading comprehension, assessing the different use of reading strategies among students of different L2 proficiencies. Their findings are similar to those of Carrell (1991). Various proficiency and reading comprehension tests were administered to 271 Chinese students in Taiwan who were studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Quantitative analyses showed that reading strategy use differed among “skilled” and “less-skilled” readers in the L2, and this difference was “highly significant” (p. 14). Furthermore, they concluded that L2 language proficiency significantly affected L2 reading comprehension. Still, the authors did not clearly define the term “skilled”

and seemed to use this term interchangeably with “proficient” when answering their research questions. Because of this, they do not satisfactorily demonstrate the relationship between language proficiency and reading strategy use.

Clarke’s (1980) short circuit hypothesis is one that is still referred to today in relation to the issue of reading comprehension and language proficiency. To start, Clarke used a cloze text and oral reading performance task to test if proficient L1 readers transfer their reading skills to the L2. From this research, Clarke developed the “short circuit hypothesis” which states “limited language proficiency appears to exert a powerful effect on the behaviors utilized by the readers” (p. 206). Furthermore, he proposes that “limited control over the language ‘short circuits’ the good reader’s system,” causing the proficient L1 reader to struggle in the L2. The implication of this hypothesis is that the term “good reader” may not be as useful, due to the fact that good readers often struggle in the L2. Therefore, Clarke proposes that the focus shift to “‘good’ and ‘poor’ reading behaviors” (p. 206). Most of the research cited in this literature review appears to support this hypothesis.

In an additional study Ikeda and Takeuchi (2006) analyzed student portfolio entries to determine differences in reading strategy use among EFL students of different proficiency levels. The researchers concluded that students of higher proficiency levels differed in five ways from those of lower proficiency levels: they provided more description of the strategy, understood better the value and purpose of each strategy, and understood better the situations when to best employ each strategy. Furthermore, they tended to combine strategies together and better evaluate the usefulness of each strategy. One strength of this study was that students were required to demonstrate the strategy and reflect on its use, helping the researchers obtain a more accurate picture of the students’ understanding of each strategy.

Finally, Pookcharoen (2009) used a mixed methods study to investigate similarities and differences in metacognitive reading strategies used by proficient and less-proficient Thai EFL students. Using an Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS) and the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), as well as some think-aloud interviews, the researcher discovered that while less-proficient students used problem solving strategies (reading slowly, pausing, skipping sections, etc.), they used more “support” strategies than global strategies. Some of these support strategies included taking notes, using reference materials and seeking out materials in their native language. This study confirms what others have concluded in that less-proficient readers tend to use more bottom-up strategies. Therefore, the research shows that students of lower-proficiency tend to use fewer reading strategies and in less effective ways, but it is still not clear what drives these differences. This provides support for the current research, which analyzed interviews with students of different proficiency levels to explore not only the reading strategies they use but also the rationale behind their choices.

Student awareness of reading strategies. Although several studies have already been mentioned that examined students’ metacognitive awareness of reading strategies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Pookcharoen, 2009; and Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012), there are a couple more findings worth mentioning with respect to this topic. First, the study by Carrell (1989) attempted to measure metacognition and reading strategy use among L2 learners. One focus of her study was to investigate the relationships between student perceptions of their reading abilities and their use of specific strategies. Findings indicated that “relationships between what are perceived to be effective strategies and the effectiveness of the reading are not as clear for reading in the L2 as they were for reading in the L1” (p. 126). This supports other findings that L1 reading proficiency does not always translate into successful strategy use in the L2. Although students

may be aware of strategy effectiveness in their L1, the difficulties associated with the L2 may cause them to be less mindful of which strategy to implement.

Finally, Mokhatri and Sheorey (2002) argue for the use of the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), which has been mentioned in several studies in this literature review. The SORS was developed by the authors to measure metacognitive awareness and perceived use of reading strategies in adult ESL students. This instrument contains items from these three categories: Global Reading Strategies (those which the learner uses to monitor their learning), Problem Solving Strategies (localized strategies utilized to solve problems while reading, such as re-reading) and Support Strategies (basic support strategies to aid in comprehension, such as using a dictionary and taking notes). Items on this instrument use Likert scales and a scoring sheet to tally responses. The authors claim that the SORS can help students become more aware of strategies and thus help them become better readers. Still, they acknowledge that like any self-report instrument, there are limitations as to the accuracy of the SORS in representing strategy use. Therefore, there is a need for triangulation to confirm its results. This, too, supports the use of qualitative data when examining student awareness of reading strategies, because participant interviews can often explain reasoning that is not expressed through a Likert scale.

Student perceptions of specific reading strategies. In an attempt to show the relationship between reading strategy use and learner beliefs, Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013) administered a self-report questionnaire to 360 first-year EFL students at a university in Japan. Modifying questions from the Survey of Reading Strategies and Motivation for Reading Questionnaire, Matsumoto et al. compared participants' responses regarding their beliefs about environment orientation, strategy orientation and effort orientation. They concluded that "motivations strongly affected the way strategy use and beliefs related to one another (p.

42). Furthermore, they established that their tripartite correlational model accurately represented an “interrelationship between strategy use, motivations, and learner beliefs in an L2 reading context” (p. 42) and could be seen as “a promising resource that can be utilized in the L2 reading context for comprehension development” (p. 46). This provides support for the current research, which attempts to illustrate the relationship between learner beliefs, affect and strategy use for university FL students.

One study that better illustrates student beliefs about different reading strategies in the FL was conducted by Rusciolelli (1995). She distributed a reading strategies survey to 65 third- and fourth-semester university students studying Spanish. She discovered that students reported using a variety of reading strategies, with a mix of what Rusciolelli labeled as “efficient” and “inefficient” techniques (p. 264). According to the results, 81% of students reported simply starting reading and trying to figure out the meaning as they went along. A majority of the students (61%) reported a preference for knowing something about the topic beforehand, while 52% reported using titles to imagine the content and 64% reported looking at illustrations to guess the reading content. One interesting detail is that only 25% reported always or frequently skipping unknown words. Of the sample, 50% reported frequently or always reading every word and looking up unknown vocabulary in a dictionary (pp. 265-266).

Following the initial reading strategies survey, Rusciolelli (1995) administered reading instruction approximately once every two weeks to the students, including lessons on skimming and scanning, contextual guessing and summarizing. Following the instruction, students were asked to rank a list of strategies from the most to least useful. Results showed that students did not agree on which strategy was most useful, ranking seven different strategies as the best. Strategies that received the highest percentage of responses were looking at picture or titles and

making predictions (25%), guessing unknown words by analyzing parts of speech (25%) and relating words to context (22%). Results also showed that more students recognized skimming as a beneficial strategy. This study represents a good start at examining student beliefs, but due to the controlled nature of the survey and strategy instruction, more qualitative data can shed light on *why* students prefer certain strategies to others.

Affect and Strategy Use

Because one of the purposes of this research is to examine what affective factors influence student perceptions of different reading strategies, it is important to explore previous research in this area. For the sake of this study, “affect” will be defined as any type of feeling or emotion. Below I will specifically address relevant research in affect and language learning, including the roles of motivation and anxiety in reading strategy use.

Motivation and language learning. Whenever motivation is being examined, it becomes necessary to at least briefly discuss the work of R.C. Gardner on motivation and L2 learning. Gardner and Lambert (1959) defined motivation as being either “integrative,” stemming from a general interest in communicating with individuals of the target culture, or “instrumental,” with the hope that a pragmatic reward such as employment, heightened status or fulfillment of a course requirement will come as a result of language learning. Upon investigating why students in Barcelona, Spain chose to study English, Gardner (2007) found that instrumental motivation had very little correlation to language improvement. Through a path analysis, he established that with age instrumental orientation may take on a more important role. Still, there was no significant correlation as compared to other factors, such as overall motivation, learning situation, and integrativeness within the group of students surveyed. He also found that the students agreed with questions dealing with integrative motivation more often than with those

exhibiting instrumental motivation. His conclusions, therefore, were that integrative motivation has more of an impact on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) than instrumental motivation.

Still, there have been several critiques of the integrative motivation label as being too static and one-dimensional. Pavlenko (2002) points out that the world is not static, and many factors affecting motivation, such as age, gender and ethnicity, are in fact socially constructed and will differ according to the perspective of the individual. Furthermore, she opines that motivation is not an isolated factor, because motivation and social contexts are constantly affecting and reshaping one another. Peirce (1995) suggests that Gardner's (2007) notions on motivation "do not capture the complex relationship between relations of power, identity, and language learning" (p. 17). He instead suggests that concepts of motivation be replaced by investment, which better demonstrates the ever-changing nature of a language learner, who in one moment appears to be very eager and in another not at all. This can be especially true when considering the role that assessment plays in the L2 classroom, thus creating a complex relationship between motivation and L2 reading in the 21st century learner.

Anxiety and language learning. One useful hypothesis to consider when examining affect and language learning is Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis. This hypothesis conjectures that high motivation and self-confidence lead to high L2 acquisition. Additionally, it posits that low anxiety is more helpful for L2 acquisition. Krashen explains:

Those whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong Affective Filter--even if they understand the message, the input will not reach the part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the language acquisition device. Those with attitudes more

conducive to second language acquisition will not only seek and obtain more input, they will also have a lower or weaker filter (p. 31)

This hypothesis supports one purpose of the current research, which is to explore the connection between affect and reading strategies in the L2. Because reading can be a stressful experience for L2 learners, it is very likely that the affective filter can play a role when comprehending an L2 text.

Another foundational study to consider is “Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety” by Horowitz, Horowitz and Cope (1986) which focused on the premise that “[j]ust as anxiety prevents some people from performing successfully in science or mathematics, many people find foreign language learning, especially in classroom situations, particularly stressful” (p. 125). In this study the researchers organized a “Support Group for Foreign Language Learning” and discussed with 78 university students the role that anxiety played in their FL learning. Throughout this process they developed a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure the influence anxiety played in the FL classroom. Results from the FLCAS suggest that within a FL classroom setting, specific anxieties are manifested that may not normally occur outside of an academic environment. Furthermore, they also purport that test anxiety plays a significant role in FL learning, because the fear of failure and negative evaluation lead to a type of “performance anxiety” that affect the L2 student’s language production (p. 127-128). Still, they propose that anxiety is not simply a product of these fears, but instead “a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings and behaviors” that interplay within the FL learning environment (p. 128). While Horowitz, Horowitz and Cope focus primarily on anxiety during oral production, the current study will demonstrate that anxiety can also influence L2 performance during reading tasks outside the classroom environment.

In addition to the above studies one study focused more specifically on the interaction of anxiety with motivation and reading strategy use. For her dissertation entitled *Anxiety, Strategies, Motivation, and Reading Proficiency in Japanese University EFL Learners*, Miyanaga (2007) conducted a quantitative study that examined the relationship between anxiety levels in students and their reading proficiency levels. Furthermore, she explored to what extent reading anxiety levels impact students' perceptions of reading strategies. Participants for this study were 480 first- and second-year students studying English at a university in western Japan. Four instruments: a practice Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), an adapted version of the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS), a reading metacognitive questionnaire, and a questionnaire of reasons for learning English, were used to measure the relationships between the variables mentioned above. Results were statistically analyzed using multivariate analyses, ANOVAs and MANOVAs.

Eight factors were identified from students' responses on each of the four instruments mentioned above (Miyanaga, 2007). For the current research only the following will be mentioned: Lack of Confidence in Reading, Understanding Text Organization and Gist as Good Readers' Strategies, Rereading as a Repair Strategy, Difficulty Understanding Text Organization and Gist, and Dictionary Use as an Effective Strategy. Summarizing her findings, Miyanaga (2007) concludes that "anxiety may interfere with reading performance in the same way that it has been found to hinder oral performance," despite the claims of previous research (p. 96). She further states that linguistic and affective variables seem to work in tandem, both affecting the other throughout the reading process:

Human beings are not like machines in which malfunctions can always be traced back to a mechanical deficiency. Both linguistic factors and affective factors, such as anxiety,

confidence, motivation, and self-perception of current language ability, interact with one another in complex ways in foreign language learning. (p. 99)

One intriguing result of this study is that students of all proficiency levels seemed to struggle with the implementation of various reading strategies. While most participants reported re-reading a passage when necessary, student responses showed no differentiation between reading proficiency levels for Dictionary Use as an Effective Strategy, a “bottom-up, decoding” strategy, and Understanding Text Organization and Gist as Good Readers’ Strategies, a “global, top-down” strategy (p. 105). In Miyanaga’s study, all students appeared to have difficulty implementing both bottom-up and top-down approaches. This is the case despite the fact that most participants reported the importance of using top-down strategies during reading, which shows that “the use of those strategies had not become fully proceduralized or that [students] were often asked to read texts that were too difficult for them” (p. 106). Still, learners who reported high anxiety towards reading did show a preference for dictionary use, a bottom-up strategy, showing a correlation between these two variables (p. 114).

Conclusion

In summary, a variety of research has been conducted to document the classification of L2 reading strategies and the implementation of various strategies in the FL classroom, but there is much less research that records students’ individual perceptions of each strategy. Furthermore, there does not seem to be much qualitative data that contextualizes the existing research. For example, Oxford and Nyikos (1989), and Mokhatri and Sheorey (2002) attempted to classify strategies according to their intended purpose and their effect on resolving difficulties in reading in the FL. Furthermore, Carrell (1989), and Pookcharoen (2009) explored the influence that L2 proficiency has on reading and strategy use and suggested that bottom-up strategies may be

necessary and helpful for students of lower proficiencies. Still, as they and other research demonstrate, strategy use is very individualized, which makes it difficult to make any definitive conclusions. While Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013), and Rusciollelli (1995) attempted to document student perceptions of reading strategies through questionnaire data, neither examined student perceptions from a qualitative perspective. Finally, as Miyanaga (2007) demonstrated, linguistic and affective variables appear to operate simultaneously during the FL reading process, which supports what Krashen (1982) and Horowitz, Horowitz and Cope (1986) proposed, that negative affect does indeed stimulate negative changes during the L2 learning process. Still, Miyanaga also provides only a quantitative perspective on why strategy use varies among students, leaving us with many questions as to why students modify their strategy use. Therefore, the purpose of the current research is to attempt to provide a qualitative examination in which we can better understand the interplay between the various linguistic and affective variables that cause L2 students to make specific choices about FL reading and strategy use.

Chapter 3

Research Design and Methods

This qualitative study was designed as a case study. This study was synthetic, as all reading strategies and perceptions were documented and analyzed. Furthermore, the aim was heuristic in nature, with no definite hypothesis to be tested. Control over the research context was low, as I was more concerned with the students' own perceptions of the strategies they use and not exact documentation of their actual reading. The reading logs and the open-ended interview format, which were conducted as soon after the reading as possible, allowed the students to read without interference while still communicating their thoughts and actions during the reading.

Rationale for a Case Study

Reading has become an important element of foreign language (FL) teaching, yet due to its primarily subconscious and internal nature, it is difficult to analyze as an outside observer. Because of this, I chose the case study model as the primary design for my research. Case studies, as Ruiz-Funes (1999) points out, allow for “a deep understanding and a rich account of complex processes” such as reading, which other research designs do not illustrate (p. 47). Furthermore, the case study is considered a “valuable tool for in-depth analysis to explore individual differences” among readers (p. 47). This design allowed participants to discuss their experiences in depth and provide a more intimate description of the reading process, which differs from the numerous quantitative studies conducted on reading and learning strategies.

Context for the Current Study

This study took place during the Fall 2013 semester at Brigham Young University (BYU). Students from each of the following courses were asked to participate: Spanish 205:

University Spanish 3 (SPAN 205) and *Spanish 339: Introduction to Spanish Literature* (SPAN 339). Spanish 205 is described in the Brigham Young University course catalog as “Continued development of grammar, cultural understanding, conversation skills, writing, and reading through the study of literature,” whereas Spanish 339 is described as “Readings in modern Hispanic literatures, focusing on formal literary analysis.” In each of these courses, students were required to read a variety of texts as part of the course curriculum, but I focused primarily on strategies used during literary texts. For this study, literary texts are defined as those texts that do not propose to convey factual information. At the 205 level, students read intermediate texts of 1-3 pages and are usually quizzed over the materials in class. Short literary texts (poetry, short story, etc.) are provided at the end of each unit in their textbook. At the 339 level, the readings are assigned and assessed at the discretion of the professor. Due to the focus on literature in this upper level course students are assigned a variety of literature assignments on a regular basis from a variety of sources than differ between sections.

Research Questions

The goal of this research is to document FL student strategy use, as well as student perceptions of these strategies. Therefore, I have developed the following research questions to guide this research. Sub-points that better explain my focus follow each research question:

1. What type of reading strategies do university Spanish students use during a literary reading task?
 - a. What reading strategies are employed by Spanish students of different levels of instruction (e.g. second-year versus third-year university courses)?

- b. Do the reading strategies differ among students of different levels of instruction? If so, what drives these differences?
2. In what ways are students' perceptions of specific reading strategies related to their strategy use?
 - a. What are student perceptions of the reading strategies they use?
 - b. Are they aware of the strategies they implement?
 - c. Do any affective factors influence student perceptions of the different strategies? If so, how do these factors interplay with their perceptions?

Participants

The population for this study consisted of university-aged Spanish learners who are native English speakers. From this population, the sample investigated was two students from each of the following courses: SPAN 205 and SPAN 339. For the sake of this study the participants will be referred to as Tanner, Alyssa, Lauren and Adam. Their names have been changed to protect their identity. Following is more detailed information on selecting participants for this study, including the selection process, criteria for inclusion in the study, and demographic information for participants.

Selecting participants. At the start of the Fall 2013 semester, I contacted instructors of the courses listed above and asked for their permission to come to their classes and recruit participants. After the first week of the semester, when class enrollment had been determined, I visited four classes a couple of times to get a feel for which students might be key informants. With the professors' permission, I approached individual students, stated that they had been selected to participate in the study, and then proceeded to give them the consent form and

answered their questions. I then set an appointment with them for the initial background interview.

Criteria for inclusion in the study. In order to be considered for participation in this study, the individual must have been a current student enrolled in one of the BYU courses listed above. They were also confirmed to be monolingual. For the sake of this research “monolingual” is defined as someone who:

- Is a native English speaker.
- Has no proficiency in another foreign language other than Spanish.

In addition, each participant had to agree with the information contained in the Consent to Participate form and appear willing to share his/her thoughts and feelings with the researcher.

Demographic data on participants. As mentioned above, the participants for this study were native English-speakers who were current students enrolled in Spanish courses at Brigham Young University. It was my intent to find a balanced mix of male and female participants, as well as a mix of those who had and had not served a Spanish-speaking mission for The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (LDS). Due to the small number of females enrolled in SPAN 339, I had limited options for female participants and could not find a willing participant who had not served an LDS mission. I was able to find a male and female participant from each course; both participants from SPAN 339 had served a mission. A biographical sketch of each of the four participants is provided in Chapter 4. Each sketch includes basic biographical information, the participant’s experience with Spanish, and perceptions of reading in both English and Spanish. Their names have been changed to protect their identity.

Data Sources

This qualitative study utilized three different sources to gather data about students' use of reading strategies and their perceptions of those strategies: a reading log, a stimulated-recall interview, and participants' notes written directly into the reading text. Below I will briefly describe each data source listed above, including a description of the initial background interview, which also took place with each participant.

Background interview. An initial interview was held to gather information about the participants' educational background, their experience with Spanish both in and out of the academic setting, as well as their experiences in general with reading in both English and Spanish. The overall purpose of this interview was to get to know the participants, help them feel comfortable with the researcher, and establish a linguistic profile. Instructions for the reading log, as well as a discussion of future participation in the research were also topics during this interview. Sample questions for this interview are included in Appendix A.

Reading log. Following the model presented in the case study of Ruiz-Funes (1999), participants were asked to keep a detailed log while reading, recording both their thoughts and feelings during each of the tasks. The directions used in this study were taken directly from Ruiz-Funes (1999) and are as follows:

During your reading, as well as immediately after you finish reading the assigned material, please write down all you can remember doing and thinking while performing the reading task. Be as specific as you can, especially in relation to what you did to understand the text, what problems you encountered, and what you did to solve those problems. Please note that all the information that you can provide is of value for the study. (p. 48)

Participants received these instructions by e-mail. They had the option of hand-writing their thoughts or typing them directly into an email, but all participants chose to e-mail their answers to the researcher. Examples of reading logs collected are found in Appendix B.

Stimulated-recall protocol. A recall protocol instead of a think-aloud protocol was chosen, because not only does it allow for an open-ended format, but it also avoids stimulating the reader's comprehension or thinking process (Gascoigne, 2002). Furthermore, it "allows misunderstandings or gaps in comprehension to surface" (p. 556). Three of these interviews were conducted with each student, following them throughout the semester and observing how their attitudes and strategies change according to their experience with reading in the FL as well as according to the text type. Each interview was audio recorded and then transcribed later by me. Lauren's last interview recording was lost, but I immediately wrote my notes following the interview and then asked Lauren to confirm my conclusions. Sample questions for this interview are found in Appendix C.

Student notes in text. Finally, the participants' reading texts were also scanned as evidence of reading strategies such as glossing, self-questioning and other notes. An example of Lauren's markings is found in Appendix D. The other participants marked their texts very minimally, and therefore their texts are not included.

Data Collection

Participants spent approximately 20 minutes in an orientation/background interview, the necessary time completing their assigned readings for their class, approximately 20 extra minutes to complete the reading log, and approximately 30-40 additional minutes during each stimulated-recall interview. All interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed for analysis. While interjections, pauses, and stutters were not included, I attempted to include as much detail as

possible. Reading logs were received by e-mail. Excerpts of the texts from each reading were also scanned. I attempted to collect the reading texts with student marks prior to the class, during which the reading was discussed; however, this was not the case for two interviews. The reading logs were obtained from the students before or during their recall interviews. It was emphasized that the reading logs were to be completed either during or immediately following the students' reading, and that the stimulated-recall interview be conducted within 24 hours of when the student completes the reading. Even so, one of Adam's interviews occurred approximately three days after he completed the readings due to a school holiday.

Data Analysis

All data were analyzed qualitatively, and patterns were identified as the means to summarize the participants' experiences. Below is a detailed description of how each data source was analyzed, beginning with the interviews and followed by reading logs and student notes in the texts.

Interviews. To analyze the data, both the initial interview and the stimulated-recall interview were transcribed into typed manuscripts. While interjections, pauses, and stutters were not included, I attempted to transcribe as much detail of the participant responses as possible. Quotes mentioned in the thesis report, however, were transcribed word for word. After the data were transcribed, I used the coding software *HyperRESEARCH* to analyze and organize the data. The initial strategy categories came from R. Oxford's (1990) "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), but some were deleted, modified or added as needed. These categories were also considered as being related to either bottom-up or top-down strategies. In some instances strategies were not entirely distinct from one another, with many of the strategies overlapping

(Lee-Thompson, 2008). Still, these categories assisted me in determining student tendencies and perceptions. A list of categories is found in Appendix E.

Reading log. I coded the data from the reading log in the same manner that I coded the interviews, utilizing the same strategy categories from Appendix E.

Student notes in text. Student notes were discussed during the recall interview and were categorized according to Appendix E. While most students did not make many markings, Lauren's markings were abundant. The majority of her markings were English glosses, but other markings were also used. A discussion of her markings is included in Chapter 4.

Member checking. In order to insure the credibility and dependability of my observations and conclusions, I e-mailed each participant both their biographical sketch and description of individual strategy use. I asked them to read through my conclusions and identify any errors in my analysis. Three of the four participants replied, and where they disagreed with my statements, I revised my summaries to better represent their thoughts and experiences.

Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion

Participant Biographical Sketches

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the four participants in this study were native English-speakers who were current students enrolled in Spanish courses at Brigham Young University during the Fall 2013 semester. For the purpose of this study their names are Tanner, Alyssa, Adam and Lauren; their names have been changed to protect their identity. Tanner and Alyssa were students in Spanish 205: *University Spanish 3* (SPAN 205). The proficiency expectation for this course is Intermediate-High according to the American Council for Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines (2012). Both Tanner and Alyssa have primarily used Spanish within a classroom setting and have not lived in another country. On the other hand, both Adam and Lauren served Spanish-speaking religious missions abroad and have had considerable exposure to Spanish outside of the classroom. They were both enrolled in Spanish 339: *Introduction to Spanish Literature* (SPAN 339) during the Fall 2013 semester. The assumption for this course is that students are performing at the Advanced level as described by the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. While official proficiency ratings were not used in this study, other studies have likewise used instructional level as an indicator of L2 proficiency level (Carrell, 1991).

Below is a biographical sketch of each of the four participants. Each sketch includes a linguistic background of the participant, their previous experiences with Spanish, goals for using Spanish in the future and perceptions of reading in both English and Spanish. Participants will be discussed in order of proficiency, beginning with the students in SPAN 205 and concluding with those enrolled in SPAN 339.

Tanner. Tanner is an 18-year-old freshman with an undecided major. He was recently called to serve a religious mission to Mexico City starting the first part of 2014, about which he was very excited. He took four years of high school Spanish, including three years of honors Spanish, and his family has gone on several cruises to countries including Spain and Mexico. Tanner has no other Spanish speakers in his family, although his dad speaks German. When asked why he chose to take SPAN 205 he stated, “I enjoyed Spanish in high school, and it’s something that I’d like to get better at. Looking back I’m glad that I got in [to the class], because I’m going to Mexico” (Preliminary Interview). When asked what his long-term goals are for learning Spanish, he stated that he would “like to be fluent in it, . . . walk up to any random stranger in a Latin American country and carry on a full conversation with them and not seem like I don’t know what I’m doing” (Preliminary Interview). Specifically, Tanner envisions himself using Spanish either in casual or business settings: “I’m undecided on my major, so I could go into a career where I use it more often” (Preliminary Interview).

Tanner’s experiences with reading. In general, Tanner describes himself as an “avid reader.” Although his current course load prevents him from reading much besides his school assignments, he describes reading for fun when he was growing up: “I definitely enjoy [reading]. I’ll read anything I can get my hands on. I’ve never put down a book” (Preliminary Interview). He considers himself a “pretty good reader” in English and has had no academic challenges due to reading difficulties. Likewise, he considers himself to be a pretty good reader in Spanish, which is demonstrated by the following statement: “I can’t read as fast or as comprehensively as I can in English, but I can figure out what most verses are saying in the Book of Mormon, even if they’re using words that I don’t know” (Preliminary Interview). In this comment Tanner shows

evidence of reading extra material outside of class and also demonstrates an honest self-evaluation of his reading comprehension in Spanish, which is judged by the speed of his reading.

Tanner's perceptions of reading in Spanish. When asked to describe the purpose of reading in his Spanish class, Tanner replied "I think that speaking is probably one of the best ways to learn a language, but reading is a great way to get out of your comfort zone [and] learn words that you didn't necessarily know before. It's a real life application; it's not just writing sentences" (Preliminary Interview). This comment reflects the findings of Martin and Laurie (1993), who described L2 students' motivation for learning a foreign language as "practical", resulting from their desire to improve their ability to speak and understand. Still, Tanner relates his reading to "real life application", which differs from Martin and Laurie's finding that students primarily focus on linguistic interests when reading literature (p. 190). In general, Tanner is a very relaxed individual who seems to take the challenges of reading in a FL with stride. Furthermore, he constantly relates what he is learning to his personal goal of serving a Spanish-speaking LDS mission. Still, it appears that Tanner possesses primarily integrative motivations for reading in Spanish, which Gardner (2007) states is an important factor in improving language proficiency.

Alyssa. Alyssa is a 19-year-old senior who is majoring in math education and plans on graduating sometime in 2014. She studied Spanish in both middle school and high school, but only received a score of a 2 in her Advanced Placement (AP) Spanish course. She has never traveled to a Spanish-speaking country, and even though her father served a Spanish-speaking religious LDS mission, he only talks to Alyssa in Spanish when she is required to do so for a class assignment. Alyssa chose to take SPAN 205 because her two scores on the university placement test averaged out to suggest placement in SPAN 205. This course was her first

Spanish class in three years; however, she felt like she is doing well in the course: “I still remember a lot of the grammar, but I took the Spanish class also because I wanted to start speaking more. I know I'm not good. I feel like I'm ok when it comes to writing it, but just speaking, it gets all muddled up” (Preliminary Interview). Similar to Tanner, Alyssa’s long-term goals with Spanish are related to a future profession. She explained, “I'm going to be a math teacher and I think there's a lot of students that speak Spanish in the schools and I think it would be a good way to connect with them to understand their culture better” (Preliminary Interview). She would also like to visit Latin America one day, and she sees this Spanish class as helping her if she ever does get the opportunity.

Alyssa’s experiences with reading. Alyssa describes enjoying reading. Although she, too, does not have as much time to read for pleasure while in school, she did mention that she had recently set a personal goal to read newspapers more often. Growing up she enjoyed a home filled with books, and her dad reads frequently. When asked to rate herself as a reader in English Alyssa stated, “I don't know, an 8 [out of 10]? I [know I] can read because I know what's going on, but I skip words. I don't care enough to look it up. I'm more for just reading for the story than the vocabulary. [So] I think I'm a pretty good reader” (Preliminary Interview). In Spanish she describes herself as “an OK reader, a 4 out of 10.” Her rationale for this is “I don’t understand a lot of words . . . [and] I look up words a lot. I think I look up words a lot more in Spanish, [but] I usually know what's going on when I'm reading.” In these comments Alyssa uses her vocabulary comprehension as a measure for her reading ability in both English and Spanish.

Alyssa’s perceptions of reading in Spanish. Finally, when asked to describe the purpose of reading in a foreign language class, she stated, “For me at least it helps me with my vocab and I think it also helps develop the sentence structure, because you can see how other people are

using [Spanish] and you can pick up things from it” (Preliminary Interview). It is interesting to note that like Tanner, Alyssa also mentions speaking as her primary reason for taking a Spanish course. She continues, “I think speaking is a little bit more important, but I think reading is important too. Sometimes when you are speaking you don't pick up on things as much” (Preliminary Interview). Throughout Alyssa’s comments, she focuses more on a linguistic purpose for reading, which in her viewpoint will help her speak better. This is similar the conclusions of Martin and Laurie (1993) when they state, “The ability to communicate in the language is seen as far more important than a story of literary culture” (p. 202). Therefore, it appears that Alyssa has more practical, or instrumental, motivations for learning Spanish.

Adam. Adam is a 22-year-old Political Science major who served a Spanish-speaking religious LDS mission to Vancouver, Canada. During his mission, he spoke with the Spanish speakers in that area and lived with native Spanish speakers from Peru, California and Mexico. He, too, is from California and describes having interactions with the Spanish speakers in that area. He has some family members who speak Spanish, and he currently speaks in both Spanish and English with his friends. In high school he took three years of Spanish as well as one class at another university previous to his mission. Adam’s long-term Spanish goal is to complete a Spanish language certificate through his university, because it “looks good on a resume to be able to say you're fluent in Spanish” (Preliminary Interview). Furthermore, he states that he would like to use Spanish to work with others:

I'm not sure if it's going to be a part of my career or anything, but I definitely intend on using it for the rest of my life with people that are around me. I look at America and the way it's going right now; the Spanish language is already one of the more dominant languages in the country and I think it's just a great tool to have. Why lose something that

opens doors? And who knows, I might need it in the future as far as job opportunities and being able to help people. Being in a political science degree, you never know what situations you're going to have or what people are going to deal with." (Interview Reading 3)

Just as Tanner and Alyssa, Adam also focuses on the practical motivations (Martin and Laurie, 1993) of working with Spanish speakers as an integral part of his incentive to continue learning Spanish. But unlike the other participants, Adam views Spanish as an integral part of his life. He stated, "I feel like Spanish is a piece of who I am now and what I want to be. I can't say if I'm going to be speaking Spanish in the work place for the rest of my life, but I do see it as a very valuable asset to me. I want it to be a part of me" (Interview Reading 2). Adam, therefore, exhibits very strong integrative motivations for continuing with his Spanish acquisition.

Adam's experiences with reading in Spanish. Adam has a very positive view of reading in Spanish, and he credits reading as one of the primary ways he learned the language: "I didn't learn Spanish with the grammar book. I learned more just from speaking and reading" (Preliminary Reading). In addition, Adam has had more experience reading in Spanish than the other participants and he proves to be a more advanced reader in the FL. He described reading some news stories in Spanish and had previously read several of his assignments for his current class in a different semester. He considers himself to be a level 10 out of 10 in English, and 8 out of 10 in Spanish. "I don't know every single word. Especially [in] some of these things we read for class, they use a little bit older Spanish, and just some of the vocabulary is a little bit different. There's just some vocabulary that I don't know exactly in Spanish" (Preliminary Interview). Once again, like the previous participants Adam also measures his reading ability by the number of words he does not understand. Still, in comparison with the other participants,

Adam has a considerable amount of self-confidence when reading, and he enjoys the experience. In general, Adam views reading in a positive light and is very motivated. He explains, “I love reading, but mostly I love reading stuff that I want to read. Textbooks get a little boring sometimes, ones that I'm not as interested in . . . but I really enjoy reading a lot when I'm reading at my own leisure. I can read for a long time if it's something I'm interested in” (Preliminary Interview).

Adam's perceptions of reading in Spanish. Adam consistently stated that he enjoys reading in Spanish: “I've found that in different languages you can get different meanings from things. I enjoy seeing how [Spanish speakers] articulate things in their language” (Preliminary Interview). With respect to the purpose of reading in Spanish, Adam's ideas differed from the other participants. He primarily focused on the cultural value of reading in the FL: “I'd say [the purpose of reading is] probably to open up that [Hispanic] world to us as well. I guess by learning all of this stuff we come to understand the culture and the roots of Spanish culture a little bit better, especially because it's a little bit older, and we kind of see their viewpoints through literature and through poetry and through theatre” (Preliminary Interview). Here we see that Adam has been able to appreciate the literary value of reading more than the other participants and is also integratively motivated. This will become more evident as Adam's comments are examined further. Although Adam takes a dominantly cultural perspective, he also mentioned improved speaking proficiency as a result of reading in Spanish. This is in accordance with the other participants' comments and contradicts the conclusions of Martin and Laurie (1993), who found that “the study of literature [was] seen to make little or no contribution” to improving speaking skills (p. 192). In Adam's comments speaking is treated more as afterthought; nevertheless it is still a factor related to reading. He explained, “It also improves

your grammar subconsciously because when you see how it's supposed to be said, if you're smart, you're watching that and your saying 'oh ok, that's how real native speakers speak'" (Preliminary Interview).

Lauren. Lauren is a 23-year-old Communications major who served a Spanish-speaking religious mission in Buenos Aires, Argentina. She studied French in middle school, high school and college before her mission, and but she had not had any experience with Spanish before her time in Argentina. She described taking a foreign language in high school for fun, whereas in college she was initially motivated by fulfilling general requirements for her major. Although none of her family members speak Spanish, her dad speaks Swedish, her brother speaks Russian and German, and her mom speaks some French, all in addition to English. Lauren took SPAN 339 primarily to fulfill a requirement for her major, but also as a way to "keep up" with her Spanish. At the time she had taken two other Spanish classes in addition to her SPAN 339 course. Lauren was planning on graduating in December of 2013 and consequently was not planning on taking any other Spanish courses. When ask about her future goals with Spanish, she replied, "I guess right now I'm only thinking in terms of maintaining what I have and building on it if I can. But it's tricky, but I think it's possible" (Preliminary Interview). Furthermore, she plans on using Spanish primarily in a social setting. Still, if she does find a job where she could use her Spanish, she thinks, "that would be really awesome" (Preliminary Interview).

Lauren's experiences with reading in Spanish. Like the other three participants, Lauren likes to read but with perhaps less enthusiasm. She states, "I wasn't like totally into books all of the time [as a child], but I did read. And I did do it sometimes for fun, although most of the things I have read have been for school" (Preliminary Interview). Often, Lauren reads out of a sense of obligation to her studies. She explains:

I know that most people don't do the reading, but I do the reading . . . I think it better prepares you for class. I think it's just a part of who I am too . . . I feel more prepared for the test, [and] I feel like I can participate a little bit better. In the classes I'm in now I for sure do the reading, 'cause if you don't it's obvious. We have quizzes or tests or the honor system questions, so I don't skip out on the reading. (Preliminary Interview)

Furthermore, Lauren is less confident in her ability to read. This is demonstrated when she explains, "I don't think I'm a really great reader [in English]. I think I'm kind of slow, so-so, average" (Preliminary Interview). Similarly, she claims some difficulty when reading in Spanish. She labels herself as "not the greatest" reader in the FL, and also describes herself as being "a little intimidated" and hesitant to participate in her Spanish class. When asked why, she explained, "Because I don't understand, and whenever anybody else talks about what happened I'm like 'Oh, I thought *this* was what happened,' and that's not what happened" (Preliminary Interview).

Lauren's perceptions of reading in Spanish. Lauren is also less enthusiastic about reading in Spanish, just as she is with English. When asked if she likes reading in Spanish she responded, "Yes and no. I think it really depends a lot on what it is, but I definitely think I feel a lot more stressed reading in Spanish. It just doesn't come as naturally, which is kind of obvious because it's not my first language. It's hard for me" (Preliminary Interview). When asked about the purposes of reading in Spanish, she focuses primarily on the linguistic aspects of the language: "I think it's important to see how sentences are formed. I think it helps to develop vocabulary and syntax, sentence structure, grammar and thinking about how things are spelled" (Preliminary Interview). Here we see that Lauren is focusing on how reading literature helps her deconstruct Spanish grammar. Martin and Laurie (1993) likewise explain:

Students at [the Intermediate level] attack their reading with a language learning mindset in place. They are looking for particular applications of the literature, all of which tend to reflect the content of introductory language textbooks rather than the aims of literary theory or analysis: vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, examples of grammar in use, dialogues, a chance, even, to practice pronunciation by reading aloud. (p. 202)

She also sees some cultural value to her readings, just as Adam stated, but she exhibits the qualities of an Intermediate reader. This was found to create a mismatch between Lauren and her texts, which caused some anxiety and frustration.

Finally, it is also important to mention that Lauren sees her literature class as a “better than nothing” option for maintaining her Spanish. She expressed that she doesn't have a ton of opportunities to speak in Spanish, but when she does, she feels hesitant, because she doesn't know how others will react. This hesitancy is evident throughout my interviews with Lauren, as will be discussed later, and it appears to have a significant effect on her reading. Lauren's somewhat negative self-perception and lack of confidence with reading interact with her anxiety level and influence the use of more bottom-up strategies. This harmonizes with the findings of Miyanaga (2007), who found that “reading anxiety exists somewhat independently from reading proficiency level” (p. 116), and although Lauren is a somewhat advanced L2 learner, her anxiety caused her to use those reading strategies associated with less proficient students. Miyanaga determined that there is “a confounding interaction between affective variables . . . and linguistic variables” (p. 101), and this appears to also be the case with Lauren. Although she is an advanced student in the L2, her affect causes her to behave as an Intermediate student while reading.

Biographical data and strategy use. In summary, all four participants' have many practical motivations for reading in Spanish, such as traveling to the target country, improving speaking abilities and improving employment opportunities. This finding challenges the following from Martin and Laurie (1993) who concluded, "students generally rejected the view that a knowledge of literature might contribute to the realization of pragmatic goals as travel or employment" (p. 202). Furthermore, the students' practical purposes for reading may lead to strategies that do not adhere to the educational and literary goals established by professors, since as Linderholm (2006) suggests, "reading proceeds very differently depending on the reader's purpose for reading" (p. 70).

Because all four participants are very literate and successful readers in their L1, this should positively influence their reading in the L2 (Carrell, 1991). Still, as will be considered later, the level of L2 proficiency, as well as the degree of motivation, leads to a variety in strategy use between participants (Carrell, 1989; Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2006; Matsumoto, Hiromori & Nakayama, 2013; Miyanaga, 2007; Pookcharoen, 2009; Tsai, Ernst & Talley, 2010). As suggested by Peirce (1995), a level of investment may be significant when considering the participants' language use, especially in the case of Lauren. Lauren's investment seems to differ from that of the other participants, as she is coming to the end of her academic training and does not anticipate using it as much to reach her goals. This caused a shift in her motivation and strategy use as the semester progressed and had a negative effect on her L2 reading. Finally, all participants seemed to be very aware of their reading abilities in Spanish, which suggests a high level of metacognition among these students.

Individual Participant Use of Reading Strategies

In their research, Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) and Rusciollelli (1995) established that L2 readers often employ many different strategies with different frequencies. This was also found to be true with the four participants of this study. Although all four participants shared many strategies during their reading tasks, there were some strategies that were primarily unique to one individual. Following is a discussion of trends for each individual participant that addresses their strategy use and perceptions of those reading strategies. Once again, participants will be discussed in order of their proficiency levels, beginning with the Intermediate students in SPAN 205 and ending with advanced students registered in SPAN 339. For each participant, general statements will be made about their strategy use, followed by a discussion of specific strategies that were unique to them. To facilitate these discussions, strategies will be discussed in terms of the following categories established by Oxford and Nyikos (1989): cognitive strategies, compensatory strategies, memory-related strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies, and affective strategies (See Appendix E). For a more detailed description of these categories, see Chapter 2. Along with these examples, commentary is provided to contextualize participants' perceptions of their strategy use with others' research.

Tanner's strategy use. After analyzing Tanner's comments it became apparent that he uses many top-down reading strategies that are primarily cognitive. For example, he predicts the ending, considers cultural influences when interpreting the reading, tries to identify the main idea and considered the author's intent. He also uses imagery when reading, a memory-related strategy, and keeps reading despite not understanding, a compensatory strategy. All of these strategies resulted in Tanner's satisfaction with reading in Spanish. This confirms the conclusions of Lee-Thompson (2008) that more successful L2 readers use more top-down

strategies. He did use Google Translate frequently, a bottom-up, cognitive strategy, but upon further examination, it is apparent that he was beginning to evaluate his use of this strategy. Often Tanner tries to translate the text into English in his head, create associations with other material, and understand from context before using the translator. Although Tanner is not an advanced speaker of the language, he shows a certain linguistic maturity when reading and has developed a strong sense of confidence in his reading. This challenges the conclusions of Carrell (1991), Tsai, Ernst and Talley (2010) and Ikeda and Takeuchi (2006), who propose a direct correlation between L2 proficiency and effective strategy use. In comparison with Lauren, who has a higher overall L2 proficiency, Tanner's strategy use is more successful. Therefore, Tanner is an example of how high motivation in the L2 lead to more effective learning strategies. Furthermore, because he sees what (Peirce, 1995) calls a "good return" on his L2 use, such as travel, employment and interactions with native speakers, he is willing to invest considerably in his learning.

Cognitive strategy use. As with all of the participants, Tanner primarily employs cognitive strategies when reading. Furthermore, the majority of his reading strategies are top-down. For example, Tanner frequently considers cultural influences when interpreting a text. The following quotation demonstrates Tanner's use of this strategy:

Probably means something unique to them, that a spider represents evil. . . . I thought it was funny that the god of evil dressed up as a merchant. I guess that shows their view of merchants. . . . This obviously took place before the Spanish people got there, but there is still a lot of native influence in Mexico. They aren't as European as we are. So I just thought it was interesting to see how their take was on this. (Interview Reading 2)

In this statement, Tanner shows an awareness of a cultural background that, although he may not completely understand, he nonetheless recognizes. This shows a heightened cultural awareness for an individual who does not have extensive experience with native Spanish speakers.

In addition to considering cultural influences, Tanner also contemplates the author's point of view when reading. He stated several times that pondering how the author is thinking is a helpful strategy. In the following statement, Tanner acknowledges that he does not understand the author's intent, but he trusts that the author has a specific purpose:

[The author is] a professor of literature, so he obviously knows what he's doing, so it might have been meant to make native speakers think about the way he wrote it more . . . It's harder for me to get some of the imagery that he is putting out and the words that he's put together are hard for me to understand." (Interview Reading 3)

This strategy is very connected to that of considering cultural influences, and many times it appears to rationalize Tanner's lack of understanding, which in turn allows him to continue reading without much frustration.

Another unique strategy that Tanner prefers more than other participants is translating texts into English first without the use of a translator. Although he often does not have the time to spend on this activity for longer texts, he does feel that this is one of the best ways he can understand a reading. In one interview Tanner stated, "I feel like for a long story like this I would probably end up going through and writing down what I thought it meant in English, so almost translating it myself" (Transcribed Reading 3). In this example, Tanner shows a strong sense of autonomy. He prefers *his own* interpretation and translation to that of a dictionary or footnote in the text. Although he does not have time to employ this strategy consistently, he uses his own background to bring meaning to the text, which for him is an effective top-down strategy. This

demonstrates a strong sense of self-confidence and a positive self-perception. As Miyanaga (2007) concludes, these affective factors can significantly influence strategy use.

Memory-related strategy use. One memory-related strategy consistently used by Tanner was visualizing and imaging the text, which is also a top-down strategy. For example, in one interview he pointed out, “He [the author] is really creating an atmosphere of stress at this point, and I could feel that in the way he wrote” (Interview Reading 3). Furthermore, Tanner recognizes that his imagery may not be culturally accurate. In the same interview, he commented, “I think that they use different kinds of imagery in Spanish. I felt like the whole way that they try to describe something is a lot different than we do in English” (Interview Reading 3). Once again, Tanner utilizes a top-down strategy to try to understand the text. In addition, he also recognizes gaps in his own background knowledge that prevent him from more successfully understanding the text. This demonstrates a metacognitive awareness that is uncharacteristic of L2 learners of lower proficiencies, which contrasts with the findings of Carrell (1989). Because of his awareness, Tanner is able to successfully work through ambiguity without a significant amount of reading anxiety. He is a very successful reader in the L2, despite his confessed challenges with understanding the language.

The influence of affective factors on Tanner’s reading. Although throughout his interviews Tanner consistently expressed an acknowledgement of his limitations while reading in Spanish, this never seemed to bother him. Overall, Tanner found the readings interesting and found reading to be a gratifying experience. For example, in one interview he explained, “It wasn't a walk in the park, but with a little investigating I figured it out, so it was a rewarding experience” (Interview Reading 2). At the end of the semester, Tanner clarified why reading in Spanish has become so fulfilling:

I think I've gotten a lot more comfortable with reading in Spanish. . . Over time I've found it to be rewarding to read in Spanish because [I'm] not just reading it for what it's meaning. I'm reading it more now to learn how Spanish works. It's a lot more engaging and interesting to read it that way. (Interview Reading 3)

Although Tanner did not speak much about his feelings, he always appeared to be very calm and easygoing. It is possible that his more relaxed approach to reading is related to his top-down strategy use, suggesting a strong connection between affective factors and effective strategy use (Matsumoto, Hiromori & Nakayama, 2013).

Alyssa's strategy use. In general, Alyssa's interviews and reading logs were very concise. She often only wrote around 100 words for her journals and she did not elaborate much in her responses. Still, throughout our conversations, many reading strategies were mentioned. The strategies used most often by Alyssa include re-reading, skimming, looking for linguistic patterns, reading slower and using reference materials. She also mentioned mentally translating her readings sentence by sentence in her head to aid comprehension. This demonstrates a preference for the problem-solving strategies among L2 readers, which has also been found by Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) and Pookcharoen (2009). Although she did not exclusively use bottom-up strategies, her tendency for top-down behaviors was much less than that of Tanner. Alyssa also mentioned previewing the readings in her Spanish class, which was due to her teacher conducting frequent pre-reading activities. This would suggest that her purpose in reading would be more aligned with those of her professor, but as suggested by Martin and Laurie (1993) her linguistic focus was so dominant that it crowded out a literary perspective, thus altering her approach to the reading (Linderholm, 2006). Finally, one interesting anecdote is that Alyssa read one of her texts during her Math class. She was a little embarrassed to share this, but

she did not feel that this prevented her from understanding the text any differently. This situation illustrates an example of instrumental motivation while reading a literary text. As she read during her math class, the literature was less a work of art and more a homework assignment that needed to be completed. This once again demonstrates the divide between instructor and student agendas as suggested by Martin and Laurie (1993).

Cognitive strategy use. Alyssa is a strong proponent of reading slowly. Although her busy school schedule does not always permit her to take her time—or avoid reading during another class— she considers reading slowly to be an effective strategy: “When I first read through it I was like 'Oh my goodness! Lots of words', but then when I read through slowly it made more sense” (Interview Reading 2). In this statement, Alyssa reports reading more slowly to combat anxiety, which supports the findings of Miyanaga (2007). In addition, she frequently reads slowly to help her better understand a text that contained a lot of unknown words:

There was a lot of vocabulary that I didn't know or recognize right off the bat. I then read through it very slowly to figure out what the different vocabulary words meant and to gain a better understanding of the reading. (Interview Reading 2)

This statement demonstrates a clear connection between vocabulary difficulty and reading speed. For Alyssa, reading slowly was often a more effective strategy than using references such as dictionaries. “I'd probably just say take your time on it. Because the first time I kind of rushed through it and I didn't really get a lot, but when I read it more slowly it made more sense” (Interview Reading 2). Once again, this illustrates a preference for problem-solving strategies, which may be tied to Alyssa’s proficiency level (Pookcharoen, 2009).

When asked why she chooses to read slowly in Spanish she replied, “I think it's because it's a different language and I don't feel as comfortable yet as I do in English . . . Probably

[because of the] vocabulary” (Interview Reading 3). Still, Alyssa confessed that she did not always implement this strategy. When asked what prevents students from reading more slowly, Alyssa provided a very practical answer. She stated, “I think a time cramp. They realize ‘oh I’m supposed to read this’ and they have 10 minutes before class and they’re trying to get [it done] . . . I know when I’m trying to read things fast it never works. For me I have to be at my own leisure and take my time through it. Otherwise I won’t ever read it” (Interview Reading 2). Thus, while Alyssa identifies reading slowly as a helpful strategy, she is also aware of the time constraints that often prevent the implementation of this strategy. While on one hand she wants to appreciate the text she is reading, she is not a Spanish major, and therefore is not always able to dedicate her full attention to the L2 reading.

One characteristic that sets Alyssa apart from the other participants is her tendency to identify linguistic patterns in the texts. She frequently focuses on vocabulary and morphosyntax, or in other words the formation of words and how they relate to each other. While this may not be the same approach she would use for a longer text, it was a common strategy used for the assignments in SPAN 205. Often, if a text did not follow a pattern she was expecting, she initially became confused. Still, after some thought she was able to come up with a meaning based on her problem-solving abilities. The following example demonstrates this strategy:

“The *tú que* . . . I wasn’t sure exactly . . . I think it was confusing because they rearranged the words. Usually there is a verb after the subject, but there wasn’t one so it said ‘you that’. It didn’t make sense to be any other way. Also . . . the verbs aren’t at the beginning of the sentence and . . . I assumed that *tú* is still the same subject of the verb, so I just assumed that those verbs have to be [related] to wherever it says *tú que*.” (Interview 1)

In this example, Alyssa demonstrates her attention to Spanish syntax and her ability to deconstruct linguistic patterns. Similarly, Alyssa also demonstrated recognizing parts of speech, such as in the comment, “I think there are more *mandatos* [commands] in the last two lines to say ‘pretend I’m white’” (Interview Reading 1). In the same interview, she also figured out that the author’s focus was shifting to another character: “The verbs don’t have any indirect or direct objects anymore” (Interview Reading 1). This strategy of looking for linguistic patterns helps Alyssa organize the text and better decode what she was reading. While this is a bottom-up strategy, which Lee-Thompson (2008) suggests is less effective when reading in the L2, this strategy seems to be very useful for Alyssa. This demonstrates, as Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) state, that the L2 student is aware of her own linguistic needs. Furthermore, it also supports the findings of Carrell (1989) that often bottom-up strategies are indeed needed and useful for students of lower proficiencies.

Another cognitive strategy that Alyssa describes using frequently is mentally translating the texts into English. This, too, demonstrates Alyssa’s preference for bottom-up strategy use. In one interview, Alyssa discussed how this reading process works for her. She explained, “I guess as I read the word I just think what’s it saying [in English]: *Como todos sabemos* is ‘How we all know’” (Interview Reading 3). This strategy, as well as her ability to find linguistic patterns, suggests that Alyssa focuses more at the word and sentence levels of the texts. Her tendency to look for patterns is especially interesting, because it echoes strategies one might use with math, which is Alyssa’s field of study. Alyssa confirms this in her final comments when she expressed a parallel to reading in Spanish and solving a math problem. She stated, “Reading in Spanish is almost like a puzzle, because I’m trying to make up for my lack of knowledge and vocab and so I’m trying to fit things together . . . I’m a math major, so it’s one thing I like” (Interview Reading

3). For Alyssa, approaching her reading as a she would a puzzle is an effective strategy to increase her comprehension, thus supporting once again that participants may be aware of their own learning needs (Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012).

The influence of affective factors on Alyssa's reading. In general, Alyssa does not attribute affective factors to her reading experiences. When asked how she felt, she often replied with cognitive perceptions such as "I thought it was pretty easy," or "It went well. I feel like I know what's going on." Frequently, Alyssa confessed that she was more concerned with understanding Spanish than establishing an emotional connection with the reading, and she mentioned that she usually did not relate personally to the texts. She furthermore communicated that the readings were not as engaging or interesting as she would have liked. Several times, she expressed a lack of confidence in her understanding, but due to a large amount of homework each day, she could not spend any more time on her readings. This echoes the findings of Linderholm (2006), who stated that students often fail to adapt their cognitive processing to satisfy the learning outcomes. In short, Alyssa's logical and systematic approach to the readings may not have proved to be the most effective; nonetheless, overall this method was satisfactory for Alyssa's own expectations and learning goals.

Adam's strategy use. Adam stood out from the other participants as using more metacognitive and affective strategies. For example, he frequently makes encouraging statements to himself, and as the semester progressed, he became much more aware of his use of reading strategies. Furthermore, he also uses the cognitive strategies of asking himself questions and comparing Spanish to other languages, which was not as apparent with the other participants. In other words, Adam exhibited much more top-down (Eskey 2005) and global strategy use (Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012). Adam has had more experience reading in Spanish compared to the

other participants; in fact, he had already read a few of the texts for this class during a previous semester. As will be discussed below, all of these characteristics and strategies coincide with a very low affective filter and a positive attitude towards reading, which as Carrell (1991), Tsai, Ernst and Talley (2010), Clarke (1980) and Ikeda and Takeuchi (2006) suggest is related to a higher proficiency in the language.

Cognitive strategy use. Two cognitive strategies reported more by Adam than the other participants were asking himself questions and reading out loud. In fact, Adam was the only participant to report reading out loud. First, Adam's understanding of the Spanish language is very advanced, so some of the strategies reported by the Intermediate students, such as looking for patterns and attempting to translate, were completely absent from Adam's comments. In general, Adam's strategy use suggests he has arrived at a more sophisticated understanding of Spanish than the other participants. Adam exhibited much more integrative motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1959), which is suggested by Gardner (2007) as being closely linked with language improvement within a classroom setting.

Although Adam has an advanced understanding of Spanish texts, this does not exclude him from using bottom-up strategies. Still, Adam tends to implement more top-down strategies than the other participants. For example, in one interview he talked about similarities between Spanish and Portuguese. In another, he described using his knowledge of Latin roots to help him understand a word:

A lot of times if I don't understand a word I try to look at its roots, just 'cause it's Latin, and if you have a little bit of understanding of Latin you can figure out what it means.

Parts of the word are related to Latin which is related to English too, and if you know

some of the higher English, a lot of times I can guess what the word means because of the certain part of the word that's related to Latin. (Preliminary Interview)

For Adam, the Spanish texts are not understood in isolation. They are constantly related to his knowledge to other topics and subject matters. This exemplifies his perspective that Spanish is an integral part of his life (Interview Reading 2). This high degree of investment (Peirce, 1995) and integrative motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) support the idea presented by Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013), who suggested that motivation has a significant impact on strategy use and learner beliefs in L2 reading. In Adam's case, his positive self-concept and high investment in Spanish as a life-long pursuit cause him to integrate his Spanish reading into a greater context, which proves to motivate him throughout the semester. This demonstrates a strong connection between affect and strategy use proposed by Miyanaga (2007).

Another cognitive strategy that demonstrates Adam's tendency to use top-down strategies is the frequency with which he asks himself questions. In one reading log, Adam records:

After I finished reading the story I began to wonder, "If this guy was really from the time of the Aztecs, how was he dreaming of things in the future?" I couldn't figure out how he could imagine a motorcycle and things of the future. He didn't even have T.V. to supplant futuristic ideas into his head. (Reading Log 2)

When asked later about the questions he asks himself, he described this as a frequent habit. He explained:

Sometimes I'll talk to myself and I'll say, "Oh I wonder why" . . . I actually will, in my head. There will be a voice in my head saying, "oh I wonder why he's doing that" and then I'll go through possible [ideas]. I'll try to think logically about it. (Interview Reading 2)

While the strategy of asking himself questions is not in itself a metacognitive strategy, his ability to recognize his use of this strategy demonstrates his metacognitive awareness. This suggests that Adam is very aware of his own reading ability, which in turn leads him to analyze his own strategy use. Both Tanner and Adam, students of different proficiency levels, exhibited both reading enjoyment and positive self-concept. This demonstrates that proficiency level may not always be a determiner of neither anxiety level nor strategy use (Miyanaga, 2007).

Another cognitive strategy Adam frequently used was reading aloud. He was the only participant to report using this strategy, which is described by Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) as a support strategy, or a strategy used “to maintain responsiveness to reading” (p. 237). Adam’s reasoning for this strategy was two-fold. First, he described learning Spanish by reading out loud (Preliminary Interview). This shows Adam’s preference for auditory learning. Second, Adam also reported reading out loud with his wife to practice his accent and pronunciation. He explained, “I figured it would be good speaking practice for me, and my wife wants to learn Spanish because she speaks Portuguese and they are similar languages” (Interview Reading 1). When Adam was asked to recite a play with his classmates, he also read out loud to practice the intonation and style of the characters (Reading Log 3). All of these examples once again demonstrate Adam’s belief that reading and speaking are closely related skills.

Even so, Adam recognized that by emphasizing speaking skills while reading, he is sacrificing some of his comprehension. I asked Adam to explain the relationship between the difficulty of a text and his choice to read out loud. His answer validates his metacognitive awareness:

When I read out loud, and I would say this is in English too, I don't think I comprehend as much . . . There's some times when I'll read out loud and it's more just to practice the

pronunciation and really get my tongue flowing . . . I'd say generally my comprehension is better when I'm just reading to myself in my head. (Interview Reading 2)

This statement reveals a selective preference of reading out loud. Adam defines specific purposes for reading out loud: to practice pronunciation and expression. He recognizes, however, that reading out loud may not be an effective strategy for comprehension. When asked to clarify this, he provided a very interesting description:

[When you're reading to yourself] there's more of a focus on what's actually being read than when you're reading out loud. I don't know if you've ever had the experience where someone calls on you to read something out loud and [afterwards] you're like, "All right, what does that mean?" or "What did they just say?" (Interview Reading 2)

In this statement, Adam reports that reading out loud distracts him from understanding the text. He explains, "I just think there's more of a focus on pronouncing the words correctly . . . No one wants to sound like a doofus when they're reading" (Interview Reading 2).

At the end of our interviews, Adam's opinion of reading out loud had changed considerably from when he first started the semester. His preference for reading out loud now differed according to the text type. Whereas reading a play out loud is beneficial for him, it is less effective when reading short stories and other narratives. He furthermore decided that reading out loud was not as effective as he had initially thought: "As I read in Spanish, [I would suggest] maybe stay away from [reading out loud] and focus more on going over it in my head . . . I feel like that's one way that my reading strategies have kind of been more defined" (Interview Reading 3). By discussing his strategy use, he had evaluated the strategy's effectiveness and came to an insightful conclusion.

This example of reading out loud demonstrates how reading purpose dictates the use of specific reading strategies (Linderholm, 2006). When Adam recognized that reading out loud, which helped his pronunciation, was interfering with his comprehension, his perception of this strategy changed. Furthermore, he even advised against this strategy at the end of the semester, showing his ability to adapt. This shows Adam's ability to modify his strategy use according to his purpose for reading. Still, it also suggests as Carrell (1989) posed, that it is often harder for students to know what strategies are effective in the L2. This is true even in the case of an advanced student such as Adam.

Metacognitive strategy use. At the end of the semester, Adam had become very aware of his strategy use, although this was primarily an effect of the reading interviews conducted for this study. While the researcher never suggested any reading strategies to Adam, he came to many conclusions on his own by simply talking about his reading. Consequently, he developed a keen ability to self-monitor as the semester progressed. During the last interview, Adam explained:

I think I kind of bulldozed through things at the beginning, but now I've kind of learned to monitor myself while I read and just look at how things are all tied together. . . . I feel like I have better strategies now as far as how to understand what's being read . . .

knowing when I need to slow down [and] when I need to go back and look at something.

(Interview Reading 3)

When asked what strategies were most effective for Adam, he replied, "Monitor yourself. Make sure you understand" (Interview Reading 3). Of all of the strategies reported by Adam, this was the strategy that distinguished Adam the most from the other participants. He has now become an autonomous reader and he has acquired the awareness to determine his own progress. Adam is a

key example of the conclusions of Ikeda and Takeuchi (2006), who stated that students of higher proficiencies are better able to describe the strategy, understand the value and purpose of each strategy, and understand the situations when to best employ each strategy.

Affective strategy use. The final strategy employed by Adam that separated him from the other participants was the affective strategy of making encouraging statements to himself. The following quote clearly demonstrates the positive relationship Adam has with himself. While Adam may not always be motivated to read, he has discovered an effective strategy that helps him overcome obstacles during the reading process:

I talk to myself all of the time . . . In general if I have to read a chapter of homework and I'm not necessarily motivated to do it, I'll look to the end to see how many pages I have left and just tell myself, "Alright [Adam], we got 10 pages. You can do it and after 10 pages you can get up and you can go get a drink or you can hop on ESPN and check that real fast, but we're going to finish these 10 pages. We're going to get it done." . . . Sometimes I'll throw in a *Sí se puede* [you can do it] in there, you know. Just be like, "Come on man, you can do it." . . . I like to succeed at things that I do, even when it's hard, and so I'll tell myself "[Adam], this is part of you becoming a better person. As you understand these things and as you become better and as you develop this self-control and willpower to get this done it's just going to benefit you in other parts of your life as well."

(Interview Reading 2)

This quote is very characteristic of Adam's entire approach to reading in Spanish. While the amount of reading was often a challenge for Adam, he was determined to succeed. He appeared to always be positive and was never intimidated by his reading assignments. The affective strategy proved to be very helpful for Adam throughout the semester, which supports the

findings of Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013), Gardner (2007) who all suggest that motivation is directly related to language learning and performance.

The influence of affective factors on Adam's reading. When considering Adam's affect, it is clear that reading in Spanish is overall a positive experience. In his opinion, Adam believes that his interest in the readings contributes to this positive outlook and motivation. He explained:

When you are more interested in something you tend to devote more focus and drive towards that. When you find something interesting, it's generally easier to understand and to learn and to continue doing it. Part of it may have to do that when we are interested in something it comes a little bit easier to us and so we, as human beings, usually don't like to feel failure, and so we like to do things that we can succeed at. (Interview Reading 2)

This statement, an obvious example of motivation to read, expresses a clear connection between motivation and success with reading. As Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013) suggest, there are “reciprocal influences, or the interaction between L2 reading strategy use, reading motivations, and general learner beliefs” (p. 44). Even when Adam had a “huge accounting test” he still managed to view reading Spanish in a positive light: “This accounting test has been stressing me out and so reading this time was nice” (Interview Reading 2). According to Adam, interest is directly related to motivation, suggesting a high investment in language learning.

Although Adam is generally motivated to read, this does not mean he did not experience difficulties during the semester. For example, during the first interview, he expressed being tired from all of his schoolwork, which prevented him from employing the reading strategies that were more characteristic of his later readings. Because he was tired, he was “in the mode where I just needed to get things done” (Interview Reading 1). In other words, he read to know enough to take his quiz and that was it. In this example he was not relating the reading to

his long-term goals for Spanish. Instead, he was more focused on the information needed for the assessment. His assessment essentially became his main source of motivation, but this extrinsic motivation was not characteristic of Adam's overall reading profile. Assessment, then, occasionally alters Adam's strategy use, which illustrates the conclusions of Oxford and Nyikos (1989) who demonstrated that the influence of assessment often leads to less authentic language strategies. A more complete discussion of the effect assessment has on reading strategies of all participants will be provided later on.

Lauren's strategy use. Lauren is perhaps the most interesting of all of the participants because of the strong influence affect has on her reading. When coding her comments, it became apparent that Lauren mentioned the most "feeling" statements of all of the participants. Some of the codes most prevalent with Lauren's interviews were those of feeling rushed, nervous, excited, disappointed, distracted, insecure, relieved, frustrated, annoyed, unmotivated and guilty. While Lauren expressed some success with understanding the readings, her affect became a dominating feature throughout her comments. She took more notes in the text than other participants, and even some of her markings expressed an emotional response to the text. Furthermore, she appeared to be very interested in the author's point of view and even expressed frustration when she could not understand the author's perspective. Throughout the interviews Lauren expressed a strong emotional connection to Spanish, which provides a unique perspective on reading in Spanish that is not depicted by the other participants. Overall, Lauren is the strongest example of affect's influence on reading performance (Miyana, 2007).

Cognitive strategy use. As mentioned previously, Lauren took more notes in her text compared to other participants. Mokhatri and Sheorey (2002) label note taking as a support strategy, which is more characteristic of lower proficient L2 learners. Below are several figures

that demonstrate Lauren's markings. A complete page of text with example markings can be found in Appendix D. The majority of her markings consist of underlining words she does not know, although she also writes English glosses and key themes.

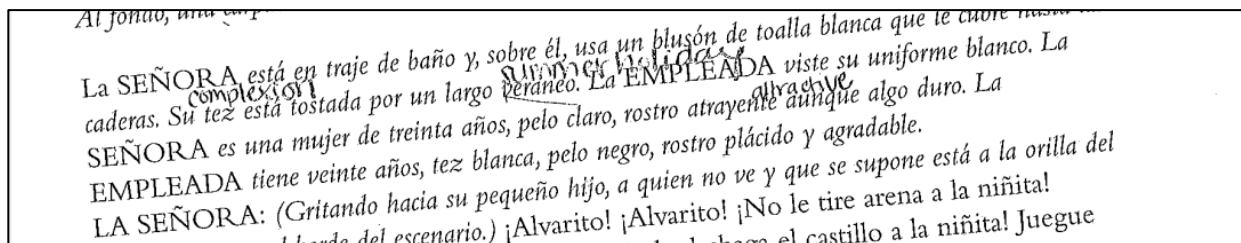


Figure 1: Example of Marking English Glosses

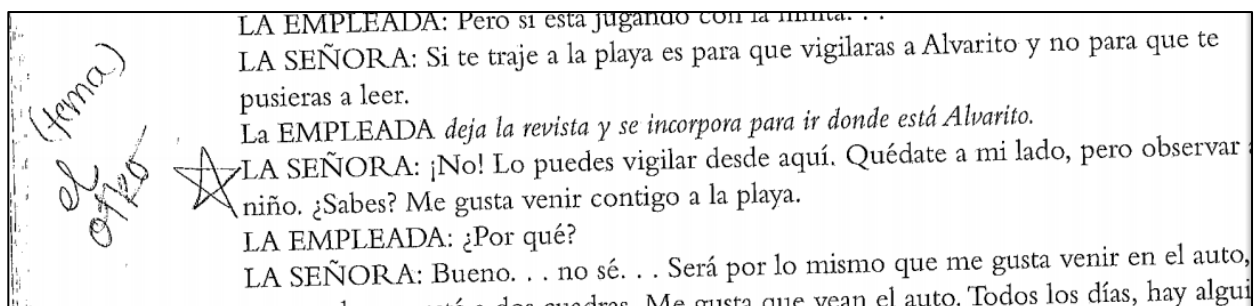


Figure 2: Example of Marking Key Literary Themes

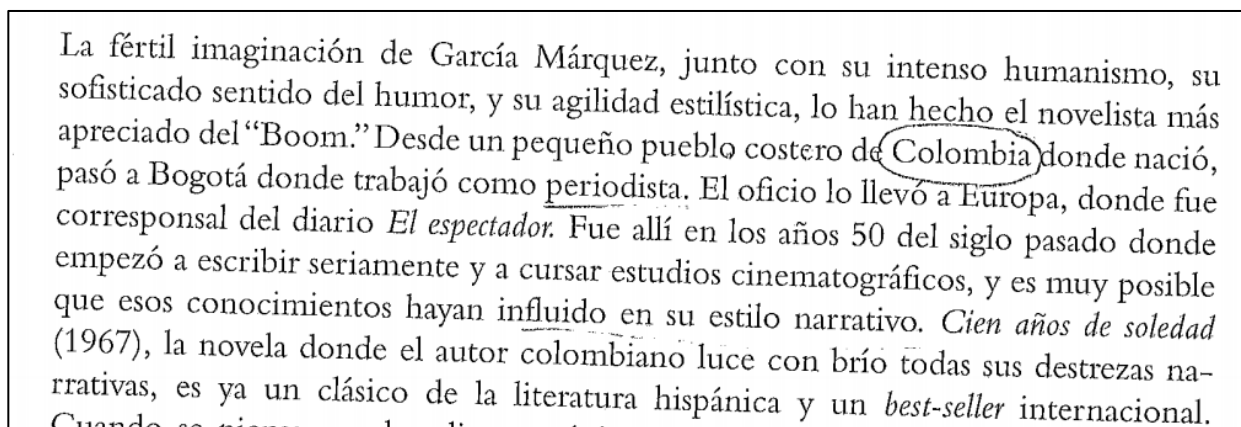


Figure 3: Example of Marking Important Information About the Author

In her markings, Lauren demonstrates several purposes for taking notes. In Figure 1, she employs note taking as the bottom-up strategy of identifying the English gloss. In Figure 2, she demonstrates a top-down strategy of identifying key themes and main ideas. Finally, in Figure 3, she appears to focus on the top-down strategy of considering the author's point of view. In all of

these examples, it is also apparent that she is using her markings as a sort of memory strategy, to help her recall information later on. Pookcharoen (2009) suggests that the use of support strategies is more characteristic of less-proficient L2 students. While Lauren is considered an advanced student, it is possible that her reading proficiency is lower, thus motivating her to use this support strategy with texts that may be above her proficiency level. Still, it is also possible that her affect may also affect her strategy use.

In addition to taking notes as a cognitive strategy, Lauren also made markings that expressed her emotional reaction to the text. For example, in Figure 4 below, she underlined “macanudo” because it reminded her of an Argentine individual that she cares about. According to Lauren, a squiggly line is “more happy” than a straight (Interview Reading 1). She also included a smiley face:

<p>INVÁLIDO ¿He salido bien yo? FOTÓGRAFO <u>Macanudo</u>²⁷. ☺. (Al COMISARIO) Ahora podrían ponerse ustedes. . . Y si la señorita quisiera levantar la cabeza. . . ¡Señora! . . . ¡Señora! JENARO Mérame preso y hagan lo que quieran. . . Ma esto es una barbaridad. . . 330 ¡Mándese mudar, per Dío! ¡Qué bruta gente! Dejen tranquila a esa pobre muquer. . . Caramba. . . Caramba. . .</p>

Figure 4: Example of Marking to Express Happiness

Later on in the text, she circled *vos* and *che*, two characteristically Argentine words, because she has an emotional connection to the Argentine accent. She explained:

I was just circling that more out of happiness . . . I really appreciate when we get to read or learn about things from Argentina or even Uruguay. I realize there are so many Spanish-speaking countries, but it's so unique and so different . . . People don't have as much of an understanding for [the Argentine accent], so I really appreciate it when we get to learn about it or study it. (Interview Reading 1)

When asked about her enthusiasm for Argentine Spanish, she explained that the Argentine elements helped her feel more connected to a culture that she loves. She stated, “I think especially because the culture's obviously different, but the language and how they speak is different too, and so when I'm reading the thing from Chile it's great and it's still in Spanish, but it's not *my* Spanish” (Interview, Reading 1). Because Lauren served a religious mission in Argentina, her connection with the Argentine Spanish is much greater than with other dialects. Identifying Argentine vocabulary were definitely the high moments during Lauren’s reading. The excitement and fondness were distinctly present in her voice when she discussed these readings, and she even described modifying her readings mentally to adhere more to an Argentine accent. She reported, “Sometimes when I'm reading, because I'm so used to hearing things in *vos*, . . . I find myself reading it that way. And then I'm like, ‘oh no they're speaking in *tú*’. I need to switch my brain” (Interview Reading 1). For example, in one text, she modified the phrase *tienes calor* to read *tenés calor*, using the Argentine *vos* form instead of the *tú* form printed. This strategy helps the reading “come a little bit more naturally” for her and was viewed as an effective strategy. This strategy is very unique to Lauren, and can be thought of a compensatory strategy (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989) as well as a support strategy (Mokhatri and Sheorey, 2002). Once again, this strategy use suggests that there is a type of mismatch between the reader and the text, which may be connected to Lauren’s lack of self-confidence and reading anxiety.

As mentioned previously, Lauren stated several times that she wanted to understand better the author’s purpose in writing. For example, Lauren often expressed her confidence in the understanding of the text, but not in what the author was “trying to communicate.” She explained, “I know what happens, but what the author is trying to communicate I'm less sure of,

because I'm sure there's probably a lot of different interpretations as well, but I'm still not [confident in my own interpretation.] I really like knowing what the author wanted to say. I get bothered [by other's viewpoints that don't represent the author's viewpoint]" (Interview Reading 2). In this statement, Lauren expresses a desire to go beyond the surface of the text and better understand the deeper meaning of the text. This is evidence of not only her literacy level in her L1, but also her perception that she lacked a sufficient understanding. This disconnect proved to bother Lauren throughout the semester.

When asked how she attempts to comprehend the author's perspective, she replied, "Trying to figure out the big picture, trying to figure out what the morals or lessons learned . . . It could be that there are multiple things that he or she wants to say" (Interview Reading 2). This demonstrates that Lauren is keenly aware of cultural differences and literary devices present in the texts she is reading, but she has not satisfactorily reconciled her understanding of the text with what she perceives as the author's intent. Because of this, Lauren was frequently frustrated and unsatisfied with understanding. It was as if she was on the edge of a thorough understanding but never quite arrived at a satisfactory interpretation. It is possible that her awareness of her lack of complete understanding is one of the primary causes of her frustration. Whereas an Intermediate student may not be aware of what he does not know, Lauren, an advanced student, recognizes her gaps in understanding and is bothered by them. Like Adam, Lauren identifies her own learning needs, which is related to a higher L2 proficiency (Ikeda and Takeuchi, 2006). Unlike Adam, however, Lauren has yet to discover which strategies work best for her in all reading situations, and this may be the greatest source of Lauren's reading discontent.

The influence of affective factors on Lauren's reading. Throughout Lauren's interviews, she frequently expressed feelings of frustration and disappointment with her

readings. Overall, these feelings were directed towards herself and her dissatisfaction with her level of understanding. For example, she reported several times she was “fuzzy” on the details of the reading. It should be noted, however, that from the perspective of the researcher, Lauren was able to understand the majority of the advanced readings assigned during the semester. Still, she had lost confidence in her ability to interpret the texts sufficiently and this greatly affected her motivation. Miyanaga (2007) concluded that intrapersonal factors, which "include setting high standards for reading performance, a high level of concern over making mistakes, which are derived from perfectionist tendencies . . . and self-perceptions of reading ability" provide a potential source of reading anxiety (p. 103). This is a likely explanation of Lauren’s circumstance. For example, Lauren expressed several times her frustration with not understanding a word. As can be seen in the following statement, Lauren is not comfortable with ambiguity:

I also had to look up *tez*, but that frustrated me because I knew [that] I knew the word, but I couldn’t remember it, so I had to look it up again. . . . It is really annoying when I don’t understand the definition that it gives in the book for words. (Reading Log 1)

In this statement Lauren expresses much frustration with her lack of understanding isolated words. This is similar to a later interview when she explained, “It was really frustrating, because it's really hard to read something and not understand a word. It bothers me” (Interview Reading 2). Lauren appears to have a different expectation for herself than do the other participants; she expects to understand many more words than she is able.

This feeling of frustration is also present in relation to Argentine vocabulary that she once knew. She stated, “It was sad when I didn’t understand the Argentine words, because I feel like I should know them” (Reading Log 1). Furthermore, in a subsequent interview Lauren explained

the absence of certain Argentine linguistic elements can be disappointing for her. For example, the presence of *Usted* in an Argentine reading was “a letdown.” She explained, “Most of them spoke in *Usted*, which for me is super weird because nobody speaks in *Usted* [in Argentina]” (Reading Interview 1). Thus, Lauren appears to have a strong emotional connection to Argentine Spanish, which when absent, can alter her affect.

Another affective factor that appeared to modify Lauren’s approach to reading was a sense of feeling rushed. Just like the other participants, Lauren’s heavy school load prevented her from spending as much time on the readings as she might have otherwise. In several instances, Lauren reported not looking up a word or reading introductory material because she “felt very rushed” (Reading Log 1). Often, when she was done with a reading, she was “relieved” to be finished, but immediately recognized that she had more to read (Interview Reading 1). In comparison to the other participants, Lauren had significantly longer readings. For example, Adam, who was in a different section of the same course, had been assigned readings of 3-5 pages. Normally Lauren, on the other hand, was assigned double that amount. Therefore, it is possible that the quantity of reading was too much for both Lauren’s proficiency and interest levels.

In addition to feeling rushed, Lauren often felt unsatisfied with her level of comprehension. She looked up many more words than the other participants, which was not expected from a more advanced reader. When asked why this might be, she commented, “I’m afraid of missing something, or it could be something that’s important. I noticed that some of the words I didn’t know were repeated, and that was kind of annoying, because it’s like, ‘Well, maybe I need to know what this word means’” (Interview Reading 2). This fear of missing an important detail is primarily motivated by Lauren’s own desire to understand the text and to

create meaningful connections. For example, she stated, “I guess you may miss part of the purpose of the story or a detail that's important in the story, or an event. I just like knowing what's going on, because if you miss something here, then in a couple of pages down the road you might miss something else” (Interview Reading 2).

Still, in other interview situations, she also expressed a lack of confidence that appeared to further contribute to her frustration. In our last interview, she expressed a lack of confidence to volunteer her ideas, because in past classes, she had been “way off” with her responses (Interview Reading 3). She continued, “[I don’t speak up] because I don't understand, and whenever anybody else talks about what happened I'm like, ‘Oh, I thought *this* was what happened,’ and that's not what happened” (Preliminary Interview). This appears to make her more hesitant to take risks in class, which in turn may also prevent her from taking risks while reading. In fact, she confessed that public failure is one of her fears: “I have noticed that about myself. I would even say I don't like failure in general” (Reflection E-mail on Interview Reading 3). Even when she expresses interest in the reading, it is frequently couched with comments of insecurity: “I like the story, but at the time I really could be totally off” (Interview Reading 2). Lauren is for the most part an advanced reader, but her affect has somewhat overpowered her ability to confidently approach a reading. Just as Miyana (2007) suggests, “reading anxiety exists somewhat independently from reading proficiency level” (p. 116), causing a student like Lauren to exhibit behaviors uncharacteristic of her proficiency level.

As a consequence of her lack of confidence, Lauren’s motivation appeared to decrease throughout the course of the semester. Comments such as, “I don’t know if I’m going to like this reading or not” (Interview Reading 2), and, “I thought at the beginning, ‘oh great. Here we go again” (Interview Reading 2) were somewhat characteristic of Lauren’s general attitude toward

reading in Spanish. Sometimes, she was pleasantly surprised that a story was more interesting or easier than she expected, but she tended to approach each reading with some trepidation. When asked to describe these feelings, she replied:

I feel like getting started is the worst part for me. Once I'm started I'll usually finish. It's getting started [that is difficult] . . . I wish it wasn't, but it is the hardest. Once I'm doing something I'm usually good at finishing it, but sometimes starting it is difficult . . . I just sometimes leave it 'til I absolutely have to get it done, so I know I need to get this done. Or sometimes it's just like "I have some time now. I can do it," so I'll do it. It's like, "ahhhhh," really psyching myself up for it. It's hard. (Interview Reading 2)

This lack of motivation to start was reported as one of Lauren's personality traits, but it also appears to greatly affect her reading. At the end of our interviews, she reported having less motivation to read in Spanish now than at the beginning of the semester, because she now understands that it is "hard work" and will "require a lot of concentration" (Interview Reading 3). Overall, Lauren seemed tired at the end of the semester; this appeared to be a difficult course for Lauren and she definitely appeared to be ready to be done with it.

What was perhaps the most significant about Lauren's affect was her overall sense of resignation at the end of the semester. She reported the possibility that her reading skills may never improve, because she does not "have the motivation to work through long works" (Interview Reading 3). Although she does not want to lose her Spanish ability, she does not anticipate improving much, because she does not see herself reading much in the future. This demonstrates a more instrumental motivation for reading in Spanish, which as Gardner (2007) suggests, may not contribute to improved language learning. She appeared to be disappointed with this realization but clearly acknowledged that lack of motivation was her barrier: "I don't

have the motivation to stick with these more difficult texts” (Interview Reading 3). Unlike the other participants, Lauren has appeared to reach the end of her Spanish literature career, and although she is disappointed with this, she is not inspired to continue. Her negative feelings and fatigue have trumped her interest in the language and culture.

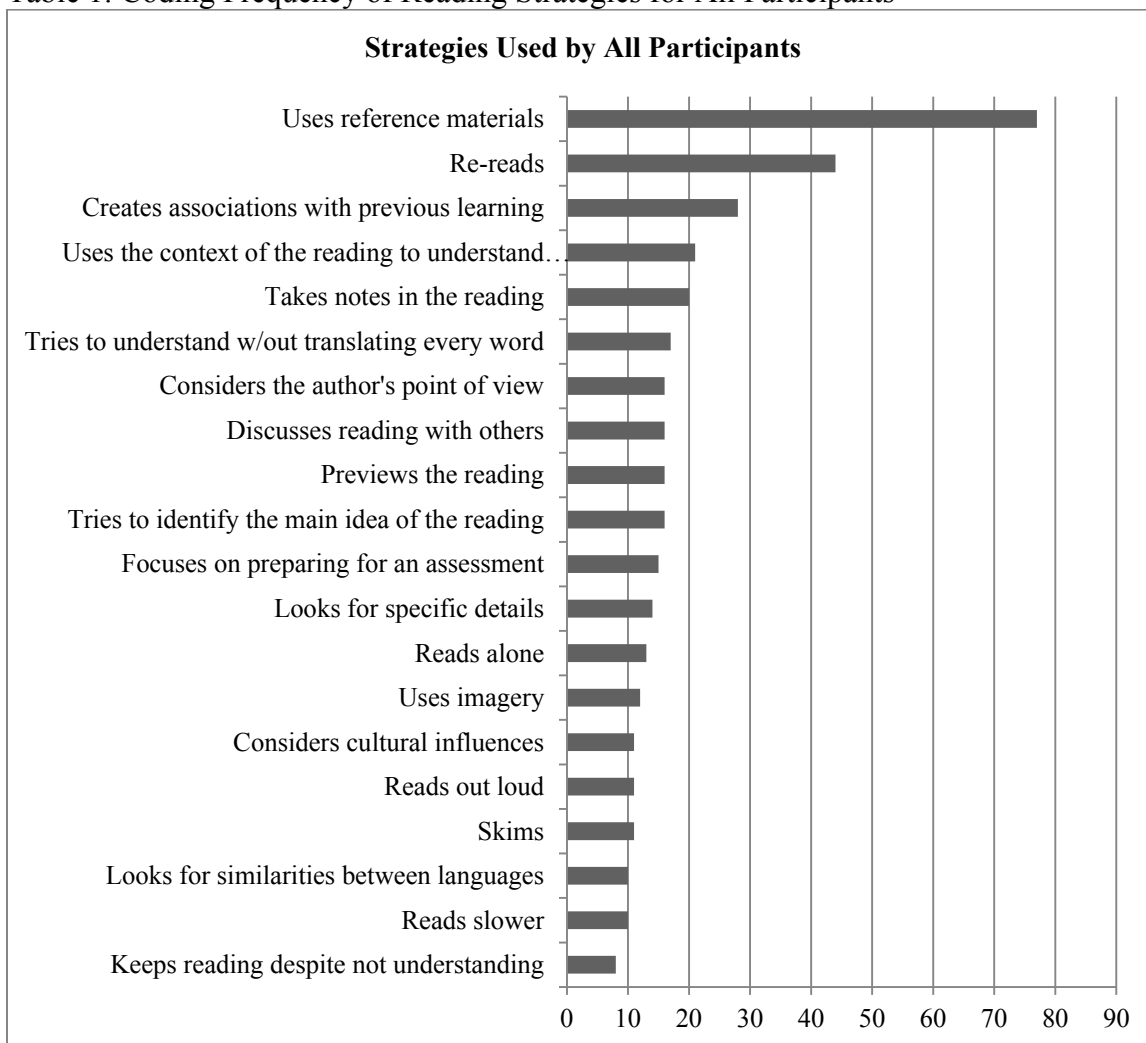
Throughout Lauren’s comments it is very apparent that affect does have an impact on her L2 reading. Just as Miyanaga (2007) suggested, “Both linguistic factors and affective factors, such as anxiety, confidence, motivation, and self-perception of current language ability, interact with one another in complex ways in FL learning” (p. 99). Although Lauren is able to comprehend the majority of her texts and is aware of her learning needs, her lack of confidence and negative self-perception seem to affect her L2 reading. Furthermore, it is also possible that the L2 texts were too difficult for Lauren, which may have prevented her from using more top-down strategies (p. 106). As Martin and Laurie (1993) concur the “mismatch of student and course goals may be a contributing factor in the persistent attrition of students at the end of their introductory language studies, at the point where language requirements . . . have been fulfilled” (p. 189). This mismatch is definitely a factor in Lauren’s case. Finally, although Lauren and Adam are at similar proficiency levels, their strategy use greatly differs, suggesting that there is indeed a strong relationship between affective factors and strategy use.

Common Strategy Use by Participants

After examining unique characteristics of all four participants, it appears that they have very different approaches to reading in Spanish. Still, all share several strategies that they use with regularity. For example, each participant creates associations with previously learned material, looks for specific details in the text, and uses the context of the reading to understand a

word. Below is a table that demonstrates the 20 most frequently coded strategies for all four participants. As can be seen, a variety of strategies were utilized.

Table 1: Coding Frequency of Reading Strategies for All Participants



From this table, it can be seen that the most employed strategy was using reference materials, which supports Miyanaga's (2007) conclusion that students of all proficiency levels tend to view dictionary use as an effective strategy. This strategy was mentioned twice as frequently as any other strategy; still, the next ten or so strategies were used with relatively equal frequency. This use of a variety of strategies is confirmed by Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012), who

demonstrated that students displayed a preference for multiple strategies. However, it appears that students in this study are different from those surveyed by Alhaqbani and Riazi in that they have a stronger preference for support strategies over either problem-solving strategies or global strategies. Still, students employed a variety of top-down and bottom-up strategies, showing the preference for an interactive model when reading in Spanish (Eskey, 2005).

When examining strategy use by participants of the two proficiency levels, Intermediate (SPAN 205) and Advanced (SPAN 339), it appears that some strategies, such as using reference materials, re-reading and creating associations with previous learning, are used by all participants. Still, there do exist some differences in strategy use between proficiency levels. Table 2 shows the ten most frequently coded strategies for SPAN 205 students while Table 3 shows strategy use for SPAN 339 students:

Table 2: Coding Frequency for Spanish 205 Participants

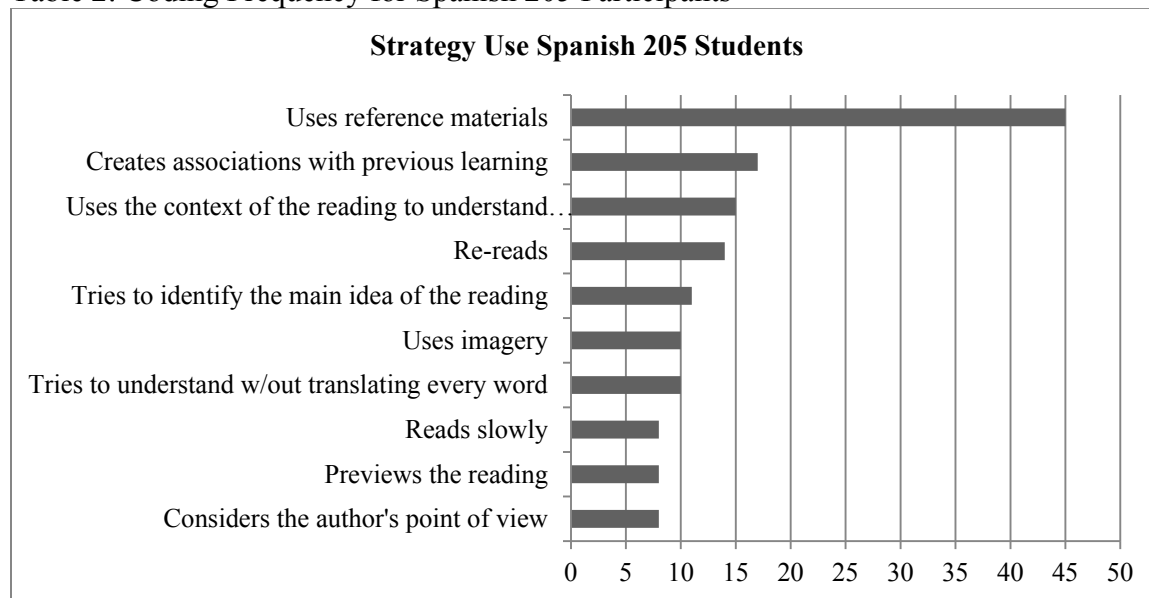
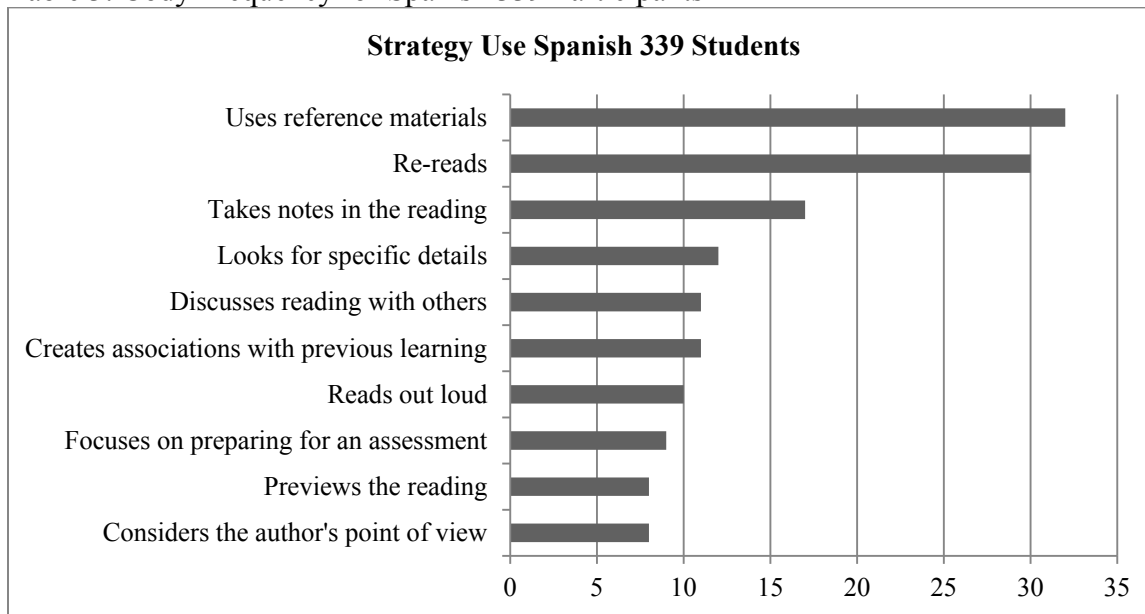


Table 3: Cody Frequency for Spanish 339 Participants



Upon first glance, it appears that there are some differences in strategy use between students of different proficiency levels. For example, while both groups show a strong preference for specific strategies such as using reference materials, re-reading and creating associations with previous experiences and learning, the SPAN 339 students appear to use note taking and reading out loud more, while the SPAN 205 students appear to use imagery and identifying the main idea more. Still, due to the small sample size, conclusions such as these are not valid. As has been discussed in previous sections, strategy use appears to be less related to proficiency level and more related to personality and affect. Several other large-scale studies such as those performed by Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012), Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Carrell (1989) can provide general survey data with respect to strategy use, but they do not offer explanations as to the personality differences among students, regardless of their proficiency level. This study attempts to go beyond the numbers and investigate individual perceptions of specific strategies and why

participants view these strategies as effective. This descriptive data can serve as a rich addition to the quantitative data already collected.

Although many strategies could be discussed in relation to the research questions, specific strategies and topics have been selected due to the influence affective factors have on their use. As stated in the research questions, one of the purposes of this study is to explore the influence affective factors have on reading strategy use. While the use of strategies has been documented, there is still a need for further discussion of affective factors, which contextualize that quantitative data gathered from previous research. For example, fatigue, frustration, confidence level and text anxiety were all mentioned as factors that modified strategy use. These factors are similar to those cited by Miyanaga (2007) who demonstrated the influence affect has on L2 reading ability. Therefore, I will discuss re-reading, skimming, skipping over difficult parts in the text, and use of reference materials; and demonstrate that perceptions of these strategies are primarily based on individual characteristics. Additionally, I will show that assessment significantly modifies the use of reading strategies. Finally, I will demonstrate the absence of identifying a purpose for reading, previewing the reading and using a reading partner; and explain why participants choose to avoid these strategies.

Re-reading. One reading strategy that was used by all participants, regardless of proficiency level, was re-reading the text. This is consistent with the findings of Miyanaga (2007) and Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012), who demonstrated L2 students' preference for this strategy. Participants consistently mentioned this strategy when they were asked to report which strategies they recommended as being effective. For example, Tanner recommended, "reading the whole sentence and then reading it to understand what it means" (Interview Reading 2), and Adam simply stated, "Make sure you understand. Don't be afraid to re-read it" (Interview

Reading 3). Primarily, participants used re-reading to understand the plot, keep track of multiple characters and remember what they had read. Furthermore, most believed that re-reading was an essential strategy when the text was difficult, causing them to stop and define several words during the first reading. Finally, re-reading was a frequent strategy for students when they were fatigued or distracted, because they did not grasp the meaning of the text on the first read. As all participants were busy college students, often their physical and mental tiredness required them to read a text more than once. This is an example of how various factors, both those directly and indirectly related to the L2 reading, have an effect on strategy use.

Overall, re-reading is viewed by the participants as an effective strategy to understand a text. Tanner described reading a sentence first, and then if it did not make sense, reading it a second time. His rationale is “even if you read the whole sentence and a word doesn’t make sense, just by re-reading it you can figure it out” (Interview Reading 2). For Tanner, it is difficult at first to understand the result of an action, but when he re-reads he can “infer what the action is” in the plot (Interview Reading 2). Alyssa also mentioned the importance of re-reading a text in order to understand segments that are more difficult or to remember something specific for class. For example, she stated in one interview “I was kind of confused so I had to read it through a couple of times” (Interview Reading 2). She also re-read a text to “be sure [she] remembered” what she was reading (Interview Reading 2). Adam often used re-reading to keep track of multiple characters, and sometimes re-read the beginning portions of the texts to “make sure [he] understood what was going on” (Interview Reading 1). Sometimes, Adam felt that it was “hard to get all of the dialogue down in a second language,” and therefore re-reading was helpful to understand some of the “hidden meanings” that we do not comprehend reading a text only once (Interview Reading 3).

Interestingly, two participants mentioned re-reading as an effective follow-up strategy when the reader needs to define several words on the first reading. Labeled as a “problem-solving,” strategy by Mokhatri and Sheorey (2002), re-reading is applied by participants to solve the problem caused by pausing frequently to define unknown words. Lauren mentioned that looking up all of the words “breaks up the meaning” of the text and requires her to go back and re-read sections (Interview Reading 3). Adam provided a similar comment when he stated, “by going to the bottom of the page you're not staying in the same flow, so you have to go back. Once you know what the word is, you go back and re-read the sentence to get the flow” (Interview Reading 1). Alyssa, too, provided a similar comment. On the other hand, Tanner clarified that re-reading could effectively *replace* reference materials in some circumstances: “As nice as it is to look up everything in a translator, it’s just easier to re-read a sentence a couple of times. I think that’s what works best for me” (Interview Reading 2). These statements show an interesting relationship between re-reading and looking up words in a dictionary. Just as Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) and Pookcharoen (2009) conclude, many L2 students tend to prefer problem-solving strategies, such as re-reading, to support strategies, such as dictionary use. In this instance, stopping to define words disrupts the continuity of the reading, creating a need to re-read the text. This is seen as an inconvenience for students, leading some of them to completely avoid dictionary use in some circumstances.

In the previous examples, re-reading is viewed as cognitive and compensatory strategy. It allows participants to understand the reading better and can even allow them to avoid other strategies, such as dictionary use, which may require more time. In addition, Adam and Lauren mentioned re-reading as a necessary consequence of fatigue and distraction. In other words, re-reading can compensate for the effects of a university school load. This, too, supports the

findings of Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012) who report getting back on track after losing concentration as a common reading strategy. For example, in one instance after a busy school day, Adam reported: “I was tired, but once I go back and try and really focus on it, then I get the story better” (Interview Reading 1). Adam also explained that when he is tired, it is more common that he is “reading it just to read it,” so he has to return to the beginning and pay closer attention to the details.

In addition, Lauren reported re-reading because “I think sometimes when I'm reading I am not as focused as much. It just happens sometimes.” Although she cannot remember focusing on something else, she suddenly recognizes that she did not retain what she had read, which causes her to re-read. “It could be that I just wanted to get this done, but it could be that I just wasn't paying attention for some reason” (Interview Reading 1). As mentioned previously, Lauren often struggles with motivation to read, which may explain her distraction. To better illustrate this, the following quote is provided to demonstrate Lauren's lack of motivation to re-read, despite her accepting it as an effective strategy:

I probably could go over it again, but I don't know if I would, because I just don't know if I would be motivated to do it . . . I probably should [spend more time with the text], but I'm not sure which would win out, if I would read it [all] again, or read parts. (Interview Reading 3)

Once again, Lauren demonstrates that although she recognizes effective strategies, she is not always motivated to use them. This is a clear example of the influence affective factors have on strategy use. As mentioned earlier, this could be due to the length of her reading assignments, as well as her busy schedule, which has caused her fatigue as well as her unwillingness to spend more time on her readings. This could also be a consequence of her lack of confidence

(Miyanaga, 2007) as well as the complex relationship between motivation, student beliefs and strategy use (Matsumoto, Hiromori & Nakayama, 2013). In the latter study, Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama suggest an “interdependence across reading strategy use, motivations and learner beliefs” (p. 46), which helps explain the discrepancy between Lauren’s knowledge of effective reading strategies and her lack of motivation to implement them. By analyzing Lauren’s comments, we can see that one must consider all three factors: reading strategy use, motivations, and beliefs in order to obtain an accurate picture of her reading experience.

Skimming. As with the participants surveyed by Alhaqbani and Riazi (2012), participants in this study also implemented skimming quite frequently. However, participants did not always acknowledge skimming as an effective or preferable strategy. This differs from the findings of Rusciollelli (1995) who found that a significant portion of participants recognized skimming as a beneficial strategy. This may be due to the fact that participants had a variety of working definitions of the term “skimming,” which they sometimes used interchangeably with “scanning.” Traditionally, “skimming” is a brief reading to get an overview of a text, whereas “scanning” is looking for something specific while reading. For the purpose of this study, however, “skimming” represents both a brief reading with or without the purpose of looking for specific details. With this indefinite understanding of skimming, participants sometimes viewed it as an effective first reading of a text, while others depicted skimming as a negative strategy that demonstrates a lack of time or motivation. In short, skimming appears to be a somewhat complex strategy for students.

When viewed as an effective strategy, skimming was often used as a first reading to “get the gist” of a story (Alyssa Reading Log 2). Alyssa explains skimming as the following:

It's kind of similar to scanning through. I picked out things. I wasn't trying to understand every word or everything . . . It's helpful because I kind of have the context of what's going on so then I can go back [later] and try to figure out more specific details and I can relate it to what I think is going on in the story. (Interview Reading 2)

In this comment, Alyssa states the use of skimming in conjunction with re-reading, suggesting that for her, the two strategies are interconnected.

In contrast to the above idea, other participant comments connected skimming to feelings of being rushed or less motivated. For example, Tanner stated once that when he was “getting frustrated with [a reading] and . . . realized that [he] didn’t have time to do everything,” he decided that it would be “easier to just skim the entire thing . . . and try to guess what it means” (Interview Reading 3). In this comment, Tanner associates skimming as a less effective strategy stemming from his frustration and lack of time. Similarly, Alyssa reported skimming as a negative strategy when used in isolation:

"I think [rushing through a reading] is negative usually, just because you don't really get the full meaning behind it usually. When I'm just skimming through I lose a lot of the details in the story . . . if you're not going to go back and read it through entirely then it's not really that great." (Interview Reading 2)

This comment provides an additional insight into the opinion of Tanner that skimming is not always a preferred strategy. Thus, although skimming is frequently employed, it is sometimes viewed as less effective than reading carefully. All of these comments demonstrate that L2 students may not always be aware of the purpose of specific strategies, nor when it is most effective to implement their use. In addition, the complexity of the participants’ perceptions indicates the effect of motivation on student beliefs and strategy use as suggested by Matsumoto,

Hiromori and Nakayama (2013) when they concluded that “motivations strongly affected the way strategy use and beliefs related to one another” in their study. In the current study, the students’ motivations, to either preview a reading as part of a strategic approach or rush through it due to a lack of time, affected whether the participant viewed this strategy as positive or negative. In other words, their motivation altered their beliefs about the strategy. Because of this, reading instructors may need to be more explicit with strategy training and help students understand when best to employ certain strategies during their reading.

Skipping over difficult parts of the text. Alyssa, Tanner and Lauren mentioned the compensatory strategy of skipping over difficult portions of the text. This contradicts the findings of Rusciollelli (1995), who reported that only 25% of participants skipped unknown words as they read. Adam did not mention this strategy, most likely because he understood the majority of what he read and therefore could spend a little extra time on the parts that were more difficult. The other three participants, however, described “skipping” portions of the readings that were difficult for them. This, once again, supports the findings of previous research that many students prefer this strategy during their L2 reading (Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Pookcharoen, 2012). For example, Lauren reported that this strategy was one of the most effective strategies for her (Interview Reading 3) and Alyssa described “ignoring” portions of the readings that were confusing for her (Interview Reading 1).

Tanner, however, had a more detailed opinion of this strategy that was primarily based on the type of post-reading assessment he expected. When asked what advice he would give a classmate on a particular reading, he replied “I feel like I would tell them . . . to just skip some parts that don't make sense. Especially on the first page where it was talking about the different groups of people; if you didn't understand what it was [it was ok, because] it wasn't essential to

the story” (Interview Reading 3). In this comment, Tanner describes skipping parts of a reading that he views as nonessential, which he ascribed to the quiz questions he received later. At first, it appeared that Tanner was confident in his use of this strategy. Still, after further questioning, he revealed a significant doubt that was related to his class assessment:

Part of it makes me a little nervous, because there's always that fear that the one part that you skip will be on the test or the quiz. I try not to do it, but if I don't have time to look everything up or if there's a lot of small details I feel a little better about skipping it or skimming it because it's just not efficient to know everything. (Interview Reading 3)

In this quote, Tanner reveals his practical approach to reading, yet he still communicates his preoccupation with his course assessment. This demonstrates the claims of Oxford and Nyikos (1989) that assessment has a significant impact on strategy use. Furthermore, as Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013) suggest, motivation, which in this case is directed towards assessment, greatly affects the student’s beliefs about specific strategies.

As a follow up to the above statement, Tanner discussed that reality dictated he skip parts that he did not understand. If he had had more time and energy for a specific reading, he might look up all unknown words; however, often this is not possible. Thus, skipping over parts is viewed as a less preferable strategy to defining all unknown words: “I feel like you would have a more comprehensive understanding of the work [if you looked up words], but yeah, it just isn't feasible sometimes” (Interview Reading 3). Thus, although skipping difficult parts was seen as a good strategy, it was the realities of time instead of the student’s perceptions that often dictated its use. In the end, the student’s motivations for one task may be sacrificed when other demands, such as other homework or a busy work schedule, take precedence for the individual’s overall life success.

Use of reference materials. As demonstrated by Tables 1, 2, and 3, using reference materials was the most common strategy among participants of all proficiency levels. This “support strategy” (Mokhatri & Sheorey, 2002) was most commonly mentioned with respect to Google Translate, Spanishdictionary.com, WordReference.com, and the English glosses provided in the texts. The use of a paper dictionary was primarily absent, although Alyssa reported using a paper dictionary for sentimental reasons. Overall, participants often expressed dissatisfaction with the translations they encountered, because they still lacked understanding of the defined words in the context of the reading. Additionally, some participants mentioned a preference to look up all unknown words, but due to time constraints had to forgo this strategy. Still, other participants demonstrated a selective use of reference materials as well as a changing perception of this strategy as the semester progressed.

The use of reference materials was perhaps the most interesting strategy to examine, because its use was widespread but not always embraced. In Rusciolelli’s (1995) study it was reported that 50% of students looked up unknown words, but in this study it appeared to be more frequent. Additionally, Carrell (1989) suggests that for lower-proficient students, dictionary use may be a very beneficial strategy. Still, a variety of affective factors were associated with this strategy, and it was employed by students of both proficiency levels. Generally, translating or glossing an unknown word is seen as an effective strategy, but students are still deciding how frequently this strategy should be used. This corresponds to Pookcharoen’s (2009) findings in that support strategies are widely used; however, participant comments provide a more detailed explanation that enriches our understanding of this complex strategy.

One interesting element to this strategy is how students decide which reference material to use. For instance, Tanner reported using Google Translate because it was the first thing that

appeared when he typed “online translator” into the Google search engine. Although he did not seem aware that Google had influenced his findings, he reported satisfaction with this tool. He reported seeing Spanishdictionary.com in class but has never received specific instruction on online dictionary use. Alyssa, on the other hand, primarily uses Wordreference.com because one of her Spanish teachers had modeled its use. Finally, Lauren frequently used Google Translate and SpanishDictionary.com simultaneously, although she once texted her sister to look up words for her while she was working at a basketball game (Interview Reading 2). When asked how she discovered these tools, Lauren replied, “Just on a Google Search. I think on one of the words I couldn't find a definition, and the Google Translate one didn't have it, but I clicked on the Spanish Dictionary one and it had one, so I just left that page up so I could just go back and type in the words for the rest of it” (Interview Reading 2). Lauren also reports having no teacher modeling of dictionary use, which suggests that this strategy is somewhat absent from the literature classroom. Furthermore, because students use Google Search so frequently, it is most likely that Google Translate will be the first tool they encounter, which may not always be the most appropriate tool for their purposes.

When discussing the effectiveness of online dictionaries with participants, it was evident that they are aware of the limitations of these references, but their awareness greatly depended on the amount of teacher modeling they had received. Alyssa, who had experienced teacher modeling, reported, "Online translators don't always get the translation correct, because they're just a machine and they don't really understand the deeper meaning of what you're actually trying to feel . . . That's the problem with online translators . . . there's multiple meanings to the word" (Interview Reading 2). On the other hand, Tanner also recognizes the limitations of Google Translate, but appears to be less skeptical than Alyssa of its accuracy: “If just the words don't

make sense, if it's a saying, I'll have the whole phrase translated. I usually try to go word-by-word first and then if that doesn't work, I'll usually try the whole phrase” (Interview Reading 2). When asked if he ever experienced problems with Google Translate, he responded, “I like if you translate something you can look up alternate translations too, it doesn't just give you the one, so you can see which one makes the most sense in the context” (Interview Reading 2). Thus, Tanner, who did not receive teacher modeling, was not as concerned about the intricacies of Google Translate and was satisfied that it provided its translations “from some server somewhere” (Interview Reading 2). These comments suggest that students who receive modeling of dictionary use in class are wiser consumers, whereas those who are left to their experimentation may not always be as informed. This supports the conclusions of Carrell (1989) who suggested that “Too often students in second language reading programs . . . fail to use them intelligently . . . because they do not appreciate the reasons why such strategies are useful nor do they understand where and when to use them” (p. 129). She therefore suggests, “awareness” training, which could “greatly increase the positive outcomes of instruction” (p. 129). It is quite possible that this type of strategy instruction could help Tanner as he uses an online translator.

As Tanner used a dictionary regularly, he frequently expressed more satisfaction with his own translations than with the provided glosses in the text, as can be seen by the following quotes:

- I like making sense in my own head . . . if I go through the process myself it helps me remember better than just having someone tell me." (Interview Reading 1)
- When I didn't understand something, trying to translate it multiple ways: as a phrase, just as a word. That usually works best for me. Even when they pointed it out, I kind of wanted to do it myself. (Interview Reading 1)

Even though Tanner used Google Translate frequently, he was still conscientious of his own ability to first figure out the meaning from context or other clues: “If it's a word I don't know I usually try to read before and after it to see if I can contextually figure out what it is. If I don't know it I'll get a dictionary or something and find it” (Preliminary Interview). For Tanner, dictionary use was correlated to the amount of confidence he had in himself during the reading. He was very aware of his dictionary use, but realized that eventually, when he had more L2 confidence, he would use it less:

I feel like if you aren't confident about your ability then you don't learn as much because you are relying on something else; you're relying on a dictionary or a translator. Using your own knowledge and becoming more confident in yourself lets you read faster and it's a more realistic experience. (Interview Reading 3)

Therefore, Tanner realized that his dictionary use was a sort of crutch, and he expressed a desire to use it less in the future. This may be evidence of Tanner's increasing Spanish proficiency. Furthermore, his comments demonstrate that confidence level does indeed interplay with strategy use, as suggested by Miyanaga (2007).

Like Tanner, Alyssa uses reference materials frequently, but selectively. When asked why she looks up more words in Spanish than in English she replied, “I think it's partly because in English I can get the deeper meaning, but in Spanish I don't know as many words. My vocabulary is more limited in Spanish. Usually what I do is read through it and try to see what's going on, and then I look through and find the words I don't know and look them up just to make sure I actually do know what is going on” (Preliminary Interview). This supports the findings of Martin and Laurie (1993), who found that three quarters of participants believed learning vocabulary was important for improved L2 reading. When asked how she determines if she

should look up a word in the dictionary, she provided a very logical answer. She described, “Usually I look up verbs more often, just because usually once I figure out what verb is in the sentence I can kind of figure out what the following words are because they are related to whatever the verb was. Because the adjectives are related or whatever else was following it” (Interview Reading 2). Just like Tanner, Alyssa recognizes the benefits that come from using dictionaries, but she also recognizes the value of using the context first to get meaning. Both of these students support Rusciollelli’s (1995) findings that many students make meaning by relating words to context. Vocabulary knowledge, then, is an important step in reading confidence as well as reading proficiency.

Although students report using an online dictionary with frequency, they were often unsatisfied with their findings and reported understanding a text no better than before they had used a dictionary. Several times, Tanner mentioned dissatisfaction with his understanding of a text, despite the fact that he had looked up the individual words and phrases:

- “I’m still not sure I understand what the first two lines mean. I’ve translated it, but the meaning is a little unclear to me.” (Interview Reading 1)
- “So I think I got a literal translation, but I think I have a hard time putting meaning to the words. Why are they here? . . . I feel like part of it might be a cultural thing, you know they have different phrases.” (Interview Reading 3)
- “Even when I translated this word by word and the whole phrase, I just couldn’t make sense of it.” (Interview Reading 3)
- “It was a little frustrating. Part of it being I don’t know the vocabulary, part of it I don’t really know how it [the lottery] works. I look it up and I still don’t know what it means.” (Interview Reading 3)

Similarly, Lauren reports that looking up words “doesn’t necessarily help with the overall meaning, which is hard” (Interview Reading 2). This frustration led both Tanner and Lauren to use the dictionary less towards the end of the semester. In other words, through trial and error they decided that dictionary use was not as effective as they first assumed. This, too, supports the effects that changing motivation has on both strategy use and beliefs about those strategies (Matsumoto, Hiromori & Nakayama, 2013). As both Tanner and Lauren experienced frustration with a dictionary, their beliefs of using a dictionary changed, which in turn modified their motivation to use this strategy.

Over time, experience and fatigue adjusted participant use of online dictionaries. For example, at the end of the semester Tanner suggested, “on your first try it’s probably best to guess, use your own knowledge to figure out what it means and then on the second try through to look up words and do that just because I feel like that builds up your own self-confidence and prepares you more for real-world speaking situations” (Interview Reading 3). Once again, this comment expresses the “practical” motivations for L2 learning as suggested by Martin and Laurie (1993). Lauren also commented that although she preferred to use the dictionary, as she used it less she benefited from a different perspective on the reading: “It was nice to be able to look up the words at the beginning, but I think it was kind of nice in a sense to read through it, just read through it, because it’s like a conversation, so I think that kind of helped in some ways to understand what was going on” (Interview Reading 1). Both Tanner and Lauren, students of different proficiency levels, appeared to have a firm dependence on dictionary use throughout the semester, but it became apparent that when they were not able to use the dictionary as much, they discovered some of the benefits of using more top-down strategies that allowed them to connect ideas better. As their confidence built without using a dictionary, their beliefs about this

strategy began to change. This suggests that students could benefit from a forced separation from online dictionaries, which would allow them to develop other strategies. Rusciolelli's (1995) study also indicates that strategy instruction may lead to less dictionary use: "We can hope that [after strategy instruction] students will rely on contextual guessing skills more and use the dictionary only for confirming guesses in future reading" (p. 270).

Lauren shared that her lack of time and energy prevented her from using the dictionary as much towards the end of the semester, but she was not entirely comfortable with this change (Interview Reading 3). This caused her to feel somewhat guilty, because practicality did not permit her to use what she perceived as an effective strategy. In one interview she explained her reasoning:

I was noticing while I didn't have my computer that it was helpful in some senses because I was just reading and getting the general idea and I wasn't as concerned with getting the details, so that's better than trying to get the details and not getting the general idea. But at the same time it was really frustrating, because it's really hard to read something and not understand a word. It bothers me. (Interview Reading 2)

When asked why it was so important for her to look up words she did not understand, she replied, "I'm afraid of missing something, or it could be something that's important" (Interview Reading 2). In other words, she experiences a conflict between her time constraint and her fear of missing important details. Unlike Tanner, who is not bothered by ambiguity, Lauren did not overcome this challenge. As the semester progressed, this tension impacted Lauren's affect, and seemed to wear on her more with each reading. She did appreciate that not using a dictionary allowed her to grasp better the global meaning of the text, but she still seemed hesitant to rely less on her online translator: "I don't know if I cannot use the computer. That would be hard"

(Interview Reading 2). Therefore, in Lauren's situation, dictionary use is closely related to affective factors (Miyana, 2007), and there is a close connection between academic stress and this strategy.

Adam was the one participant who frequently mentioned that he did not have to look up any words, but this does not mean he did not use any reference materials. For him, the English glosses in his texts were well placed and sufficient. In fact, he was very satisfied with his literature textbook:

All of the words I didn't know [were glossed in the text]. The book helps. I like it a lot. It will have the author and some of the traits that he or she is known for and then all of the words that I don't understand, 90% of them are at the bottom of the page. (Interview Reading 1)

Even though he seems content with his understanding from glosses, he too lamented not looking up more words: "I probably should have looked it up more but I figured the bare definition was good enough for me" (Interview Reading 1). This is very interesting, because even an advanced student such as Adam, who rarely has to use a dictionary to adequately understand a text, exhibits the same culture of dictionary guilt as does Lauren, a student who is greatly dependent on a dictionary. This expresses that students perceive dictionary use as a sort of "good student" strategy, and even though they may choose to not use the dictionary, its use is still viewed as being somewhat superior to other strategies. This conclusion extends beyond those of other studies, who simply document the use of strategies and do not delve into the deeper psychological reasoning behind strategy use.

The issue of dictionary use is very interesting, because although it may inhibit students from staying in the flow of reading and also take up more time than is possible to spend on a

text, students frequently use this strategy as a sort of measurement of how “well” they are reading the text. This situation echoes participant comments that reading was a tool for improved speaking and vocabulary knowledge, which for them signals language proficiency. It appears that students believe knowing more words in the texts is connected to their overall understanding, and thus helps them to be better users of the language. Furthermore, these findings are also connected to what Oxford and Nyikos (1989) described as the “traditional, structure-oriented, discrete-point” culture we have established in our foreign language classrooms (p. 293). Students have been so conditioned to know every detail of a reading that they are somewhat hesitant to fully adopt top-down strategies that could in fact lead to better reading comprehension.

Influence of assessment on strategy use. As mentioned in the Literature Review, assessment has been shown to greatly affect reading strategy in the FL classroom (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). This was also found to be true among participants in the current research. As is to be expected, participants were very conscious of their upcoming reading assessments, which took the form of quizzes, reading questions and class presentations. Often, they used their quiz scores as validation of how well they were reading in Spanish. For instance, Alyssa explained, “The first test I did well on, so I was happy, so [doing well on the test] isn't as much of a stresser” (Interview Reading 2). While it is the researcher’s position that assessment is a necessary and often motivating component of any FL course, it is important to recognize the effects assessment has on reading performance. Especially in classes where reading strategies are not explicitly taught, assessment can greatly alter the effectiveness of each student’s approach. Therefore, by examining student’s comments we can better understand how to help them harmonize test preparation with effective reading strategies.

First, it is important to remember that assessment often motivates students to continue with their assignments when they otherwise would choose not to. For example, Lauren stated, “In the classes I’m in now I for sure do the reading, ‘cause if you don’t it’s obvious. We have quizzes or tests or the honor system questions, so I don’t skip out on the reading” (Preliminary Interview). Furthermore, several of the participants mentioned that because of their upcoming assessment, they modified their strategies to those they viewed as more effective. Tanner stated, “I’ll probably read it a couple of times if I know I’m going to be tested, as opposed to just probably reading it once for my own enjoyment” (Preliminary Interview). Alyssa shared a similar approach that conveys a definite focus on the teacher’s expectations: “you analyze it more and try to pick out more details and what you think will be [happening in the story] . . . you’re trying to pick out what you think the teacher will ask you about on a little reading quiz” (Interview Reading 2). Likewise, Adam also describes trying to identify important details when he reads for a quiz:

When you know you’re going to be assessed on it, you’re trying to figure out what the teacher’s going to want from you; what you need to know. So you pay attention more to the details and that’s why I try to go back, to make sure I knew who the characters were. Whereas if I’m reading more for fun I try to just understand the macro-level of the story [and not the details]. (Interview Reading 1)

In all of these statements, the students express a desire to look at the text from the assessment perspective, which causes them to re-read a text, look for details and pay closer attention. As Adam commented, when students know they will be tested, then “you just kind of adapt and you go, ‘Oh, I bet he’s going to ask something about that,’ so you start taking notes according to your teacher” (Preliminary Interview). In all of these comments, it appears that the assessment is

leading students to apply specific strategies they view as effective. Thus, while students are exhibiting less intrinsic motivation, they are nevertheless motivated to read more carefully, which can positively impact students' learning.

Still, it is important to note that when taken in the larger context of a university education, one specific reading assessment may not take priority over other coursework. In turn, the student is often motivated to, as Adam frequently stated, "just get things done" (Interview Reading 1). This causes participants like Adam to read "just to read and just to take the quiz and get it done with" (Interview Reading 1), which leads them to omit certain strategies, mostly top-down strategies, which they normally employ. For example, Adam describes this shift from top-down to bottom-up before a test:

I don't read as much for fun and I try to focus more on taking notes and I feel like when I read for a test it's more like I'm thinking "what kinds of questions could she [the professor] be asking me?" So I guess my reading is more focused around the test. Whereas if I'm just reading to discuss I'm looking more for themes, and maybe viewpoints and interpretations of the reading . . . you have to figure out [the] teacher, so you adapt. (Preliminary Interview)

In this comment, Adam describes looking for themes and personal interpretations less for an assessment than when he is reading for a class discussion. He expresses sacrificing his own contributions to the text for the interpretations of the professor. In essence, he stops his own interpretation and instead predicts his professor's thoughts.

Alyssa also modifies her strategy use for upcoming assessments by avoiding some strategies that she normally implements. For example, Alyssa describes why she does not take notes in her text for Spanish, but why she does for her Math class:

I don't have to remember [the Spanish reading] for longer than a day, so that's partly why I don't care if I write in [the book], because I don't have to remember it. But for my math books I always write lots of notes, because I need to go back and rethink through it.

(Interview Reading 3)

In other words, Alyssa explains that because she is only required to remember the Spanish text for a day or so to take a short quiz, she sees no value in marking up her Spanish text, which she expects to sell back at the end of the semester: “I was about to write what [a word] meant and then I decided not to write it . . . To keep my book clean . . . I'd probably write everything in my book, but I think I might sell it back so I'm trying to keep it cleaner” (Interview Reading 3). On the other hand, her math assignments are viewed as being more important for long-term retention, and therefore she sacrifices the sell-back price of the book for what she views as an effective strategy. Granted, math reading is very different than Spanish reading, but we still see a significant shift in strategy use according to the perceived long-term benefit.

Lauren confesses skipping over words that she might have otherwise looked up when she knows she's not going to be tested on that material (Preliminary Interview), and Tanner expresses feeling nervous when he skims a text because he does not have as much time to prepare for a quiz as he would like (Interview Reading 3). Hence, assessment has an effect of negating certain reading strategies that may otherwise be implemented. Participants also communicated that the traditional environment of the classroom has somewhat inhibited their reading. For example, Adam stated that school gets in the way of him reading as much as he would like: “I'm sure you probably know. Sometimes reading gets like, you have a million pages to read a night and so you're just like, ‘oh my goodness’” (Interview Reading 1). Still, due to the frequency of class assessments in a reading course, it becomes difficult to completely isolate

strategy use from classroom assessments. Thus, as stated in Chapter 2, it appears that strategy use is “suppressed by the traditional, academic environment of the classroom— a setting which promotes and rewards performance on discrete tasks rather than interactive, communicative efforts” (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989, p. 297), making it difficult to identify the true reading personality of each participant.

Uncertainty of purpose for reading. One metacognitive reading strategy labeled by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) was identifying a purpose for reading. This strategy was addressed during each interview, and it quickly became clear that participants did not have a well-identified purpose for reading each text. Below are some examples of participant responses to the question “What was the purpose of reading this text?” In this instance, a list of comments is provided to emphasize the frequency of uncertainty in participants’ responses as well as the variety in their answers:

- “I’m not entirely sure. Ummm. It usually fits in with the vocab theme of the chapter, but not always. I guess there’s a poem every chapter to get us used to the reading, see how the culture is. This one is about human rights and stuff, so this doesn’t explicitly use the vocabulary that we had, but it gets you used to the idea.” (Tanner, Interview Reading 1)
- “I think it gives some insights into the culture of the Latin American people, which was cool.” (Tanner, Interview Reading 2)
- “The unit we’re on kind of talks about finances, so it kind of made sense there.” (Tanner, Interview Reading 3)

- “We have been studying commands in Spanish and I noticed that this paragraph has lots of commands. I think [this was the purpose]. I just don't remember what the unit is about.” (Alyssa, Interview Reading 1)
- “I don't know. [The chapter is] about discovering stuff, so [we read this] probably because it was about the human body kind of, a little bit. So it was a random kind of scientific discovery, I guess . . . maybe to become more familiar with some of the words? I don't know.” (Alyssa, Interview Reading 3)
- “I don't know. I just know that part of it has to do with understanding literary devices that different authors use. That's why they always have the author and his works, and you read a little bit about him and things that are typical of him and a story that he does. I think it's just another way of helping us see different devices that you use.” (Adam, Interview Reading 2)
- “Well, we talked in class about how it's kind of a comedy, but it's not really that funny.” (Alyssa, Interview Reading 1)
- “I'm not sure.” (Alyssa, Interview Reading 3)

Collectively, these comments provide an almost humorous collage of mental exertion as the students try to define the purpose of each reading. These responses come from interviews that were held before participants discussed the readings in the course. Following are comments from a couple of interviews that were held after the student had been to class. This was very obvious, because they had successfully identified the teacher's purpose in assigning the reading:

- “Before class I just figured we were just reading it to read it. But I just figured it was part of the readings, a good reading to read. After class, we talked about *la tradición* and what that signifies and some humor in Spanish literature. So going through it—

and no one in the class, including myself, really caught on to the humor--it showed good evidence of *la tradición* in Spanish literature.” (Adam, Interview Reading 1)

- “After the fact we talked about it being *realismo mágico*. Just a new type of literature.” (Lauren, Interview Reading 2)

Especially in Adam’s response, we see the confusion that existed before the class lecture followed by the clarification that came with class discussion. This finding supports Linderholm’s (2006) conclusion that students often have a variety of purposes when approaching a text, which in turn can alter how they approach a reading. Consequently, while the professors may have a specific purpose in mind, because of the lack of pre-reading preparation, students are left to their own conclusions. As was seen in the comments above, participants identified cultural, linguistic and literary purposes for reading, but often they were unsure of the “right answer.” Furthermore, we know that students often approach their reading with more “pragmatic” agendas than their literary-minded professors (Martin & Laurie, 1993, p. 188). This indicates that students are likely to employ a variety of strategies that may or may not be effective in reading the desired goals of the course (Linderholm, 2006), which in turn can result in more anxiety and less reading success.

Reading alone. Finally, one especially interesting characteristic of all four participants was that they consistently read each text alone and without consulting other classmates. During each interview, participants were asked if they ever discussed the reading with anyone else, and they consistently replied that they had not. The only exception was Adam, who occasionally read with his wife to help practice pronunciation. Still, as his comments demonstrate, reading out loud was not connected to the meaning of the text but instead to the linguistic similarities and differences between Spanish and Portuguese. Alyssa did mention that she occasionally calls her dad to get help if she is “having a really hard time,” but as she added, “usually I just figure it out

on my own” (Preliminary Interview). Furthermore, both Tanner and Alyssa mention that they rarely discuss the readings in depth during their SPAN 205 classes, which indicates that they rarely discuss the texts at all. As Alyssa clarified, “We usually just have the quiz and then we talk about it for a couple of minutes and then move on. It's hard because class is so short and there's a lot to cover” (Interview, Reading 3). Thus, due to many factors, reading is a somewhat solitary experience for these students.

Due to the highly social nature of the world in which these students live, with the average student engaged in one or more social networks, it is surprising that they do not collaborate more with one another. Lauren discussed this a little in her last interview, and her comments provide thoughtful insights. She finds value in figuring out a reading on her own, and she believes this is ultimately the best way to figure out a language. While she always accepts help when it is presented to her, she rarely seeks it out. Whereas she constantly interacts with her peers with her “leisure readings,” she prefers working alone with her academic assignments. She was asked if this was due to a sense of competition among students, but she replied, “I would say no. Working with groups can be hard to coordinate with other people. It is hard to work in groups when you feel like you have to contribute something valuable and others may or may not be reliable. I would say it is generally the norm from my experience unless you have friends in your class” (Comments on Interview Reading 3). This comment expresses some hesitancy when working with other students, due to a doubt that all contributions will be of equal value. This supports Linderholm’s (2006) comments that strategies may differ when reading for entertainment purposes versus reading for study purposes. It is very possible that reading with a peer could in fact be beneficial for students, but in this study, participants did not implement this social reading strategy.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

In conclusion, the more we as teachers do to promote a positive learning environment for our students, the more success we will see in the classroom. As Pachler and Allford (2000) suggest:

Reading is a highly complex and important skill, be it in the mother tongue or in the foreign language, and it needs to be learnt (and taught). It is not merely a matter of information processing and fitting together disparate pieces of information extracted from texts. It involves the making of judgments about the information contained in the texts Literary texts, due to their specific characteristics, require certain reading strategies, which need to be taught. (p. 244)

The current research attempted to contribute to this teaching of reading strategies by giving FL instructors access to the thoughts and perceptions of students as they approach different FL literary texts.

The first question addressed by this study was “What type of reading strategies do university Spanish students use during a literary reading task? After examining participant responses, it becomes clear that these students employ a variety of both top-down and bottom-up strategies, thus demonstrating the presence of an interactive reading model (Eskey, 2005). The most common strategies employed were using reference materials, re-reading and creating associations. The majority of the strategies used can be classified as cognitive, compensatory and memory-related strategies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989), with affective and social strategies playing much less of a role in the reading process. Furthermore, these participants utilized a variety of problem-solving strategies as well as support- and global-strategies, which supports the findings

of Mokhatri & Sheorey (2002). Students most consistently reported using cognitive, compensatory and social strategies, but were much less aware of metacognitive and affective strategies and rarely mentioned them in their interviews. Although previous research demonstrated that strategy use differed between L2 proficiency levels (Carrell, 1989; Carrell, 1991; Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2006; Lee-Thompson, 2008; Pookcharoen, 2009; Tsai, Ernst & Talley, 2010) this study found that strategy use was more dependent on individual personality and learning goals.

The second research question addressed was “In what ways are students’ perceptions of specific reading strategies related to their strategy use?” Overall, students were less aware of metacognitive and affective strategies, and they commonly mentioned only a handful of strategies, even though their interviews demonstrate that they use a variety of approaches. Furthermore, perceptions of the effectiveness of specific strategies were more closely tied to assessment and time constraints than overall understanding and reading satisfaction, which makes a case for strong washback effects in the FL literature classroom. For example, all participants mentioned guilt about being a “bad student” in terms of using or not using certain strategies when they expressed their guiltiness for not looking up all of the words they did not know in the dictionary.

In accordance with Miyanaga (2007), several affective factors such as stress, fatigue, frustration, confidence level and motivation tended to determine students’ perceptions of specific reading strategies and even alter their implementation. All of these findings are centered on the reality that participants perceive L2 reading as a pragmatic stepping-stone towards individual learning goals, which Martin and Laurie (1993) suggest differs from the learning outcomes of the university level foreign language course.

As Oxford and Nyikos (1989) indicate, the use of “appropriate learning strategies” is often a good indicator of successful language learning (p. 291). They state that using learning strategies properly “enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction,” which can produce life-long learning habits that carry over to outside of the classroom (p. 291). By documenting their strategy use and perceptions, it is hoped that FL university programs can better align their literary reading activities to assist students in not only achieving their proficiency goals but also experiencing success with the cultural and linguistic benefits FL literature can offer.

Limitations of the Study

Due to the nature of qualitative research, there are many potential limitations to a study of this sort. For instance, verbal report protocols have been implemented in many foreign language studies to better illustrate the process of language learning. Still, Anderson (1996) claims that these protocols have “helped redirect attention from a focus on products of language use to a focus on the ongoing process” but not without potential shortcomings (p. 3-4). Citing previous research, he states several possible drawbacks from the protocol method. First, subjects may rely on their own background information when reporting on a task and instead interpret the task rather than simply report on the mental process. Second, the individual elements reported during the protocol may not be sufficient to generalize entire processes and create more evidence that extends beyond that which common sense can provide. Finally, because of the automatic nature of processes such as reading, a recall protocol may not adequately depict the subconscious steps that do not involve the working memory (p. 4-5).

While I agree that a recall protocol does not provide a depiction of the automaticity during the reading experience, I view the interpretative nature of the protocol as one of its

greatest strengths. Because we cannot adequately explore the subconscious nature of reading, we should therefore include readers in the interpretations of their experiences. As with all learning, reading is a complex process that involves many elements of the individual psyche. Thus, as Anderson (1996) concludes, “In spite of any weaknesses, the use of think-aloud protocols and their retrospective cousins provides valuable insight into a rich source of data that are inaccessible to observation and would otherwise be lost” (p. 5).

Another limitation of this research comes with the inevitable biases of the researcher that could have potentially led participants toward certain conclusions. Still, by using open-ended questions follow-up questions, member checking during the writing process, and triangulation with different data sources, it is hoped that biases have been kept to a minimum.

It is important to mention that this research is primarily dedicated to the reading of literary works and not to other types of reading. As stated by some participants, reading strategies often change according to text type, thus limiting this study to literary readings. It is not my intention to apply these findings to other types of L2 readings, because as noted, it is very likely that strategy implementation would greatly differ according to text length and type. Furthermore, as demonstrated by the participants, strategy use may change as students’ understanding of different genres is increased.

Finally, because of the subjectivity involved in qualitative analysis, it is not presumed that the results of this study are generalizable to all populations. Instead, my hope is that the experiences of these students can assist L2 literature and language instructors to reflect as they consider how to better scaffold and implement literary readings in their own classrooms.

Pedagogical Implications

One of the most interesting findings of this research is that students, regardless of proficiency level, were aware of only a few types of reading strategies, primarily re-reading, reading more slowly and looking up words in a dictionary. Just as Rusciollelli (1995) suggests, “When one begins to read in a foreign language. . .many of these unconscious strategies remain just that, and students begin translating word for word” (p. 262). Furthermore, students’ implementation of many strategies was more reactionary than purposeful. This suggests that L2 reading instructors, regardless of the course difficulty, should consider teaching effective reading strategy use as part of their course. Miyanaga (2007) also concluded that because students often recognize the importance of various reading strategies yet find incorporating these strategies difficult, “reading teachers should train students to apply top-down reading strategies and pay attention to more global aspects of textual meaning and organization as well as equip them with a good command of bottom-up reading skills” (p. 126). Furthermore, “Literary texts, due to their specific characteristics, require certain reading strategies, which need to be taught” (Pachler & Allford, p. 244). These recommendations are also supported by the current research.

Another interesting finding from this research is students’ perception of dictionary use as one of the most important reading strategies to implement. This is in part due to the perception that class tests and instructors will require students to understand every word in their text. Lopez Medina (2010) also concluded that “students depend significantly on the teacher or on the reference material (grammar books, dictionaries, the Internet),” which “might be related to their proficiency and the fact that they do not feel autonomous enough to take risks” (p. 50). While this is true, the current research demonstrates that, especially in the case of Lauren, affect can greatly influence dictionary use, despite the student’s proficiency level. This suggests that

instructors may want to not only model dictionary use in the classroom, but also help students gain more confidence in their own decision making by setting more realistic expectations for comprehension and word recognition. This is especially important in a literature classroom, where personal interpretation should be valued as much as that of the authoritative voice. As Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Pachler and Allford (2000) indicate, until we modify the academic environment to be one of communicative and interactive expectations, our students will continue to implement bottom-up strategies that do not always allow them to develop autonomous language learning. It is therefore up to the professor to change this dynamic.

In addition, participants overwhelmingly demonstrated that their purposes for reading in Spanish were not completely centered on appreciating the literature as a work of art. Instead, the realities of academic life often caused students to view their reading as simply something to “get done,” or an assignment their professor thought was important. This often resulted in a lack of purpose for reading as well as a certain amount of uncertainty that clouded the reading process. Miyanaga (2007) states that teachers should be aware of potential affective variables, such as competitiveness, unrealistic performance expectations and mistaken beliefs about language learning that can cause reading anxiety and impeded students’ comprehension (p. 129). By simply offering pre-reading activities the day a reading is assigned, an instructor can effectively establish a purpose for reading, as well as realistic expectations for reading comprehension. Pre-reading activities should accomplish the following goals:

- Establish a purpose for reading the text
- Activate students’ background knowledge about the topic and genre
- Teach information that is necessary to understanding the text, including cultural concepts and vocabulary

- Establish realistic expectations about what is in the text
- Raise interest in the topic and motivation to read the text (Dr. Blair E. Bateman, personal communication, January 28, 2013)

I would also add that students need to be presented with realistic expectations as to how many of the words they need to understand in order to accomplish the purpose for reading the text, which would alleviate overuse of a dictionary or other resource. These pre-reading activities, which in many instances would only last a few minutes, could greatly improve both the experience and comprehension for L2 reading students, as well as produce a more meaningful class discussion.

Finally, when discussing pedagogical implications it is necessary to remind ourselves of Lauren, whose affect greatly altered her L2 reading experience. As we examine Lauren's experience with reading in her Spanish class it becomes apparent that her instructor was probably unaware of Lauren's frustration and fatigue, which may have caused her even more frustration as she tried to hide her feelings during class. This suggests that reading professors should take the time to ask their students about the L2 reading experience and address their stress and frustration when necessary. If Lauren's professor had been aware of her fear of failure, it is most likely that this could have been addressed early on in the semester, allowing Lauren to overcome this challenge and consequently improving her reading experience. Because reading is such an individual experience, it is important that professors are aware of the diversity of needs in their reading classroom so that they can differentiate their instruction appropriately. If professors remain content to simply lecture in front of the class and never assess the quality of reading for individuals, they will never be able to successfully resolve some of the more invisible challenges, such as fear and anxiety, which plague students of all proficiency levels.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research should continue to explore L2 reading strategy use with qualitative methods, because as Miyanaga (2007) comments, “they provide rich information about the dynamic and complex state of learners’ minds” (p. 131). There is a solid body of quantitative research on reading strategy preference, but to date there is still little data that explore the individual differences between participants from a motivational and psychological perspective. Matsumoto, Hiromori and Nakayama (2013) agree, and encourage future research that illustrates “how individual differences in motivations and beliefs affect reading strategy use,” because as they claim “it is absolutely necessary” that the relationship between reading strategy use, motivation and general learner beliefs during the FL reading process are understood by reading teachers (p. 46). Furthermore, more research is needed to determine the effect pre-reading instruction can have on student perceptions of reading strategies and affect. Due to the digital nature of the contemporary academic environment, more research could be helpful that explores the role of collaborative reading and digital reference materials on student perceptions of traditional reading strategies. This could also shed light on the 21st century student’s motivation and investment in traditional L2 literature. Finally, I echo Oxford and Nyikos (1989) who advocate that further research be conducted which examines the influence of traditional academic approaches on students’ motivation to experiment with “new, creative, communicatively oriented strategies” (p. 297). This discrepancy between communicative pedagogy and traditional literary approaches is an area in which much exploration is needed.

In conclusion, reading strategy use is an important field of L2 pedagogy, because unlike other L2 learning variables, reading strategies can be taught (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Furthermore, as we better understand the diverse factors that influence reading comprehension

and motivation, we can more effectively assist students to achieve the learning outcomes set forth by university departments and professors. As we do so, we can better prepare L2 learners for using the target language in a real-world context as well as create more retention that will support FL programs at all levels of instruction. This will not only validate the early years of language instruction, but also develop a more unified language-and-content curriculum (MLA, 2000) that will continue to legitimize the study of foreign language and literature in today's universities.

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Appendix A

Sample Interview Questions for Background Interview

The purpose of this interview was to explore each participant's background with reading, as well as establish a linguistic profile for each student. Below is a sample of interview questions:

1. How old are you? What is your major in school?
2. What experiences do you have with Spanish in school? Traveling? Other experiences?
3. Do you have any family members who speak Spanish?
4. What are your reasons for taking this Spanish class?
5. What experiences do you have with reading in English? In Spanish?
6. How would you rate yourself as a reader in Spanish? In English? Why?
7. In general, how do you feel about reading?
8. What do you feel are the purposes for reading in Spanish?
9. When you read a text in Spanish and don't understand some of the words, what do you do?
10. When you know that you will be tested on what you read, what do you do?
11. What are your long-term goals for learning Spanish?
12. Is there anything else you would like to share with me?

Appendix B

Sample Student Reading Logs

Tanner:

- Looked up what “adoracion rompiendo sus feos y oscuros dioses barro”, it means they destroyed their idols of other gods
- Erigió= erected
- Bajorrelieves= reliefs
- Dirigidos por Quetzalcoatl= directed by Quetzalcoatl
- I think they’re inferring that chocolate is what made the Toltecs great
- Disfranzadose= disguising
- Not sure what “boca amarga” means
- Atardecer= late afternoon
- If Quetzalcoatl threw the beans into the ocean, how did we get them today?
- The whole thing reads like a Greek myth, a way for primitive people to explain how the world around them worked and how specific things came to be

Alyssa:

I first read through it to try to get the gist of what was happening in the story. There was a lot of vocabulary that I didn't know or recognize right off the bat. I then read through it very slowly to figure out what the different vocabulary words meant and to gain a better understanding of the reading. If I couldn't divine from the text what the word was, I looked it up on wordreference.com.

Lauren:

I read “Un señor muy viejo con unas alas enormes” by Gabriel García Márquez. I started reading around 5:30 the evening of Saturday the 2nd of November. I was multi-tasking, as I was reading at the men’s basketball ticket booth while helping out with my internship, but only when people came. So it was relatively slow and quiet. At about 7:00 that evening I stopped and I was about at mid page 952. I didn’t have internet access, so I could not look up words for that chunk of reading time. I texted my sister to give me the word cangrejos in English and she did (crabs), but I knew that system would probably not work very well. I thought I understood pretty well the main ideas, but I didn’t really know why and what the author was trying to communicate. I did not know the meanings of the words podridos, garrote de alguacil, anticuario, gavián peregrinos, berenjena, hermética, aletazos, and ventarrón. I felt pretty good that I could get the general idea though. I finished my reading on the morning of the 4th of November. I started at about 6:25. I was eating breakfast as I was reading at first. This time I could look up words and I used the Google search - translate method the first time and then I just used spanishdict.com. It seemed to work pretty well. I looked up alguacil, tornasol, creolina, muladar, conjurar, peste, alambradas, desbaratado, anticuario, trabalenguas, pajarraco, rincón, rebanadas, asomó, torpes, surco, arado, hortalizas, cobertizo, aletazos, resbalaban, and buitres. I looked up podridos, but I could not find anything. I also looked up the phrase “lo sacaban a escobazos,” which I think means to kick out (line 150). I read the last part over again briefly because I had to look up a lot

of words at the last part. I finished reading at about 7:03. I felt how I did before: I understood mostly what was happening, in terms of the general idea, but not necessarily what the author wanted to communicate. I didn't feel comfortable on the details of the text either. I wondered if it was just don't judge others or don't treat others poorly. I figured Márquez did not appreciate the Catholic church. That much I knew. We had to do a few questions in our diarios from the "Pasos para una lectura más a fondo" and I had hope that doing so would help me understand a little more of the details and the author's purpose.

Adam:

Our assignment for the next class was "La Noche Boca Arriba." I have already read this story in a previous class taken at BYU-Idaho. I was looking forward to reading this story again because I have fond memories of that class in Idaho and remembered to have enjoyed reading that book. I started reading the story around 6pm. It starts out with a guy riding a motorcycle and getting in an accident because some lady throws herself into the street. He then is carried to a hospital and goes in and out of this so-called "dream" where he is a "moteca." The twist to the story is that his dream is actually reality and his supposed reality is actually a dream. The story ends with him being sacrificed by the Aztecs. Throughout the reading I was trying really hard to remember the clues that his "reality" in the hospital was actually a dream. I remembered the part where he sees the doctor standing over him with a shiny piece of metal in his hand as a representation of the Aztec priest about to cut out his heart. After I finished reading the story I began to wonder, "If this guy was really from the time of the Aztecs, how was he dreaming of things in the future?" I couldn't figure out how he could imagine a motorcycle and things of the future. He didn't even have T.V. to supplant futuristic ideas into his head. As I was thinking about that I went back through the text and began lightly skimming through it. That's when I saw at the end that he called the motorcycle a "metal insect." This was after he realized his Aztec dream was very much a reality. That made me think that maybe he really didn't understand what a motorcycle was and instead the author was using things familiar to his audience to explain what his Moteca was seeing. I'm not sure. Anyways the story was engaging because of all the twists and turns. I had to go back and reread once just to make sure I was following the story correctly because I felt like I was reading a low key version of "Inception." The story took me about a half-hour to read. That included my skimming and analysis.

Appendix C

Sample Questions for Stimulated Recall Interview

The purpose of this interview was to explore each participant's experience with the text. The main focus of this interview was to discover which reading strategies participants use, as well as their perceptions of the effectiveness of those strategies. Below is a sample of interview questions:

1. In general, how did this reading go for you?
2. Approximately how much time did you spend on this reading?
3. What did you feel was the purpose of this reading?
4. When you began reading this text, where were you? Were you alone, or did you read with someone else? What resources did you have with you?
5. We are going to walk through this reading together. As we do, I will ask you how you felt during each section, what parts were easy for you, and what parts were difficult for you. For sections that were difficult, I will ask you what you did to figure out the reading.
6. You have marks written in the text. What do they mean?
7. You have words written here in the margins. What do they mean?
8. Which strategies do you feel were the most effective for you during this reading? Why?
9. After reading through your reading log, do you have any other thoughts you would like to add?

Appendix D

Samples of Lauren's Notes in Text

El "Boom" de la Narrativa Hispanoamericana 953

que no se metieran los ángeles. Pelayo estableció además un criadero de conejos muy cerca 130 del pueblo y renunció para siempre a su mal empleo de alhacía, y Elisenda se compró unas zapatillas satinadas de tacones altos y muchos vestidos de seda tornasol, de los que usaban las señoras más codiciadas en los domingos de aquellos tiempos. El gallinero fue lo único que no mereció atención. Si alguna vez lo lavaron con creolina y quemaron las lágrimas de mirra²⁸ en su interior, no fue por hacerle honor al ángel, sino por conjurar la pestilencia de muladar que ya andaba como un fantasma por todas partes y estaba volviendo vieja la casa nueva. Al principio, cuando el niño aprendió a caminar, se cuidaron de que no estuviera muy cerca del gallinero. Pero luego se fueron olvidando del temor y acostumbrándose a la peste, y antes de que el niño mudara los dientes se había metido a jugar dentro del gallinero, cuyas alambradas podridas se caían a pedazos. El ángel no fue menos displicente²⁹ con él que con 140 el resto de los mortales, pero soportaba las infamias más ingeniosas con una mansedumbre de perro sin ilusiones. Ambos contrajeron la varicela al mismo tiempo. El médico que atendió al niño no resistió a la tentación de auscultar³⁰ al ángel, y le encontró tantos soplos en el corazón y tantos ruidos en los riñones, que no le pareció posible que estuviera vivo. Lo que más le asombró, sin embargo, fue la lógica de sus alas. Resultaban tan naturales en aquel organismo completamente humano, que no podía entenderse por qué no las tenían también los otros hombres.

Cuando el niño fue a la escuela, hacía mucho tiempo que el sol y la lluvia habían desbaratado el gallinero. El ángel andaba arrastrándose por acá y por allá como un moribundo sin dueño. Lo sacaban a escobazos de un dormitorio y un momento después lo encontraban en la cocina. Parecía estar en tantos lugares al mismo tiempo, que llegaron a pensar que se desdoblaba, que se repetía a sí mismo por toda la casa, y la exasperada Elisenda gritaba fuera de quicio³¹ que era una desgracia vivir en aquel infierno lleno de ángeles. Apenas si podía comer, sus ojos de anticuario se le habían vuelto tan turbios que andaba tropezando con los horcones,³² y ya no le quedaban sino las cánulas³³ peladas de las últimas plumas. Pelayo le echó encima una manta y le hizo la caridad de dejarlo dormir en el cobertizo, y sólo entonces advirtieron que pasaba la noche con calenturas delirando en trabalenguas de noruego viejo. Fue ésa una de las pocas veces en que se alarmaron, porque pensaban que se iba a morir, y ni siquiera la vecina sabia había podido decirles qué se hacía con los ángeles muertos.

Sin embargo, no sólo sobrevivió a su peor invierno, sino que pareció mejor con los primeros soles. Se quedó inmóvil muchos días en el rincón más apartado del patio, donde nadie lo viera, y a principios de diciembre empezaron a nacerle en las alas unas plumas grandes y duras, plumas de pajarfaco viejo, que más bien parecían un nuevo percance³⁴ de la decrepitud. Pero él debía conocer la razón de esos cambios, porque se cuidaba muy bien de que nadie los notara, y de que nadie oyera las canciones de navegantes que a veces cantaba bajo las estrellas. Una mañana, Elisenda estaba cortando rebañadas de cebolla para el almuerzo, cuando un viento que parecía de alta mar se metió en la cocina. Entonces se

²⁸ resina que exudan ciertos árboles

²⁹ desagradable

³⁰ examinar con estetoscopio

lighty
wash
heap

wire
fence

debauched
corrupted
infectious
150
intemperance

lounge
twister

160

punto decisivo

Appendix E

Reading Strategy Categories for Data Analysis

(Modified from R. Oxford, 1990)

1. Cognitive Strategies (top-down and bottom-up strategies)
 - Asks himself/herself questions
 - Attempts to translate into English w/out reference materials
 - Considers cultural influences when interpreting the reading
 - Considers the author's point of view
 - Focuses on preparing for an assessment
 - Looks for patterns
 - Looks for similarities and contrasts between Spanish and another language
 - Looks for specific details
 - Predicts the ending
 - Re-reads
 - Reads for pleasure
 - Reads out loud
 - Reads slower
 - Skims
 - Takes notes in the reading
 - Tries to identify the main idea of the reading
 - Tries to understand w/out translating every word
 - Uses pictures to understand the reading
 - Uses reference materials
 - Writes summaries
2. Compensatory Strategies
 - Skips over difficult portions of the text
 - Mentally modifies the reading
 - Uses the context of the reading to understand words/phrases
3. Memory-related strategies
 - Creates associations between the reading and material they already know
 - Figures out the meaning of a word based on previous knowledge of the language
 - Uses imagery to better understand the text
4. Metacognitive Strategies
 - Arranges the physical environment
 - Finds new opportunities for reading in Spanish
 - Previews the reading
 - Self-monitors while reading

- Takes a break from reading
5. Social Strategies
- Discusses reading with others
 - Reads alone
 - Reads with a partner
6. Affective Strategies
- Makes encouraging statements to self
 - Records thoughts and feelings while reading