

Chapter 3: Socio-affective factors in reading and the Engagement Model

3.1 Introduction

Having discussed the various reading theories and how they explain or fail to adequately explain (L2) reading development, and having shed light on new directions in reading development (i.e. metacognition, NLS, etc.) in the previous chapter, this chapter discusses socio-affective factors influencing reading development, and presents Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement Model. Thereafter, issues pertaining to tertiary level reading; L2 reading and L2 motivation, are discussed, culminating in an extended engagement model for developing L2 reading at tertiary level.

3.2 Socio-affective factors

Four affective factors were selected for this study: *motivation, attitude, self-efficacy* and *interest*. They were selected due to their frequent occurrence in the literature and their significant influence on reading. These factors are discussed in relation to their constructs and their influence on reading. In addition, the social factors (home environment, classroom environment, community, SES) are also delimited and their influence on reading development is discussed. However, they do not form an integral part of the study, as they cannot be changed by intervention. Instead, classroom activities that enhance social interaction and promote literacy practices were introduced.

As already indicated, despite the importance of socio-affective factors in reading, they have not received much attention in reading research. However, socio-affective factors, such as motivation, self-efficacy, attitude, interest, educational and home background, and socio-economic status, have recently been acknowledged by many researchers as playing an important role in reading development (Alderson 2000; Grabe & Stoller 2002; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; Taylor & Yu 2009; Wigfield & Lutz 2005). Anderson (1999) includes the building of motivation as one of the eight strategies he proposes for teaching L2 reading. In an earlier study, he concluded from his findings that students' reading of textbook-related materials can be attributed to factors such as level of interest, motivation, learning style and background (Anderson 1991). Grabe and Stoller (2002:56) make this

clear when they elaborate extensively on how socio-affective factors could influence reading comprehension. They point out that L2 readers usually bring different attitudes and varying motivations to reading classes, and these attitudes and motivations, if negative and low, largely influence students' willingness to involve themselves in reading related activities.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) link the affective factors of attitude and motivation to previous experiences, exposure to people who read, and perceptions about the usefulness of reading, among others. These factors are related to several other causes, such as varying academic goals, prior educational instructions, socialization practices from home and community, or even a broad cultural framework for literacy (Alderson 2000:25; Grabe & Stoller 2002:56). These experiences, Grabe and Stoller (2002:56) contend, shape students' perceptions of how well they can perform tasks, and lead to their self-perceptions of how successful they are as students and readers, which in turn affect their self-esteem, emotional responses to reading, interest in reading and willingness to persist. The fact that the influence of socio-affective factors on reading comprehension development is acknowledged by several researchers and educators, but has often been ignored in reading research, is clearly explained by Grabe and Stoller (2002:57) below.

No one disputes the fact that students' self perceptions, emotional attitudes towards reading, interest in specific topics and willingness to read texts and learn from them are important issues for the classroom learning environment. Unfortunately, these issues are often ignored in discussions of reading comprehension instruction, but in L1 reading research they are now seen as important predictors of academic success.

Grabe and Stoller (2002:57) cite the study by Guthrie, Wigfield and Von Secker (2000) in support of L1 reading research. In addition, Guthrie and many of his colleagues have conducted several studies that have shown correlations between socio-affective factors, especially motivation, and reading comprehension abilities on the one hand, and academic success on the other (Guthrie, Anderson, Alao & Rinehart 1999; Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala & Cox 1999; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa, Perencevich, Taboada, Davis, Scaffidi & Tonks 2004).

As mentioned above, the reader's affect is just as important as the linguistic and cognitive aspects (Elley 1996; Greany 1996; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; Schiefele 1992:159,160; Verhoeven & Snow 2001) and could be redirected to achieve positive gains in reading. A

student will read only if he/she is motivated to do so. Arguing along the lines of humanistic theories, Verhoeven and Snow (2001:2) advocate for a redefining of literacy to acknowledge the degree to which it is a social activity and an affective commitment in addition to being a cognitive accomplishment. Schiefele (1992:159) presents a model in which topic interest is influenced by cognitive and affective processes to yield text comprehension. Furthermore, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:403) point out that readers are decision makers whose affect as well as their language and cognition play a role in their reading practices. They argue that people read, not only because they have the ability, but that they are motivated to do so. These views point to the fact that without considering the affective component to reading comprehension, one cannot be certain of achievement or optimal gains in reading and other academic activities. Besides, the affect relates directly to the individual, and presents an effective means of instituting change in reading behaviour.

Although the socio-affective dimension of reading is crucially important, this area has been under-researched across the world, but even more so in developing countries (Grabe & Stoller 2002; Greaney 1996; Guthrie, Anderson, Alao & Rinehart 1999). As a result, our understanding of the influence of socio-affective factors and reading development is blurred. To incorporate these factors, a better understanding of the constructs that underlie socio-affective barriers to reading is needed. The link between socio-affective factors and reading achievement, referred to as **Engagement** (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000) is also explored. Although motivation has different facets (Deci & Ryan 2000; Dörnyei 2001b; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000), the notions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, interest, self-efficacy, and attitude are considered for the study. These aspects of motivation are selected because they are important contributors to the cognitive and conceptual processes that are vital to reading comprehension (Guthrie & Knowles 2001:159). Also, the concepts are often associated with motivation in reading research literature, and a number of empirical studies and experimental studies have been conducted in reading, using these variables of motivation (Deci & Ryan 1992; Elley 1996; Verhoeven & Snow 2001:5). In addition, these motivational variables, although known to influence reading ability and academic performance, have not all been investigated together in one study. Consequently, to understand better the overarching concept of motivation, the constructs of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic motivation*, *interest*, *self-efficacy* and *attitude* are discussed in relation to reading comprehension abilities.

3.2.1 Motivation

Motivation is usually associated with goals, values and beliefs (Deci & Ryan 2000; Eccles, Wigfield & Schiefele 1998). Based on this, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:405) define reading motivation as the “the individual’s personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes, and outcomes of reading”. Motivation is usually perceived as multifaceted, with components such as intrinsic, extrinsic, and social. Social motivation refers to the motivation or need to belong or be with others, as well as the execution of motivated social behaviour (Forgus, Williams & Laham 2005). Self-efficacy is also identified as an aspect of motivation. However, self-efficacy is discussed separately due to its singular effect on reading. Interest and attitude are also usually subsumed under motivation (Brunfaut 2008; Mori 2002), however, for the sake of clarity, they are separated in this study. In addition, Dörnyei (1994:274) explains that attitude and motivation tend not to be used together in the psychological literature, as they are considered key terms in different branches of psychology. Attitude is used in social psychology and sociology where action is seen as the function of the social context, whereas motivation is referred to in psychology in relation to its influence on human behaviour in the individual, and focuses on concepts such as drive, arousal, need, anxiety, and self-esteem (Ibid). Motivation is divided into two main categories: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is referred to as the desire to engage in a task or activity for its own sake, and involves mastery and learning goals, curiosity, involvement (enjoyment, absorption) and preference for challenge (Deci & Ryan 2000:56; Dörnyei 2001b:47; Guthrie & Knowles 2001:160 Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:407). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to external rewards and recognition as the goals for reading. It leads to performance goals, competition, and general instrumental goals for reading (Deci & Ryan 2000:60; Dörnyei 2001b:47; Guthrie & Knowles 2001:160; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:407). Whereas both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation predict reading amount and frequency of reading, leading to reading achievement, the former is said to be more beneficial in learning and in reading, and highly predicts text comprehension (Lau 2009; Wang & Guthrie 2004). Guthrie and Knowles (2001:160, reporting on Pintrich and De Groot’s 1990 study), explain that students who had higher levels of intrinsic motivation were more likely to use cognitive strategies and to be more self-regulating. More

specifically, students who believed that their school work was interesting, enjoyable and important were cognitively engaged in learning and comprehending of material. Empirical research has shown that high levels of intrinsic motivation can facilitate positive emotional experiences, self-esteem and mastery goals needed for high academic achievement (Deci & Ryan 2000). Positive emotional experiences have been identified by humanistic theorists as important for learning (Arnold & Brown 1999; Rogers 1983, cited in Brown 2000:287; Vygotsky 1978). Self-esteem has also been singled out by Deci, Vellerand, Pelletier and Ryan (1991) as promoting high quality learning and conceptual understanding. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:407, citing Ames 1992 and Ames and Archer 1988), point out that individuals with learning and mastery goal-orientation seek to improve their skills and accept new challenges in activities such as reading, and utilise deep strategies for reading, which leads to more permanent conceptual learning. Guthrie and Knowles (2001:160-161) cite Ames and Archer (1988), who showed that

[W]hen students perceive an emphasis on mastery goals, in an educational setting, they used more strategies, preferred tasks that offered challenge, and had a more positive attitude towards their class.

They further note the belief of motivation researchers that mastery and learning goal orientation is more likely to foster long-term engagement and learning than performance goal orientation (Ibid). A common means of measuring intrinsic motivation has been the use of self-reports of interest and enjoyment (Deci & Ryan 2000:57). There has been a call for the study of domain-specific motivation, for example motivation for reading or for school in general.

Extrinsic motivation, however, pertains to being externally propelled into action and involves, for example, the desire to complete a task and outperform others (Deci & Ryan 2000:55). It is perceived to be associated with the use of surface strategies for reading, which are temporary (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:407). However, extrinsic motivation can produce high achievement and can develop into intrinsic motivation for long-lasting and deep conceptual learning. (Deci & Ryan 2000:63; Dörnyei 2001b:47). For example, the use of external rewards, such as the allocation of stars to learners at primary level, has proven to be a great motivational tool for learning and achievement. Dörnyei (1994:276) argues that although intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were previously seen as opposing types of motivation, with extrinsic motivation as detrimental, recent research has shown that extrinsic motivation can be combined with or lead to intrinsic motivation. Deci &

Ryan (2000) also explain that extrinsic and intrinsic motivations comprise a continuum instead of a dichotomy, and that certain external motivators are mainly instrumental while others can foster internalisation and integration based on the level of autonomy. Internalisation is the process of taking in a value and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it forms part of their sense of self (Deci and Ryan 2000:60). A more detailed explanation of their views on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is given when discussing Self-determination Theory (cf. § 3.4.1)

In relation to reading, a number of studies have shown a relationship between positive emotional experiences and reading achievement. Quirk, Schwanenflugel and Webb's (2009) short-term longitudinal study of the relationship between motivation to read and reading fluency showed that students' reading self-concept was significantly related to reading fluency at each time point in the one-year study. Privé (2004), using the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) and Motivation to Read Profile for 585 mixed population of elementary, middle and high school students, found that motivation to read was a significant positive predictor of FCAT reading achievement. Molnár and Székely (2010:121) using different components of motivation (self-concept and attitude) to analyse the relationship between motivation and reading competency of Hungarian-speaking children in relation to the 2001 and 2006 PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study) results, conclude that reading-related self-concept was more closely associated with reading achievement than attitude, and that students' perceptions of their own reading competence is a more reliable predictor of students reading achievement than is liking or not liking reading.

Motivation has also consistently been said to relate to students' use of strategies. Highly motivated readers are said to be strategic and employ deep conceptual strategies to comprehend (Wigfield, Guthrie, Perencevich, Taboada, Lutz, McRae & Barbosa 2008:432).

From the positive results of the various research studies on motivation and reading achievement, the issue then is how to motivate L2 students in the area of reading. Dörnyei (1994), in his construct for L2 motivation, presents a framework that consists of three levels: language level, learner level, and learning situation level, which corresponds with

the L2 learning process (the L2, L2 learner and the L2 learning environment). For each of these levels he proposes a number of teaching strategies that could be employed to increase L2 students' motivation (cf. §3.4.4.7)

Deci and Ryan (2000) argue through Self-determination Theory (SDT) that since intrinsic motivation weakens with each advancing grade, it is important for teachers to devise means to assist students to internalise and self-regulate extrinsically motivated activities so that they can be done for the sake of the activities themselves. To this end they propose SDT which is discussed under section 3.4.

3.3.2 Self-efficacy

Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:408) present Bandura's definition of self-efficacy as "people's judgements of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to obtaining designated types of performances". Pajares (2006:341) refers to it as the way students judge their competence. Applied to reading, it implies that readers are seen to believe in their ability to read successfully. Schunk and Rice (1993) found that providing students with clear goals for reading tasks and giving feedback on students' progress in reading increased self-efficacy. Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010) examined the reading self-efficacy of Japanese EFL university students and found a positive relationship between the participants' self-efficacy in reading and their reading achievement. They also found that "high self-efficacious learners performed better than low self-efficacious learners in reading achievement" (Ghonsooly & Elahi 2010:58). This led them to conclude that self-efficacy is an "important factor in the achievement of higher scores in English language skills such as [...] reading comprehension" (Ibid). They attributed this conclusion to low anxiety and frequent strategy use among learners with high self-efficacy. However, it is not the mere use of strategies but the appropriate use of reading strategies for comprehension that distinguishes good readers from poor readers. Consequently, strategy instruction has been proposed as a means of increasing self-efficacy (Dörnyei 1994:282).

Also, the degree of a student's metacognition (e.g. monitoring of comprehension) has been shown to influence his/her self-efficacy. Van Kraayenoord and Schneider (1999) studied the reading achievement, metacognition, self-efficacy (which they refer to as self-concept) and interest among German primary school students and found that higher reading achievement corresponded with higher metacognition and self-efficacy. Their findings

show that metacognition directly influences reading achievement, whereas motivation (operationalised as self-concept and interest) influences reading achievement indirectly via decoding and metacognition. They also found that metacognition and motivation had reciprocal effects on each other. Research showed that students with high self-efficacy perceive difficult reading tasks as challenging and work diligently to overcome them, using cognitive strategies productively (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:408; van Kraayenoord and Schneider 1999:319). However, studies using self-reports could experience a⁴Dunning-Kruger effect that may not show a relationship between self-efficacy and achievement. Students may report favourably on their competencies and capabilities, yet display low levels of reading achievement scores. Pretorius (2000) found such an effect with the poor readers in her study. The Dunning-Kruger effect is said to be more predominant among low achievers. Despite this effect various studies have shown a consistent relationship between students' self-efficacy and their reading achievement scores (Ghonsooly & Elahi 2010; Pajares 2006; Schneider & Pressley 1997; van Kraayenoord and Schneider 1999).

3.3.3 Interest

Interest is closely related to motivation in that interest will invariably lead to intrinsic motivation. Van Kraayenoord and Schneider (1999) discuss interest and self-concept as motivational variables. However, other researchers have discussed interest as an individual concept and have differentiated between situational and personal interest (Hidi & Anderson 1992; Renninger, Hidi & Krapp 1992; Schiefele 1992). Personal interest in reading, like intrinsic motivation, is internal, and is the enduring attraction to a topic even before a particular text is read (Hidi & Anderson 1992:216; Schiefele 1992:152). Situational interest, on the other hand, is external, triggered by environmental factors, and is defined by Hidi and Anderson (1992:216) as a “short-lived emotional state educed within a particular context”. Although personal interest and situational interest combined increase reading comprehension, research has shown a positive relationship between personal interest in particular, and reading comprehension (Hidi & Baird 1988; Schiefele 1992:152). It follows then that in as much as both forms of interest are necessary, reading classrooms should vigorously pursue students' personal interest in reading due to its

⁴ Dunning-Kruger effect refers to a cognitive bias in which unskilled individuals overrate their ability and performance in social and cognitive domains. Kruger and Dunning (1999:1121) attribute this bias to low or lack of competence and metacognitive skills, which lead to the inability of the unskilled to recognise their lack of competence.

singular positive effect. As this is not an easy feat, Hidi and Anderson (1992:218) have suggested the promotion of situational interest through text-based interest. Text-based interest is the interest in reading texts, and is elicited by creating reading materials, through the selection of ideas, topics, and themes. They state that interest that is created in this way is a particular form of situational interest. Like certain types of situational interest, this type of situational interest could later become long lasting and transfer into personal or individual interest (Hidi & Anderson 1992:229; Schiefele 1992:159).

3.3.4 Attitude

Guthrie refers to attitude as the “liking for a task” (Guthrie & Knowles 2001:161; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:405). A reading-specific definition is provided as “a system of feelings related to reading, which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation” (Guthrie & Knowles 2001:161; McKenna 2001:136).

Guthrie and Knowles (2001:161) add that reading attitudes are “affective responses that accompany behaviour of reading initiated by a motivational state”. It is sometimes subsumed under motivations, yet other researchers see it as a distinct form of the affect (Guthrie & Knowles 2001; Mathewson 2004:1431; McKenna 2001:149). Most reading researchers believe that a positive attitude is vital in fostering engaged readers (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; McKenna 2001:135).

McKenna’s (2001:140) model on attitude extends a previous distinction of the two principal beliefs that affect attitude: the object itself (e.g. reading) and a normative nature (e.g. how one’s friends view reading). McKenna’s (2001:140) model extends this distinction to include three principal factors in the acquisition of attitudes towards reading: the direct impact of episodes of reading; beliefs about the outcomes of reading; and beliefs about cultural norms concerning reading (conditioned by one’s desire to conform to those norms). The model predicts that attitudes are shaped over an extended period through the influence of these three factors. He argues that if one were to succeed in changing students’ negative attitudes towards reading, then one should target the factors that affect those attitudes (McKenna 2001:139). The direct impact of reading refers to the effect that any reading episode or encounter has on attitude. Beliefs about the outcome of reading refer to the reader’s expectations of reading - be it of success or failure, pleasure or boredom. Beliefs about cultural norms include how an individual views or reflects the

values that significant others (family members, peers, community members, and teachers) attach to reading. He argues that where reading is negatively valued by people from whom a student seeks approval, the student is unlikely to develop positive reading attitudes. McKenna's model calls for a consideration of the cultural and social aspects in relation to students' reading attitudes. This view is also shared by Matthewson (2004:1436), with his later inclusion of external motivators that takes into account mediating social influences on reading behaviour.

Mckenna (2001:145), citing studies by Swanson (1982), Wallberg and Tsai (1985), and Richards and Bear (1986), argues that there is an impressive body of research that relates reading attitude to reading ability. He states that the older the students are, the wider the difference in reading attitudes between good and poor readers. He identifies effective instructional intervention as a way of bridging this gap. Kirmizi (2011) using the Reading Attitude Scale, found that attitude is a significant predictor of the level of reading comprehension strategies used by students. Interestingly, Lukhele (2010) did not find a relationship between reading attitudes and reading levels nor in reading activity among students in Swaziland. Many of her students expressed positive attitudes to reading but in fact performed very poorly on reading tests. It seems that McKenna's model may relate to the product of reading and not necessarily the process. In other words, the relationship between students' reading proficiency and their attitude could be informed by the model but not by the relationship between their attitude and reading behaviour or activity.

In justifying why reading attitude may not always relate to reading behaviour or predict reading behaviour, Matthewson (1994; 2004) provides a tricomponent view of attitude. He argues that certain variables affect the attitude and reading behaviour relationship, and proposes intention to read as the central component mediating the attitude-reading relationship (Matthewson 2004:1433). His tricomponent view presents attitude as consisting of evaluation (i.e. cognitive), feeling (i.e. affective) and action (i.e. conative). He argues for this all-inclusive view of attitude to be used in reading research. As his model deals with three components, it can be seen to tap into various aspects of attitude and may represent a more comprehensive view of attitude. Yamashita (2004) separated the different components and found no relationship between the evaluation component and students' reading. He concludes that "merely thinking that reading is good for oneself does not constitute a sufficiently strong motivation" to read (Yamashita 2004:13). He, however,

found a positive relationship between the affective component and students' reading amount and reading behaviour. The seemingly inconsistent results of attitude research could emanate from the fact that attitude, specifically reading attitude, is a complex theoretical construct (Mathewson 1994; 2004; Yamashita 2004).

In relation to his model, McKenna (2001) provides guidelines for improving students' attitude towards reading, which includes: creating an environment that promotes reading while ensuring success and striving to show students the relevance of reading, providing positive adult models and recommending books on the basis of student opinion, using materials that students find relevant and enjoyable. Mathewson (1994, 2004) presents similar guidelines as instructional implications. He includes the fostering of cornerstone guidelines (i.e. values, goals, self-concept) underlying attitude towards reading; persuading students that various genres are worth reading; establishing classroom settings and norms that support favourable reading intentions and values; encouraging students to read large amounts of texts that stimulate satisfying feelings and ideas, and teaching students abilities that underlie successful reading.

In relation to actual classroom techniques, incentive programmes, among others, have been suggested (Mathewson 1994; 2004; McKenna 2001) though caution is given on the number of incentives. McKenna (2001) and Mathewson (1994; 2004) both argue that incentives increase the amount of reading if they are minimal, and according to McKenna these (2001:150) consist of books at an acceptable level of comprehension. Besides incentive programmes, McKenna suggests peer interactions as a means to develop positive attitudes. Research has shown that peer interaction in the form of discussion groups involving risk-free interchanges about mutually read books can lead to improved attitudes towards reading. Discussion among readers is a desirable activity, first because it leads to literate activities; second, because it broadens students' critical perspectives on what reading is; third, in relation to attitude theory, it challenges the beliefs of some students that reading comprehension is a unitary end based on a single text meaning; and fourth, it exposes students to their peers' positive attitudes which may affect the perception of negative social norms (McKenna 2001:151). McKenna's proposal and underlying assumptions are echoed by Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) in their argument for the necessity of creating a community of readers as one of the components for cultivating engaged readers and improving students' reading abilities. Mathewson (2004:1437) concurs with this view as

he states that “attitude is viewed as affecting reading only if readers believe that their social and physical surroundings are compatible with reading activity”.

The affective variables discussed separately above are often discussed under the overarching concept of motivation. For example, Lau’s (2009) study on grade differences in reading motivation operationalises motivation as self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and social motivation; Monár and Székely (2010) in using the 2001 and 2006 PIRLS data to analyse the relationship between motivational components and reading competency of Hungarian-speaking children in three countries, subsume attitude and self-concept under motivation; Mori (2002) operationalises motivation as: intrinsic value of reading in English, value of reading in English, extrinsic utility of reading in English, and expectancy for success in reading in English (the latter two referring essentially to attitude and self-efficacy, respectively). Likewise, van Kraayenoord and Schneider (1999) use interest and attitude interchangeably together with self-concept, which is frequently referred to as motivation. Self-efficacy is usually perceived as an aspect of motivation, and so is interest. Besides, personal and individual interest is usually used synonymously with intrinsic motivation (positive feeling, enjoyment and involvement), but situational interest is more aligned to attitude (liking). Guthrie and Knowles (2001:161) acknowledge that if attitude is translated into behaviour, it leads to motivation.

Although these affective factors invariably lead to motivation, they may individually influence reading ability in different ways. Singling them out, as some researchers (Guthrie and Wigfield 2000; Hidi 1992; Mathewson 1994, 2004; McKenna 2001) have done, as the present study does, allows for clarity and enables us to see the individual effect they have on reading ability.

Although studies on socio-affective factors, though scanty, are beginning to surface as exemplified above (cf. § 3.4), most of these studies are based at primary and secondary levels of education and research at tertiary level is seriously lacking – even more so in the South African context, where the current study was conducted.

3.3.5 Social and cultural factors

As discussed earlier (cf. §3.2), not only are affective factors influential in reading comprehension but so are social and cultural factors. Social factors, such as home environment, socio-economic status (SES), interaction with people who read, school environment, literacy practices in school, and cultural influences on reading are discussed (cf. §1.2.1). Whereas the negative influence of social factors cannot be undone, appropriate classroom practices (techniques, tasks and approaches) could be used to counteract these negative influences. For impeding cultural practices, awareness and instruction may be possible antidotes for changing beliefs and values, as proposed in language learning research by Boakye (2007), Horwitz (1987) and Lepota and Weideman (2002). These three studies used the Beliefs About Language Learning Instrument (BALLI), first developed by Horwitz and modified in later studies, and found that some aspects of students' beliefs about language learning may contradict the teachers' beliefs, and consequently may impede language learning. In relation to the studies the authors suggest changing students' erroneous beliefs, which are often based on social and cultural factors, through instruction and by making them aware of these mismatches.

The social factors that will be discussed are home environment, SES, school environment and cultural influences. These social factors are selected as they are frequently discussed in reading literature and are known to have extensive influence on students' reading ability (Alderson 2000; Bus 2001; Elley 1996; Grabe & Stoller 2002; Greaney 1996; Taylor & Yu 2009).

3.3.5.1 Home environment

The reading behaviour of parents, siblings, friends; the reading materials in the home; and the emphasis/importance given to reading in the home are factors considered in this section. Research has shown that the home environment is an important contributor to students' reading abilities (Adams 1990; Currin & Pretorius 2010; Greaney 1996; O'Carroll 2011; Pretorius and Lephala 2011; Taylor & Yu 2009). In as much as the home environment contributes to vocabulary development, it also fosters positive reading habits and attitudes. Greaney (1996:13) cites a number of studies to conclude that the development of early reading habits depends, to a large extent, on home attitudes and circumstances. According to Greaney (1996:13) the IEA study which investigated reading achievement with other variables, identified home environment as 'the single most critical

factor in the development of literacy'. He reports that Elley, in the same study, found that the amount of voluntary reading and the amount of reading materials in the home were positively correlated with reading achievement. Analysing Indonesian data of the same study, Greaney (1996:13) showed that characteristics of students' homes proved to be important predictors of reading behaviour and achievement at both primary and secondary levels. Home factors that have been identified to militate against the development of literacy, especially in developing countries, include: illiterate parents and adults in the home, reticence about encouraging reading in the home, lack of appropriate reading materials, and the inability of parents to purchase any form of reading material (Currin & Pretorius 2010:25; Greaney 1996:13). These home factors also relate to the SES of students' parents and family, which is identified as an important influence on reading ability. Students from low SES background are usually poor readers, due to the adverse home environment and poor education (Currin & Pretorius 2010; Pretorius 2008; Taylor & Yu 2009).

3.3.5.2 School environment

A number of students, especially those from low SES families, rely on the school environment and have to depend on teachers for basic reading instruction, as they do not have home literacy support. When the school environment does not promote students' reading development, and teachers do not handle reading classes appropriately, these students are greatly disadvantaged (Taylor & Yu 2009). The 2006 PIRLS report showed South African children's poor performance. Of the 40 participating countries, South Africa had the lowest scores. The National Systemic Evaluations also revealed dysfunction within the South African education system. Only 36% of Grade 6 learners passed the literacy test in the language of learning and teaching (LoLT), and overall, 63% were in the 'Not Achieved' band, with only 28% functioning at or above grade level (Department of Education 2005). School conditions have been cited as a contributing factor in these poor results. Currin and Pretorius (2010) cite under-resourced schools and few qualified teachers as contributing factors to students' low literacy levels. Van Staden and Howie (2010), in discussing South African teacher profiles in relation to the 2006 PIRLS results, identify teacher characteristics, use of resources and instructional practices as contributing factors to students' poor performance. They explain that there are fewer qualified teachers in the schools. The teachers themselves have had limited exposure to texts and rely heavily on textbooks, which are usually outdated. Moreover, reading strategies are poorly taught

and independent silent reading is minimal or rare; very little time is spent on reading instruction and the large class sizes in many South African schools compound the problems (Van Staden & Howie 2010). As Greaney (1996:21) explains:

Teaching in many impoverished countries [and low income communities] tends to be of the ‘chalk and talk’ variety with a high priority being placed on the acquisition of basic skills. Much use is made of the chalkboard [...] Discussions with the teacher, interactions among small groups of students, encouragement of risk-taking, and questioning of the material being presented – important factors in the development of language and reading skills – tend not to be encouraged .

In effect, teachers in low income communities use ineffective traditional modes of teaching instead of current approaches, which are believed to be more beneficial in achieving results and cultivating critical thinkers. As a result, students do not achieve the necessary reading skills from school. Greaney (1996) compares such students to those from high socio-economic status families, mostly in developed countries, but also in developing countries. He explains that children in developed countries acquire essential pre-reading skills, and in some instances basic reading skills, by being read to and through interactions in the home, even before they start to attend school. These students, who come to the school environment with some reading skills due to the supportive home environment, are also the ones who usually end up in schools with good reading support (Pretorius 2007:111). The two groups of learners (i.e. from high and low SES backgrounds) will therefore exhibit varying levels of reading abilities and academic performance (Pretorius 2007:116,117). When these two groups of students finally end up at tertiary institutions and attend the same classes, it is obvious that there will be great disparity in the reading abilities, and consequently academic performances of these students.

3.3.5.3 Cultural influence

Cultural influences sometimes have adverse effects on students’ reading abilities. Some cultures (e.g. traditional African cultures) perceive the written word as authority not to be disputed, depriving students of the ability to be critical, evaluative readers. Others may view reading in terms of functional or utilitarian purposes (Alderson 2000:25; Carstens 2004:19; Grabe & Stoller 2002:59; Greaney 1996:22). This view may have been influenced by community attitudes towards reading or, as Greaney (1996:22) points out, emanated from teachers’ emphasis on skills as opposed to reading for pleasure. Many teachers in

developing countries emphasise reading skills, with little emphasis on reading for pleasure (Elley 1996:50). Yet reading for pleasure is a consistent positive predictor of reading achievement (Beglar, Hunt & Kite 2011; Day 2010; Greaney 1996:22; Macalister 2008).

3.3.6 Engaged reading

Positive levels of the affective culminate in reading engagement. *Engagement* is defined by Guthrie & Wigfield (2000:404) as “the motivated use of strategies to gain conceptual knowledge during reading”, consciously or unconsciously. The reader achieves this through a state of total absorption (Csikszentmihalyi 1991). Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:404) argue that engagement leads to improved reading comprehension ability, which can compensate for several years of education and inadequacies in reading abilities due to poor socio-economic background.

These social factors have been known to influence reading positively or negatively (Alderson 2000:25; 26; Bus 1996:51; Grabe & Stoller 2002:59; Greaney 1996:5; 13; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:404; Neeta 2005:3; 5; 10). However, the negative influence can be overcome through engaged reading (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000: 404; 417). Guthrie (2008:3) reports that reading engagement is more important than students’ family background consisting of parents’ education and income, and is connected to achievement more strongly than home environment. In effect, Guthrie, Schafer and Huang (2001:145) in their study found that “reading engagement trumped socio-economic status as a correlate of reading achievement”.

The relationship between students’ level of engagement in reading and their reading proficiency has been well established. Guthrie (2008:3) notes that in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) comparison, students’ reading engagement predicted achievement on a test of reading comprehension in every nation tested.

Engaged readers deeply engage with texts, and exchange ideas and interpretation of texts with peers. Their devotion to reading spans across time, transfers to a variety of genres, and culminates in valued learning outcomes. Disengaged readers, on the other hand, tend to avoid reading, and minimise the effort to read, rarely enjoy reading during free time and hardly become absorbed in literature (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:403). Many of Guthrie’s studies and intervention programmes undertaken with his colleagues, focus on motivation

and engagement. These scholars contend that integrated instruction leads to high motivation and motivation leads to engagement, which in turn leads to achievement in reading and success in academic activities. This chain of events is encapsulated in Figure 3.1 below.

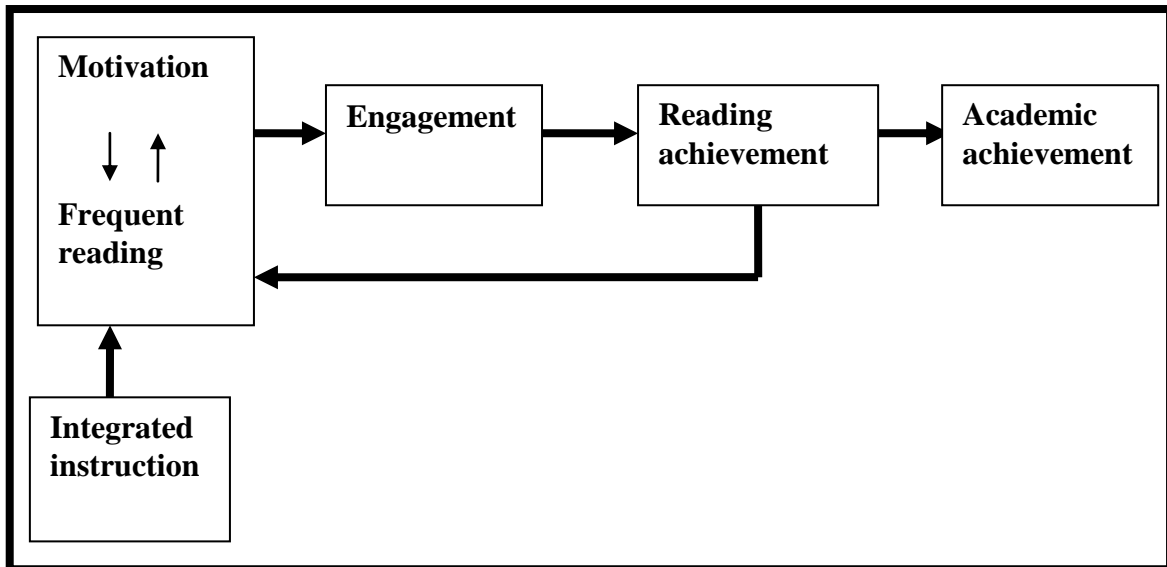


Figure 3.1: Relationship between motivation, engagement and achievement

The above figure thus introduces an important element of causal chains. Engaged reading will ensure successful reading which will, in turn, reflect in students' academic performance. This chain of events is bidirectional since reading achievement also leads to higher levels of motivation. The current study focuses on developing engaged readers by improving their affective levels.

3.3.7 A synopsis

The review undertaken so far on socio-affective factors and reading comprehension indicates that a number of variables tend to influence reading comprehension abilities. A relational model could therefore be used to provide appropriate insight into the understanding of socio-cultural and affective factors relating to students' reading abilities. This is in line with the ideas expressed by social theorists such as Giddens (2001) and Neuman and Krueger (2003), that social processes by nature tend to exhibit large amounts of feedback loop relations to the extent that at times it becomes difficult to separate causes from effects. It will therefore be interesting to consider whether in this study some causal

and feedback links exist between the social factors on one hand, and the affective factors on the other.

A snapshot model that could be used to illustrate the causal links between the determinants of reading abilities is illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.

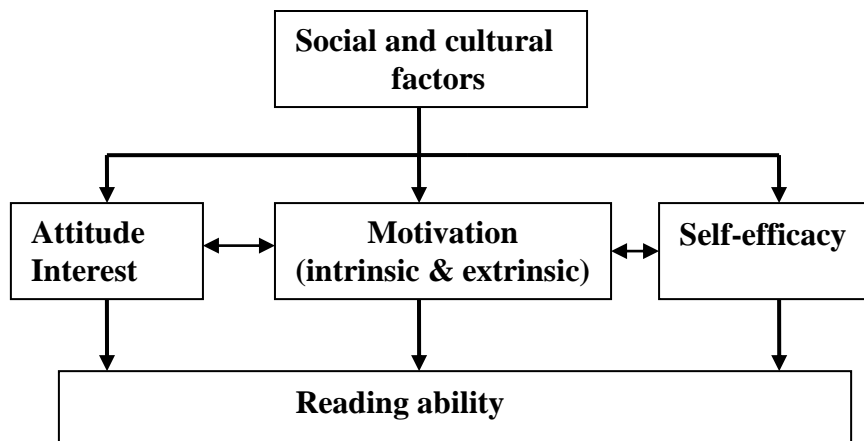


Fig 3.2: A model showing the influence of social and cultural factors on affective factors or levels, and their influence on reading ability

3.4 Engagement framework for reading instruction

The next section discusses Self-determination Theory, on which Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement Model is based. Thereafter the framework for engaged reading is discussed, and the adapted model presented.

3.4.1. Self-determination Theory

This theory is based on motivational theory, and explains how people can be motivated to perform an action for its own sake. Deci and Ryan (2000) distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and present four types of extrinsic motivation (external, introjected, identified and integrated) on a continuum, depending on the degree of external control or autonomy. External regulation is entirely manipulated from external sources such as praise and rewards; introjected regulation involves externally imposed rules such as studying for a test; identified regulation involves engagement in an activity because a person highly values the activity, sees its usefulness and identifies with the behaviour; integrated motivation, involves choiceful behaviour that is fully assimilated with the individual's other values, needs and identity. The most autonomous or fully internalised form of

extrinsic motivation is integrated motivation where the external motivator has been internalised and assimilated into the self to become self-determined, similar to intrinsic motivation. With internalised extrinsic motivation, the enjoyment of the activity is within the self but differs from intrinsic motivation in the sense that it is propelled by instrumental values or external influences. An entirely external form of motivation, for example external regulation through rewards and praise, could become internalised and develop into an integrated regulation allowing the individual to experience the activity's interesting properties (Deci & Ryan 2000).

The well-known Self-determination Theory (SDT), when applied in education, specifically the classroom, may lead to intrinsic motivation, internalisation of values and regulatory processes, which result in high quality learning and conceptual understanding. Deci and Ryan (2000) identify three key aspects of intrinsic motivation as competence, relatedness and autonomy. Competence increases autonomy by equipping students to take responsibility for learning, and also speeds up the internalisation of external motivators. Highly autonomous extrinsic motivation is associated with greater engagement, better performance, less dropping out and higher quality learning, than less autonomous extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000:65) rightly assert that self-determination can be evoked in students by creating the right social conditions or contexts through autonomy support, competence support and involvement or relatedness support. When learners are instructed to gain knowledge (competence/cognitive) and perceive a sense of involvement with significant adults, as well as collaboration with peers (relatedness/social) and are allowed to make choices and to take personal responsibility (autonomy/affective), there will be an increase in intrinsic motivation and autonomous internalisation of extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan 2000). Deci, Vellerand, Pelletier and Ryan (1991:342) emphasise their point by stating that they believe that

[P]romoting self-determined motivation in students should be given high priority in educational endeavours [...] When significant adults – most notably, teachers and parents – are involved with students in an autonomy supportive way, the students will be more likely to retain their natural curiosity (their intrinsic motivation for learning) and to develop autonomous forms of self-regulation through the process of internalisation and integration.

Whereas the idea of autonomy is not new to many educators, and its application may be widespread in many classrooms, the issue of support may be considerably absent in many

teaching endeavours. Although, as the authors admit, the understanding of the two seemingly opposing concepts of interaction (relatedness) and independence (autonomy) still need empirical work, one without the other will not promote the self-determination components needed for optimal conceptual learning (Deci & Ryan 2000; Deci et al. 1991:340). Bernhardt (1991a:187) and Guthrie and Knowles (2001:173) present a similar argument. Although it may seem contradictory, they argue that the teacher's involvement and support should be given in combination with students' autonomy and choice. One without the other will not produce optimum benefits.

Given that SDT refers to social and environmental factors that facilitate or undermine motivation, Deci and Ryan provide a number of ways to develop self-determination among students. They point out that there should be an experience of both competence and autonomy support. Although positive performance feedback enhances intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011:115), it has been shown that self-efficacy mediates the effect of positive performance feedback on intrinsic motivation. Consequently, Deci and Ryan suggest that increase in self-efficacy should be undertaken with autonomy support in order to increase intrinsic motivation. Whereas autonomy supportive teachers develop greater intrinsic motivation, creativity and desire for challenge in their students, teachers who are overly controlling cause their students to lose initiative and learn less well. Specific support for promoting self-determination in students includes offering choice, minimising controls, acknowledging feelings, and making available information that is needed for decision making and for performing the target task (Deci & Ryan 2000; Deci et al. 1991:342).

As not all classrooms and learning activities may be intrinsically motivating, and intrinsic motivation weakens with the advancement of each grade, Deci and Ryan (2000) further suggest ways of assisting and enabling learners to internalise extrinsic motivating activities through relatedness, competence and autonomy support. First, they contend that people will be prepared to undertake activities if those activities are valued by significant others, and should therefore be provided with a sense of belonging and connectedness to peer group, family, or society. For instance, teachers' care for students is important for their willingness to accept classroom values. Second, they argue that perceived competence (self-efficacy) can be used as a means of increasing autonomy, and the other way round. Deci and Ryan (2000:64) state that "[a]dopting as one's own an extrinsic goal requires that

one feels efficacious with respect to it.” In this regard, effective relevant feedback can be used to promote competence and facilitate internalisation. Third, they believe that autonomy support should be given to students. They claim that support for competence and relatedness may yield regulation, but only autonomy supportive contexts will yield integrated self-regulation. In sum, extrinsic motivation becomes internalised and integrated in environments that support needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy. Moreover, studies showed that providing meaningful rationale for activities, (i.e. promoting learning goal, cf. §3.4.2.1) along with support for autonomy and relatedness, promoted internalisation and integration.

In so far as Deci and his colleagues’ SDT may be applied to all aspects of learning, its application to reading development is particularly crucial. This is because successful reading is based first and foremost on exposure. In other words, proficient reading is achieved through frequent reading (Elley 1996: 52; Grabe & Stoller 2002; Verhoeven & Snow 2001:3). Although it is necessary to make students aware of strategy use, the goal is to get them to read independently. To get students to read, they have to be motivated and self-determined. To motivate them to read, activities that increase competence, relatedness and autonomy are vital to achieve success. Besides, strategy instruction is more successful if students are motivated. Instructional means that could enable students to internalise reading as part of the self is crucial. As students become more self-determined and motivated, their interests increase, attitudes become positive, self-efficacy and self-esteem are likely to be raised and desired outcomes achievable. These results can also in turn influence motivation. In other words these affective gains have a bidirectional effect on each other to produce achievement.

As already indicated, the importance of the affect, as well as the social context in reading improvement, has been argued for by many researchers. The individual’s affect (e.g. motivation, attitude, interest, self efficacy, etc.) and social background (e.g. home environment, socio-economic status and school and classroom environment) play a vital role in his/her reading development (Greaney 1996:2; Guthrie et al. 1999; 2000; 2004; Schiefele 1992:159; 160; Verhoeven & Snow 2001). Hence socio-affective factors have been said to be a strong driving force in students’ success in reading and academic achievement (Anderson 1996; Bus 2001; Stanovich & Cunningham 1993; Elley 1996; Greaney 1996; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; Verhoeven & Snow 2001). Based on the

importance of motivation and other affective factors in learning and, specifically, in reading, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) devised a framework for reading development. The next section discusses Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement Model of reading development, which is grounded in Deci and Ryan's (1985; 2000) SDT.

3.4.2 Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) framework

Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement Model of reading development seems to be the only model to date that fully incorporates affective issues into reading instruction and has numerous intervention reports to support its effectiveness (Guthrie, McRae & Klauda 2007; Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa et al. 2004; Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala & Cox 1999; Guthrie, Wigfield & Von Secker 2000; Wigfield, Guthrie, Perencevich et al. 2008). The integrative and affective focus of the model in developing reading abilities is highlighted, and the practical instruction in the form of Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) is briefly discussed. Thereafter, the model is adapted to the multilingual or multicultural tertiary context at the University of Pretoria, taking into consideration L2 factors as well as the tertiary academic context. The proposed adapted framework bears the features of Guthrie and Wigfield's framework in that it is integrative and focuses on cognitive and affective support to derive engaged reading. However, it builds on this framework to include issues specific to tertiary level and L2 reading in the specific South African context.

The framework is foregrounded in the reading processes discussed in Chapter 2, and aligns with the social constructivist view in its development of students' reading. The theoretical rationale is based on Deci and Ryan's (1985; 2000) SDT, which refers to interest and intrinsic motivation as major determinants of self-determination (cf. §2.5.1).

Based on SDT, an environment that is autonomy supportive is therefore required for promoting intrinsic motivation and consequently self-determination in students. In relation to this, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) identify nine classroom principles to be applied in creating the appropriate environment for fostering motivation and creating engaged readers:

- Learning and Knowledge goals
- Real world involvement
- Autonomy support
- Interesting texts
- Strategy instruction
- Collaboration
- Rewards and Praise
- Teacher involvement
- Evaluation

These classroom principles or strategies for motivating students are based on the Self-Determination Theory of Motivational Development (Deci & Ryan 1985; 2000; Deci et al. 1991), which is a sub-theory of SDT. This theory describes the development of intrinsic motivation in terms of support for the individual's need for autonomy (making own choices), relatedness (collaborating with others), and competence (understanding of the attainment of outcomes). Autonomy is provided through self-directed learning, relatedness is addressed in collaborative classroom activities, such as group discussions and projects, and competence is achieved through instruction, frequent and positive feedback, as well as rewards that acknowledge efforts put into learning. When students' needs for autonomy, relatedness and self-perceived competence are met intrinsic motivation is created, which leads to gains in cognitive achievement in reading, deep conceptual thinking and appropriate use of strategies. Consistent with this framework, the teacher provides choices for autonomy support, creates opportunities for social interaction to cater for relatedness support, and strategy instruction is provided for competence support, in order to develop motivation (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:416, 417). The classroom characteristics are discussed empirically and theoretically, with a strong reliance on Guthrie and Wigfield (2000).

3.4.2.1 Learning and knowledge goals

This instructional technique refers to the purpose for learning and is linked to performance and learning goal theory. Whereas performance goals are based on outperforming others, learning goals are based on dedication to understanding and learning. Focus on learning goals produces long-term engagement and learning (Linnenbrink 2005; Pintrich 2000). Research showed that teachers who emphasised learning goals instead of performance goals contributed to students' self-efficacy (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:409). The

assumption is that students put in more effort and apply strategies more effectively when they are made to believe that understanding the work is more important than getting right answers (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:410). However, as Douglass and Guthrie (2008:24) put it, grades are here to stay, and students who combined both performance and learning goals achieve the greatest success. A sole emphasis on performance goals, however, is detrimental.

3.4.2.2 Real-world interactions

These can be referred to as authentic interactions. They refer to connections between academic curriculum and the personal experiences of students. Reading instruction embedded within intrinsically motivating activities that relate to students' personal experiences, such as collecting information, observing and reporting, led to increase in reading motivation and strategy use (Anderson 1999; Brophy 2004; Csikszentmihalyi 1991; Guthrie, Anderson, Alao, & Rinehart 1999; Guthrie, van Meter et al. 1998; 2000). Guthrie, Wigfield, Humenick, Perencevich, Taboada and Barbosa (2006) found that reading comprehension improved when students could practically connect with the text through real-world activities and experiences. Gibb and Guthrie (2008:88) note that an hour of real-world interaction can sustain many hours of engaged reading.

3.4.2.3 Autonomy support

Students' independence and responsibility is the focus of this technique. Though a popular and general teaching technique, its application to reading involves teachers' guidance in leading students to make responsible choices in reading. Based on the convention that choice is motivating, the technique develops independence and affords students scaffolded control over topics, themes and reading materials, with teacher support. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:411) assert that individuals (e.g. students) prefer to be in command of their environment rather than to be manipulated by powerful individuals (e.g. teachers). A number of researchers have reiterated and shown the benefits of autonomy support on intrinsic motivation and reading comprehension (Deci & Ryan 2000; Lepola 2004; Reeve & Jang 2006; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon & Barch 2004). Autonomy support is linked to strategy instruction. In order for students to be autonomous they need to be competent.

3.4.2.4 Interesting texts

The use of interesting texts (texts that are significant and readily understandable) is based on the assumption that texts that are personally significant and that meet cognitive competence of students would be motivating, and consequently develop comprehension abilities. Grabe and Stoller (2002:30) argue that difficult texts that are beyond students' level of comprehension cause them to adopt coping strategies, which eventually lower their motivation for reading. Guthrie (2008:5) adds that difficult texts lower students' self-efficacy, and that texts should be at their level, as well as adequately challenging to raise their interest. Scaffolding, using different levels of texts, would enable students to approach challenging texts gradually without losing motivation. In addition, interesting texts assist in focussing reading instruction on word recognition and word fluency development (Stanovich & Cunningham 1993). Assor, Kaplan and Roth (2002) as well as Assor, Kaplan and Kanat-Maymon (2005) found that relevant texts generated students' engagement in the classroom activities. Relevant texts connect to a person's sense of self and therefore relevance is enabling (Gibb & Guthrie 2008:95).

3.4.2.5 Strategy Instruction (competence support)

This technique involves direct instruction of reading and comprehension strategies, such as summarizing, paraphrasing and synthesizing, and provides support for reading competence. A number of investigations have shown that strategy instruction promotes appropriate strategy use, increases intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy (Anderson 1991; Dreyer & Nel 2003; Guthrie, Van Meter et al. 1998; Guthrie, Wigfield & VonSecker 2000; Worden 2003). Strategy instruction is necessary for developing autonomous learners. It is only when students are well equipped with the necessary strategies that they can self-direct and self-monitor their own learning (Kumaravedivelu 2003:135).

3.4.2.6 Collaboration (relatedness support)

Social collaboration in the classroom, a type of relatedness support, was found to promote intrinsic motivation for reading and learning, and maintaining active learning over an extended period of time. Guthrie (2008:5) states that restricting reading to a solely individual activity disadvantages many students who are disposed to social interaction and who need discussion to learn. This technique promotes relatedness. When students realise that their ideas are recognised by other students, they feel a high sense of acceptance (Antonio & Guthrie 2008:52; Wentzel 2005). Wilkenson (2006) found that student-led

discussions had higher impact on students' engagement than teacher-led discussions. Collaboration supports autonomy in the sense that student-led discussions afford students a sense of autonomy and increases their understanding of texts. Furrer and Skinner (2003) showed that when students have a high sense of control in class interactions, which occurs in collaborative activities, they are highly engaged. Antonio and Guthrie (2008:55, reporting Furrer and Skinner 2003) state that students who felt related to their teacher and their peers demonstrated better academic performance, including reading grades, than students who felt unrelated. According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2000:408) the argument that engaged readers share ideas and discuss literature with others, is the basis for this teaching technique.

3.4.2.7 Rewards and Praise

At tertiary level praise and rewards could be in the form of grades, encouraging comments, positive feedback, book awards, and as Dörnyei (2001) points out, applause and celebration. Positive feedback that is based on effort encourages learning-goal orientation and promotes continued effort (Douglass & Guthrie 2008:30; Schunk 2003). Although this concept is known to be beneficial (i.e. increasing self-efficacy and motivation) (Brophy 1981; 2004), it could also have detrimental effects. Students can become extrinsically motivated and depend on performance goals, which involve the use of temporal and surface strategies, such as memorization and guessing. Their focus would be shifted to high grades, correct answers and completion of tasks instead of comprehension and enjoyment. For praise and rewards to be beneficial they should be given within Wlodkowski's 3S-3P; that is, "praise should be *sincere, specific* and *sufficient* and should be *properly* given for *praiseworthy* success in the manner *preferred* by the learner" (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:414). Although this principle is included in the instructional framework designed for this study, Guthrie and his colleagues do not seem to focus on it extensively in any of their experimental studies.

3.4.2.8 Teacher involvement

The teacher's knowledge of individual students, care about their progress and pedagogical understanding of how to foster their active participation (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000:416) are important avenues for increasing students' motivation and fostering engagement. It also provides relatedness support. When students feel that significant adults, such as parents and teachers, are involved in their learning, and that they are valued and

acknowledged by these adults, they become motivated (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2010; Wentzel 2009). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010:109) explain that the teacher significantly affects the motivational quality of the learning process in positive or negative ways, and that the teacher should be empathetic, congruent and caring. Bus (2001) showed that children who interacted positively with their parents and received parental attention had positive attitudes towards learning, and subsequently achieved success in learning. Skinner, Wellborn and Connell (1990) showed through empirical evidence that the teacher's involvement promoted reading engagement, which led to achievement in reading and content subjects. The teacher's involvement is also important for autonomy support.

3.4.2.9 Evaluation

Evaluation in the form of tests, assignments and projects should reflect students' ownership and provide motivation for reading. Evaluations that are purely teacher-centred are controlling, thus have a negative influence on learner autonomy, and may cause anxiety and diminish intrinsic motivation, which may curtail conceptual learning. Personalised evaluations (e.g. projects and portfolios) may be difficult to administer, but contribute to motivations for reading. An integration of standardized and personalized evaluations in order to produce optimal results has been suggested. Evaluating effort and progress (performance feedback) rather than absolute skills encourages success and enjoyment, and increases self- efficacy (Au & Asam 2005; Deci & Ryan 2000; Schunk & Zimmerman1997).

3.4.3 Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement Model

In addition to the instructional principles discussed above, Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Reading Engagement Model includes constructs such as motivation, conceptual knowledge, strategy use, and social interaction. The instructional techniques discussed in the framework are wrapped around the constructs, as shown in Figure 3.3 below.

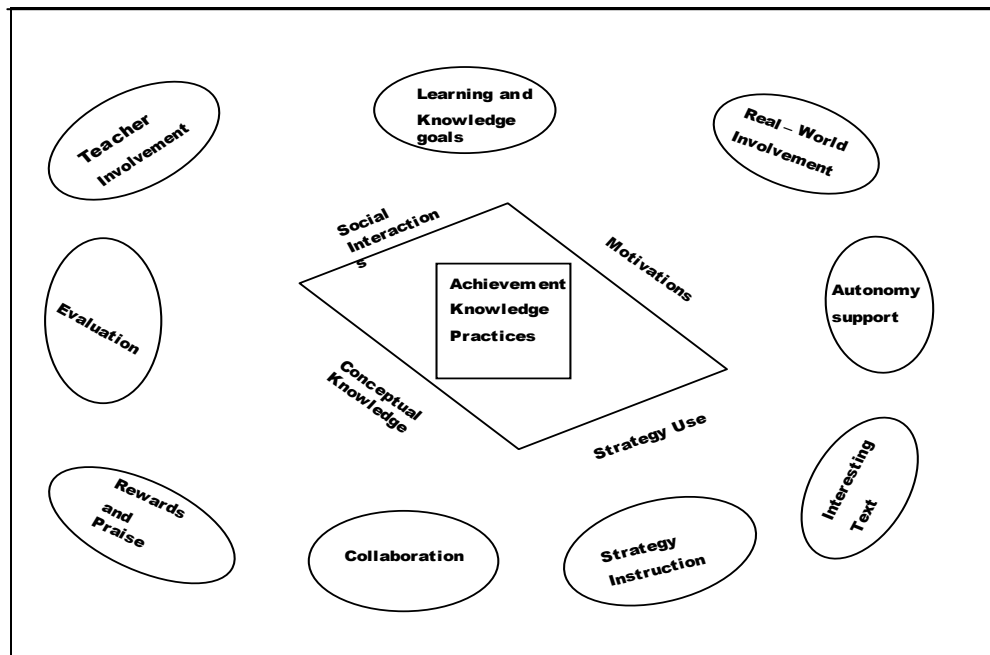


Fig 3.3: Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement model for reading development

Underlying all the instructional techniques is motivation, which includes goals, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and social motivation. The assumption is that the motivational aspects of the reader propel him/her to choose to read, and to do so, using cognitive strategies to comprehend. The strategy use aspect in the construct refers to the cognitive processes of comprehending, self-monitoring, and constructing understanding. The conceptual knowledge facet refers to reading as knowledge-driven and knowledge-applied (i.e. background knowledge and content knowledge). The social interaction facet of the diamond in the diagram points to reading as a social endeavour that refers to collaborative practices among students, inside and outside the classroom.

Achievement, knowledge, and reading practices are at the centre of the model, to show that the result of instructional practices with social and affective emphasis is achievement. Achievement is in the form of comprehension test results, and other literacy practices; knowledge is shown through standardized evaluations; and reading practices are reflected in the amount and frequency of independent reading. Guthrie and Wigfield believe that if the principles are applied with a goal towards motivation, engaged reading will occur and students will reap the benefits related to engaged reading, such as conceptual use of strategies, and obtain success in reading knowledge and reading practices.

Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) model, as shown in Figure 3.3 above, is innovative, integrative and outcome-oriented. The model stands in contrast to a number of reading research and intervention programmes that have focused on cognitive processes alone. Such research studies have included intervention programmes that focused on the effects of strategy instruction (Dreyer & Nel 2004; Worden 2005) and vocabulary instruction (Scheepers 2008) on students' reading comprehension. However, given the recent emphasis on the immense role of the affective in reading development, and the fact that many students have impoverished reading backgrounds and little or no love for reading, recent research (predominantly by Guthrie and his co-researchers) have focused on the affective in experiments and intervention programmes. Guthrie and his colleagues have reported great gains in intervention programmes on reading development based on their instructional framework of classroom principles (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000), and its practical application in Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction.

Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) combines motivation support and strategy instruction. It is used to develop elementary and middle school children's reading comprehension, motivation, and engagement in reading. CORI is a reading comprehension instructional programme that integrates science (or social science) and reading through activities and the use of science books in reading instruction (Wigfield, Guthrie, Perencevich, et al. 2008). For example, students are taught reading comprehension strategies, such as questioning and summarising, using conceptual themes (e.g. ecology, solar system, etc.) within Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) motivation framework discussed in §3.4.2. In CORI motivational practices are integrated with cognitive strategies for reading comprehension. Students learn a variety of reading strategies (e.g. summarising), which are effective in increasing reading comprehension through engagement. CORI's design is based on Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) Engagement Model of reading development, which posits that when readers are fully engaged in reading, they comprehend better, use reading strategies effectively, and are motivated to read (Wigfield, Guthrie, Perencevich et al. 2008:433).

The success of the engagement framework (discussed above), and its practical instruction as CORI in improving students' engagement and reading comprehension, have been reported in Guthrie (2008), Guthrie and Humenick (2004), Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa, et

al. (2004), Guthrie, Wigfield, Perencevich et al. (2004) and many others. Grabe (2008:190) states that

CORI, the curricular approach developed by Guthrie, Wigfield and his colleagues, is easily the most researched curricular approach to L1 reading instruction to date. It has demonstrated remarkable success in many studies with L1 elementary grade students in building student motivation for reading, promoting reading engagement, producing greater amounts of activity, and significantly improving reading comprehension abilities.

However, in applying the model to a multicultural and multilingual, tertiary context such as UP, there needs to be some modifications. First of all, most of Guthrie's subjects were primary and middle school students whose reading demands are different from the demands at tertiary level. CORI dealt mainly with fluency, comprehension and strategy use. The present study therefore adds on to the model and the research by conducting an affective intervention in a tertiary context. In addition, the present study focuses on (high level) academic reading, an area that has been scantily researched in comparison to general reading comprehension (Brunfaut 2008). Academic reading at tertiary level, as explained in Chapter 1, demands a higher level of reading. As Boughey (2009:1) rightfully explains "Universities require students to make inferences and draw conclusions from what they read, and to use reading of other texts and their knowledge of the world to question what they are reading." Although these demands are required in academic reading at middle and high school levels, at universities, they are required at a higher cognitive level.

Secondly, Guthrie and Wigfield's model mostly relate to L1 readers. The present study extends Guthrie and Wigfield's model by including L2 reading issues (cf. §3.4.4.3), as L2 reading has its own complexities (August 2006; Bernhardt 1991:2, 2005; Grabe & Stoller 2002:41). Also aspects that pertain to L2 motivation and L2 learning are included in the adapted model.

3.4.4 The adapted model

Due to the multilingual, multicultural and dual-level educational system of the South African context, an exploration of students' needs is crucial and is explicitly included in the model. Although Guthrie (2008:10), like many other researchers (e.g. Bernhardt 2005; Butler 2007; Dörnyei 2001b; Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011; Grabe 2008), point out the relevance of assessing students' needs and how important this is in an intervention

programme, it is not explicitly included in the Engagement Model. As emphasised by Guthrie (2008) and other researchers, assessing students' needs is necessary in order to tailor the intervention to meet students' specific needs. It enables the teacher to become aware of students' needs, and consequently select teaching materials and activities that are significant, of interest to students and at their level of competence. Also due to the fact that L2 teaching and learning is quite complex, this issue will be discussed and included in the modified model. Bernhardt (1991:5) adds that there are various groups of second language readers (she identifies three groups of adults and two groups of children) who are very different from one another, and recognising the differences between and among these groups, provides an initial step towards developing non-generic, more principled reading instruction. In extending Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) model to suit the L2 tertiary context, factors such as students' needs, L2 reading issues, tertiary academic demands and L2 motivation are included.

3.4.4.1 Students' needs

When attempting the design or redesign of a course syllabus, input from the population at whom the course is aimed, is indispensable. However, students' perception about what they need may not be reliable, as they do not necessarily have the metacognitive skills to translate shortcomings into teaching strategies. Therefore a course designer may have to use a tool, such as a survey on their habits and activities, to infer possible needs. Establishing students' needs is especially important in L2 contexts. This is echoed by L2 reading researchers such as Bernhardt (2005) and Grabe (2008), as well as other literacy researchers within the UP tertiary context (Butler 2007; Carstens 2008). Although Guthrie (2008) recommends a needs analysis, one may add that this is even more crucial in L2 reading, as L2 students come from different socio-cultural and educational backgrounds, and as Grabe (2008:188) intimated, students from different cultures experience different levels of home and institutional support for reading development. These differences lead to vast variations in students' affective and proficiency levels in reading.

Secondly, an exploration of students' reading profiles, which is assumed to reflect their tuition needs, is relevant because one cannot emphasise all aspects of reading and also focus on all socio-cultural aspects equally in a reading intervention programme. There is simply not enough instructional time (Grabe 2008:19; Passe 1996:68). A reading profile of the target population will indicate the areas that need emphasis, and "determine which

[affective factors] reading skills and academic abilities require the highest priority” (Grabe 2008:19).

Specifically in the UP context, Butler (2007) and Carstens (2009) point out that in selecting teaching materials, tasks and activities for tertiary level literacy development learner needs should be considered. In the present study a needs analysis is conducted in the format of a survey strategy that explores students’ reading background, attitudes and habits; and this survey forms part of an adapted model for L2 reading instruction in the UP context.

3.4.4.2 Institutional demands and constraints

Most discussions that centre around students’ reading and literacy challenges also include the institutional demands on the students (Boughey 2009; Brunfaut 2008; Butler 2007; Carstens 2009; Niven 2005; Pretorius 2000). Grabe and Stoller (2002) explain that academic reading at tertiary level requires the rapid integration of both lower and higher level processes appropriately and efficiently in a topical domain (e.g. history, psychology, economics, etc). Both lower- and higher-order processes involve a stream of abilities and skills, which, as explained in Chapter 2, develop with constant exposure to texts. Unfortunately, many students do not possess these required abilities. Brunfaut (2008:33), in discussing reading at tertiary level, states that

[T]exts read within tertiary education settings, however, are often of a different nature than those read in other environments [...] the academic setting within which these texts are read is characterised by a particular academic culture and a particular disciplinary culture, and those involved are expected to be(come) academically literate.

In other words, students are supposed to read and write successfully within the academic culture and in their academic disciplines by applying the rules in these settings. However, citing Johns (1997), Brunfaut (2008:33) argues that this ability requires students to understand that these “skills” are influenced by each other, and also involve “ways of knowing particular content, languages, and practices”, and includes “strategies for understanding, discussing, organising and producing texts”. She further argues critically that, in many cases, an osmotic stance is taken by universities and institutions of higher learning, that by functioning in an academic setting, students are expected to become increasingly literate (Brunfaut 2008:34). However, as Boughey (2009:2) explains, if this

stance is taken, the students “who will learn to read and write in powerful ways are those who pick up those ways of reading and writing outside the formal learning environment”, students “who are already privileged because of the educational and social background of their parents and what that exposes them to [...]”

The implication is that reading and writing demands at tertiary level require higher order skills and students cannot be left to the mercy of osmosis pedagogy given the poor reading background of a number of students (cf.§5.4.2.1). Boughey (2009) further explicates that:

Universities require students to make inferences and draw conclusions from what they read, and to use reading of other texts and their knowledge of the world to question what they are reading. [...] it involves the reader taking up a different position in relation to what she reads – a position which is ultimately derived from values and attitudes related to what can count as knowledge and how that knowledge can be known.

Niven (2005) explains from her findings that whereas students use a more bottom-up cognitive frame for learning, university lecturers expect a different approach to learning from students – an approach that most students entering universities straight from high school are not familiar with. Pretorius (2000:42) presents Chall et al.’s (1990) taxonomy of stages of reading development, and identifies stage five as the stage where tertiary level reading is expected. At stage five-level, readers are required to integrate and synthesise information and acquire new knowledge from reading high density texts. As stated by Pretorius (2000:42; 43), students are expected to possess a vocabulary of about 18,000 to 24,000 words, containing many general academic words and technical words related to specialised subjects. For students who have had limited exposure to texts and have not engaged in frequent reading due to a number of socio-economic, socio-educational and affective factors, these expectations pose serious challenges.

Focussing on the UP context, Butler’s (2007) empirical study of UP lecturers’ expectations of their students in terms of academic writing shows that students do not meet the expected levels. Carstens (2009) also singled out argumentation as an important rhetorical mode required of students in the Humanities. Argumentation, a pivotal rhetorical mode at tertiary level, poses great challenges to students. Yet this mode of writing can be mastered through the frequent reading and writing of such texts. For students to be successful writers they have to be proficient readers.

Anderson and Krathwohl (2001:67-68) designed a revised version of Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive domains, which has been provided as a guideline for teaching and learning by the Education Innovation Department of the University of Pretoria. In applying the taxonomy, students are required to operate in both lower-order and higher-order cognitive domains. The taxonomy lists remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating and creating as important cognitive domains in learning. In other words, students should be able to retrieve information (understanding); construct meaning from texts by interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarising, inferring, comparing and explaining (understanding); carry-out procedures through executing and implementing information (applying); break-down texts into constituent parts by determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure (analysing); make judgements on texts based on criteria by critiquing (i.e. evaluating; put elements together to form a coherent or functional whole, and reorganise elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning or producing (creating).

Although the skills and abilities required for tertiary level reading (e.g. high-level inferencing, critical analysis, and metacognitive abilities) have been unpacked in Chapter 1, it is important to make reference to them in this chapter, as they are important institutional requirements for academic success.

In as much as teachers may apply innovative approaches in the L2 classroom, this is subject to the constraints and demands of the academic context. Butler (2007) in his unpublished PhD thesis on academic writing in the UP context, states that the issue of 'institutional demands and constraints' is a key element for academic writing in tertiary education. These are real issues that exist in the academic learning context and greatly influence teaching and learning in tertiary institutions.

The influence of institutional demands is also noted by Carstens (2008:94) in her teaching-learning model for tertiary-level disciplinary writing. She states, and rightly so, that "the course designer and the classroom teacher should anchor themselves in the social, political economic epistemological and educational particularities of the surrounding context" (Carstens 2008:95). In other words, in designing and implementing courses (e.g Academic Reading) for students at this level, epistemological access needs to be considered.

Another major constraint of tertiary level reading development is time. As Passe (1996:68) points out, teachers are under enormous pressure to complete the curriculum, and students' time table schedules may not allow for the frequent practice and extra reading involved in the development of L2 reading. Yet students, especially non-traditional readers, need frequent practice with tasks and require extensive reading for the development of their reading ability.

3.4.4.3 L2 reading and learning issues

Bernhardt (2005:142) asserts that L2 reading instruction should be integrative and accommodate L1 literacy variables (i.e. L1 literacy skills), language variables (i.e. L2 language knowledge) and affective variables. In her Compensatory Model of Second Language Reading, Bernhardt (2005) identifies L1 literacy, L2 knowledge and affective variables as the three main areas that account for L2 reading.

First, she presents L1 literacy as accounting for 20% of the variance and argues that L2 reading instruction should consider this factor in reading development. Such arguments have led to the prominence of background knowledge in L2 reading development. According to Bernhardt and other L2 reading researchers, adult learners do possess some L1 literacy that can be transferred to L2 literacy. She further states that adult readers come into L2 reading with well developed beliefs and understanding of the world and these greatly influence their reading in an L2. Similarly, in explaining L2 learning, Kumaravadivelu (2003:285) points out that, adult learners bring a wealth of knowledge that teachers could tap into in an L2 classroom. In relation to this, Bernhardt (2005) suggests that teachers should assist learners to apply their background knowledge in understanding texts. The influence of background knowledge in L2 reading is an important factor that is emphasised by most reading researchers (Alderson 2000; Anderson 1999; Carrell 1991; Grabe & Stoller 2002). Bernhardt (2005:138) contends that it is not whether L1 literacy skills transfer but how much is transferred, how it is transferred and in what context. This implies that L1 literacy should be considered in L2 reading instruction and a favourable context should be created to allow L1 literacy skills to transfer.

The second dimension in Bernhardt's (2005) model is L2 language proficiency, which in her view generally accounts for 30% of the variance in L2 reading, and includes

knowledge of grammatical forms, vocabulary knowledge, cognates and L1/L2 linguistic distance. She explains that other researchers have broken this 30% down into 27% vocabulary and 3% syntax or grammatical forms (Bernhardt 2005:137). This makes vocabulary knowledge a crucial part of L2 reading. The importance of L2 knowledge is explained in the language threshold, and in the significance of a large vocabulary base for L2 reading fluency. First, as explained by Grabe and Stoller (2002), the L2 learner needs to acquire thousands of words to be able to read fluently, and for those at tertiary level, academic vocabulary is crucial. Although Grabe (2008) presents a Content-Based Reading Instruction (CBRI) framework comprising instructional principles for L2 reading instruction, he cautions that it is not an alternative to language practice, and suggests other language-learning tasks to support reading development. Grabe and Stoller (2002) suggest instruction and exposure to texts through extensive reading in order to expand L2 learners' vocabulary and language knowledge.

The third dimension of Bernhardt's (2005) model comprises the other 50% of the variance. According to Bernhardt (2005:140) this dimension is still under investigation and unexplained. She states that this area may constitute the affective domain and comprises of comprehension strategies, engagement, content and domain knowledge, interest, motivation, etc. In other words the affective domain of L2 reading may comprise 50% of L2 reading and constitute an under-researched area.

In view of the above discussion, issues pertaining to L1 literacy and L2 language proficiency are included in the extended model. Next in this section, further discussions of L2 language issues are undertaken under the subheadings of the language, the L2 learner and the L2 learning situation or environment (Dörnyei 1994; Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011; Kumaravadivelu 2006).

3.4.4.3.1 The second language

Reading instruction that seeks to improve the reading ability of L2 learners should simultaneously seek to improve students' language proficiency. When one considers the language threshold, it becomes necessary for students who have read in the L1 to be assisted to develop their L2 in order for the L1 literacy skills to transfer. A specific example will be Afrikaans L1 speakers at UP. Many of them have done most of their reading (reading for pleasure and academic reading in Afrikaans) and therefore proficiency

levels in English (LoLT) for tertiary academic purposes may be low. There are also students from French and Portuguese speaking countries who enrol at UP and would need to improve their English language proficiency in order to transfer L1 literacy skills.

Unlike L1 readers, L2 readers usually have limited vocabulary. L2 readers need to accumulate thousands of words for fluency in reading. For those with limited exposure to texts (due to socio-cultural and educational disadvantages), and who therefore possess limited vocabulary, this impedes their reading development, and more so at tertiary level where the need for an extended academic vocabulary is vital for comprehension and evaluation. In the UP context, a number of indigenous South African languages (ISAL) speakers have had limited reading experience in L1 and/or L2 and need intensive language and vocabulary development. For those with L1 literacy skills, academic vocabulary in the L2 is important for transfer of L1 literacy skills. In order for literacy skills to transfer, students need to attain the language threshold (i.e. the level of L2 knowledge that L2 learners need to attain in order to comprehend L2 texts, and for literacy skills to transfer) and vocabulary is an important part of this. There are also those with very little L1 literacy who need intensive language and vocabulary development. In addition, critical reading may be implicitly included in strategy instruction, but at tertiary level this needs to be addressed more vigorously. In developing L2 reading, a number of practical guidelines have been suggested (Anderson 1999; Grabe 2008). Grabe (2008), however, adds a critical reading component that is highly important in tertiary level reading. For L2 readers at tertiary level, vocabulary and critical reading are essential aspects in developing reading ability. Extensive reading is also essential for L2 reading development.

3.4.4.3.2 The L2 learner/reader

The different groups of L2 readers make L2 reading instruction a very complex exercise. First, there are the traditional students (students who are proficient in the L2, and therefore L1 literacy can transfer) who would only need L2 academic reading instruction for the purpose of tertiary studies (cf. § 2.3.4.3; August 2006). Bernhardt (1991a:185) argues that a number of L2 readers are literate in the L1 and may carry this knowledge (i.e. literacy ideas) over to the L2. Then there are the non-traditional students who fall into two categories in the South African context: low or no L1 reading but high L2 reading proficiency; and low or no L1 reading and low L2 reading proficiency. Usually the second category of non-traditional students come from poor SES and educational backgrounds and

need both extensive and intensive language and literacy instruction, as well as both extensive and intensive affective reading development.

For a number of non-traditional readers, tertiary instruction may be intimidating, and therefore reading instruction should relate to the learner's background as much as possible. Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggests that teachers should treat L2 learners as cultural informants so that they are encouraged to engage in the process of classroom participation that recognises and elevates their power and knowledge. This can be done by identifying the cultural knowledge they bring to the classroom and by allowing them to share their own individual perspectives with the teacher and other learners. When learners are treated as cultural informants they are encouraged to engage in a process of participation that projects and highlights their own power and knowledge (Kumaravadivelu 2003:40). This involves going beyond the textbook's frame of reference and attempting to bring the learner's home community into the classroom experience. In other words, using learners' home culture to inform classroom activities enables students to become motivated and empowered.

Studying in a second or additional language is stressful, especially if the learner has a poor educational background as in the case of a number of the first-year students at UP. As a result, all attempts should be made to alleviate debilitating stress for L2 learners and enable them to enjoy reading classes.

3.4.4.3.3 The L2 learning environment

The learning environment is an important aspect of L2 learning. Various L2 researchers have emphasised the importance of the L2 learning environment. The call is for teachers to create a conducive environment for learning. As L2 researchers intimate, teachers should create environments where learners are free to explore and express their views (Brown 2000; Cook 2001; Kumaravadivelu 2003; 2006). The assumption is that, by creating conditions necessary for learning, learners will be able to learn (Rogers 1983 in Brown 2000:89; Cook 2001). Explaining Rogers's humanistic view, Brown (2000:89, 90) states that "[g]iven a nonthreatening environment, a person [...] will grow and learn", and that "if the context for learning is properly created, human beings will, in fact, learn everything they need to". Burton (2011) explains the importance of creating a non-threatening environment for learning by applying the principles of Universal Design for Learning

(UDL). She explains that a learning environment which creates positive emotions in learners enhances cognitive development.

3.4.4.3.4 The socio-cultural context

Closely linked to the educational context are other factors, such as cultural and social issues that impinge on L2 reading (Alderson 2000; Grabe & Stoller 2002). Wallace (2003:16) emphasises that for L2 learners, social institutions, such as the society and cultural identity, as well as background play a significant role in interpretation of texts. Kumaravadivelu (2003:239, quoting Zeichner and Liston 1990) states:

It is simply impossible to isolate classroom life from the school's institutional dynamics, the ever-present tensions within the community, and the larger social forces [...] In order to act effectively we have to recognise the influence of the social context.

With the introduction of socio-cultural theories by Street (2003) and Gee (2000) the social and cultural context of learning has gained greater impetus and has become important in the L2 learning/teaching context.

The factors that shape society (e.g. race, class, ethnicity, religion) also play a role in shaping classroom discourse. For instance, the experiences that teachers and learners bring to the classroom are shaped not only by the learning and teaching episodes they have encountered in the past, but also by a broader social, economic and political environment in which they grew up. These experiences have the potential to affect classroom practices. In other words learners' previous educational background as well as the community and the larger society exert great influence on classroom participants and management, and teachers cannot ignore them in L2 classrooms. Kumaravadivelu (2003:239) argues that teaching materials, for example textbooks, should be relevant, in that they should be sensitive to the aims and objectives, needs and wants of learners from a particular pedagogic setting, and that L2 teachers cannot afford to separate the linguistic needs of learners from their social needs. In sum, teachers have to consider several social, political, historical and economic conditions that shape the lives of their learners. This is echoed and projected by other reading researchers (Grabe & Stoller 2002; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; Wigfield & Lutz 2005). They argue that the reading proficiency of students is greatly influenced by their social, economic and educational background and teachers cannot ignore these factors in developing students' (academic) reading ability.

3.4.4.4 L2 motivational issues

In the presentation of a three-level framework of L2 motivation (i.e. language level, learner level, and learning situation level), Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) indicate that each of these levels, independently, has a vital effect on overall motivation. In other words, each of the three levels of motivation exerts its influence independently of the other, and has sufficient power to nullify the effects of the other two levels (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011:53). All three levels therefore need to be considered in L2 motivation. The language level consists of integrative and instrumental systems, whereas the learner level has to do with the learner's need for achievement and self-confidence. The learning situation level consists of the following: course specific (i.e. syllabus, teaching materials, teaching methods and learning tasks), teacher-specific (i.e. the teacher's behaviour, teaching style and practice) and group-specific (i.e. group dynamics) components. In relation to these levels Dörnyei (1994), in an earlier publication, presents a number of guidelines or strategies on how to motivate L2 learners in the classroom. Some of the strategies include developing students' self-confidence by regularly providing praise and encouragement and ensuring that students regularly experience success and a sense of achievement. Other strategies include developing students' self-efficacy by teaching strategies, and decreasing students' anxiety by creating a supportive and accepting learning environment in the L2 classroom; and promoting motivation-enhancing attributions, such as attributing past failures to use of inappropriate strategies rather than lack of ability. The strategy of providing praise and encouragement resonate with Guthrie and Wigfields's teaching technique of giving 'rewards and praise' (cf §3.4.2.7).

On the learning situation level, Dörnyei (1994) provides strategies for each motivational component. For the course-specific component he suggests making the syllabus relevant by basing it on students' needs. He also includes the use of authentic materials that are at the students' level, in order to increase the attractiveness of the course content, and by arousing and sustaining students' curiosity and attention by changing the interaction pattern from time to time; for example, making peer interaction (e.g pair work, group work) an important teaching component. He also suggests that difficulty of tasks should match students' abilities so that they can expect to succeed if they put in reasonable effort, and also that students' satisfaction should be facilitated by celebrating success (Dörnyei 1994:282). He further advises (along the lines of Guthrie & Wigfield's learning goal

technique) that students' expectancy of task fulfilment should be increased by "familiarising students with the task type, sufficiently preparing them for coping with the task content, giving them detailed guidance about the procedures and strategies that the task requires, making the criteria for success (or grading) clear and 'transparent' and offering students ongoing assistance" (Dörnyei 1994:282).

On the teacher-specific component, Dörnyei (1994) suggests that the teacher should exhibit the three basic teacher characteristics that enhance learning which is empathetic, congruent and accepting. He explains empathy as being sensitive to students' needs, feelings and perspectives, and refers to congruence as the ability to be real and authentic without hiding behind facades or roles, while acceptance refers to a non-judgemental, positive regard, acknowledging each student as a complex human being. In addition, he suggests that the teacher should assume the role of a facilitator rather than an authority figure, and develop rapport with the students. The teacher should also promote learner autonomy by affording students choices, and include project work where students are in charge, which refers to Guthrie and Wigfield's technique of autonomy support. Tasks should stimulate intrinsic motivation and help internalise extrinsic motivation by being presented as learning opportunities, and being connected to students' interests. Finally, Dörnyei suggests that teachers should give motivating feedback, in the format of positive competence feedback. For the group-specific component, Dörnyei suggests that teachers should promote the development of group cohesion by creating a classroom situation in which students can get to know each other and share genuine personal information (e.g. feelings, fears, desires, etc.). Teachers should also use cooperative learning techniques by frequently including group work in which the group's achievement rather than the individual's is evaluated.

In recent publications, Dörnyei (2001b), and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) present these strategies in a process-oriented framework of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom. This process-oriented framework, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:107) explain, follows through the motivation process from the initial arousal of the motivation to the completion and evaluation of the motivated action. The framework consists of four sections: creating the basic motivational conditions; generating initial motivation; maintaining and protecting motivation; and encouraging positive retrospective self-

evaluation. These components are discussed briefly, citing some specific strategies that can be used to motivate L2 learners in particular.

3.4.4.4.1 Creating basic motivational conditions

For the first phase, the guidelines include: appropriate teacher behaviours; a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom; and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms. These conditions collectively mould the psychological environment in which learning takes place, and establishing all three is important (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011:109).

In terms of the teacher's behaviour, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest that the teacher can influence students' motivation through rapport, by establishing relationships of mutual trust and respect with the learners in showing that he/she cares about their progress; recognising their individual efforts; indicating his/her availability for all things academic; and having sufficiently high expectations for student achievement (Dörnyei 2001b:33, 36; Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011:110). Secondly, teachers need to create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the L2 classroom. Students become highly involved in learning in a psychologically safe classroom climate in which they are free to express themselves. Dörnyei (2007a:719) states that sustained learning of an L2 "cannot take place unless the educational context provides, in addition to cognitively adequate instructional practices, sufficient inspiration and enjoyment to build up continuing motivation in learners". In terms of group cohesiveness Dörnyei (2001b) suggests among other things that the teacher should create opportunities for interaction and maintain an active presence, and promote successful collaborative activities by allocating project-work and problem-solving activities. These suggestions resonate with Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) principles of teacher support and collaboration within the engagement framework.

3.4.4.4.2 Generating initial motivation

For the second phase, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) advocate that teaching should enhance the learners' language-related values and attitudes; increase learners' expectancy of success; and make the teaching materials relevant for the learners.

First, they suggest that the learners' language-related values and attitudes should be promoted using peer role models, reminding students of the values of achieving success,

and establishing incentive systems that offer extrinsic rewards for successful completion of tasks. Second, to increase the learners' expectancy of success Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:115) suggest offering students sufficient preparation and assistance; making sure that they know exactly what success in the tasks entails; and removing any serious obstacles to success. In addition, as Brophy (2004:60) states, "[t]he simplest way to ensure that students expect success is to make sure that they achieve it consistently". Thirdly, in emphasising the importance of making teaching materials relevant for the learners, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:117) state that "one of the most demotivating factors for learners is when they have to learn something that they cannot see the point of because it has no seeming relevance whatsoever to their lives". Chambers (1999:37) shares their views and states that "[i]f pupils fail to see the relationship between the activity and the world in which they live, then the point of the activity is likely to be lost on them". A needs analysis is suggested to enable the teacher to ascertain what students' interests, goals and needs are, and for these to be built into the curriculum (i.e. teaching materials and activities) as much as possible (Dörnyei 2001b:65, 66). Dörnyei (2001b) proposes that instruction should relate to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students. This suggestion is also advocated by Kamaravadivelu (2003) in what he refers to as "creating social relevance in L2 teaching". Finally, realistic learner beliefs are to be created through class discussions and mismatches between the teacher's beliefs and the learners' should be addressed. Dörnyei's (2001b) strategies for the second phase relate to the principles of learning goal, as well as to the technique of using relevant and interesting texts in Guthrie and Wigfield's framework (cf. § 3.4.2.1; § 3.4.2.4).

3.4.4.4.3 Maintaining and protecting motivation

For the third phase, Dörnyei (2001b) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) list the following guidelines: make learning stimulating and enjoyable, present tasks in a motivating way; increase learners' self-confidence; promote cooperation among the learners; create learner autonomy; and promote self-motivating learner strategies, among others.

One way of making learning stimulating and enjoyable is to break the monotony of learning by varying the learning tasks, learning materials, teaching approach and activities as much as possible. Another way is to make the tasks interesting, which according to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:119) is by far the most motivating approach in classroom teaching. In order to present tasks in a motivating way, Dörnyei (2001b:78) suggests that

teachers should explain the purpose and the utility of tasks, and provide appropriate strategies for doing tasks. To promote favourable self-conceptions, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:120) suggest that L2 learners should be provided with regular experiences of success, made to feel that they have an important part to play, and that their contributions are useful to the class. In line with Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) framework, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest that praise and encouragement should be given where they are due. In addition, classroom anxiety should be reduced by making the learning context less stressful. They also advocate for the teaching of strategies, as in Guthrie and Wigfield's framework, so that students' confidence can increase.

Regarding learner cooperation, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:122) cite studies showing that students in cooperative environments have more positive attitudes, and develop higher self-esteem and self-confidence than other classroom structures. Dörnyei (2001b:101) lists a number of reasons for the positive impact of cooperative learning. For example, it fosters group cohesiveness, increases the expectancy of success, responds to students' needs for belonging and relatedness, generates less anxiety and stress, promotes autonomy (which is a powerful contributor to motivation) and increases effort because knowing that one's contribution is required for the success of the group is motivating. He suggests activities that require learners to work together towards a common goal. Furthermore Dörnyei and Ushioda posit that a key aspect of maintaining L2 learners' motivation and increasing learning is promoting learner autonomy, as intimated by Barfield and Brown (2007), Benson (2007), Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) and Kumaravadivelu (2003). This principle is rooted in humanistic psychology, which explains that learning that affects behaviour significantly is self-discovered and self-appropriated (Brown 2000). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:123) suggest allowing students choices, introducing peer teaching, project work, and self- and peer-assessment, as some of the ways to provide autonomy. However, autonomy should be given with support. Ushioda (2003:99-100) maintains that although learners should be given the freedom to act independently, they should be brought to an understanding of "what is good to want and why" in a supportive rather than controlling manner. This refers to the seemingly contradictory combination of autonomy and teacher support (Bernhardt 1991a; Deci & Ryan 2000; Guthrie & Wigfield 2000). Finally, to keep motivation on-going, learners should be encouraged to motivate themselves by taking personal control of the affective conditions and experiences involved in learning.

3.4.4.4 Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

The guidelines for the final phase are presented in three components. One is that failure should be attributed to effort rather than ability, as students' failure attributed to ability has a negative effect on the approach to subsequent tasks. The other is that feedback should be motivational. Informational feedback (comments on progress and competence) should be more dominant rather than controlling (which judges performance). Finally, Dörnyei (2001b:126) notes that celebration and satisfaction are crucial motivational building blocks because they validate effort, affirm the entire learning process, and reinforce the value of the experience. Some of the strategies suggested for increasing learner satisfaction are the teacher's monitoring and recognition of the learners' accomplishments, taking time to celebrate (i.e. give praise, applause and standing ovation, if this does not embarrass recipients) (Ibid). Although Dörnyei (2001b), and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), state that rewards are good incentives, they point out the controversy surrounding rewards (the seemingly negative aspects of extrinsic motivation), but conclude that the simplistic view of extrinsic motivation being bad and intrinsic motivation being good has been modified. Sufficiently internalised extrinsic motives are now seen as complementary to intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan 2000; Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011:129).

These L2 motivational strategies, a number of them echoed by Deci and Ryan (2000) and used as justification for Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) L1 motivational teaching techniques, will be used as overarching strategies in the implementation of Guthrie and Wigfield's framework. However, Guthrie and Wigfield's framework relates specifically to reading, has been practically used with successful outcomes, and will therefore be the main framework upon which I draw for the socio-affective reading intervention.

For the present study, instead of CORI, the adapted reading instruction for L2 tertiary level will be referred to as Critical Reading Instruction Through Engagement (CRITE). CORI is aimed solely at improving fluency, comprehension and strategy use by improving motivation and engagement and strategy instruction at elementary and middle school levels (Guthrie, Wigfield, Perencevich et al. 2008); whereas CRITE is based on the engagement model, but aims at improving tertiary-level students' critical reading and comprehension (including comprehension, strategy use, academic vocabulary, and critical analysis) by improving motivation and engagement. Tertiary level reading requires high levels of comprehension, critical analysis and technical academic vocabulary, which a

number of first-year students find challenging. In addition, the profile of the population of L2 learners and the impoverished educational system from which they come demands a complex approach to the already complex process of reading development.

Based on the above exposition (cf. § 3.4.4.1 – 3.4.4.4), the important components to be added in Guthrie and Wigfield's model are: students' needs, (socio-affective and cognitive), institutional demands, L2 reading and learning issues and L2 motivational issues.

3.5 Adapted framework for academic reading development

The L2 issues discussed above are also confirmed by Grabe and Stoller (2002:42) in their distinction between L1 and L2 issues in reading development. L2 reading has its unique complexities, which should be highlighted in L2 reading development. Anderson's strategies for teaching L2 reading further illuminate this issue. However, although she includes '*instil motivation*' as one of her strategies, the rest of her strategies are solely cognitively oriented. Guthrie and Wigfield, on the other hand, do not explicitly highlight L2 issues in reading, but their focus on the affective renders their model applicable to this study. The model is therefore adapted for the study with important elements such as **exploration of students' needs, academic and tertiary demands** (e.g. institutional constraints and requirements), **L2 reading and learning**, and **L2 motivational strategies**, included for comprehensibility and specificity.

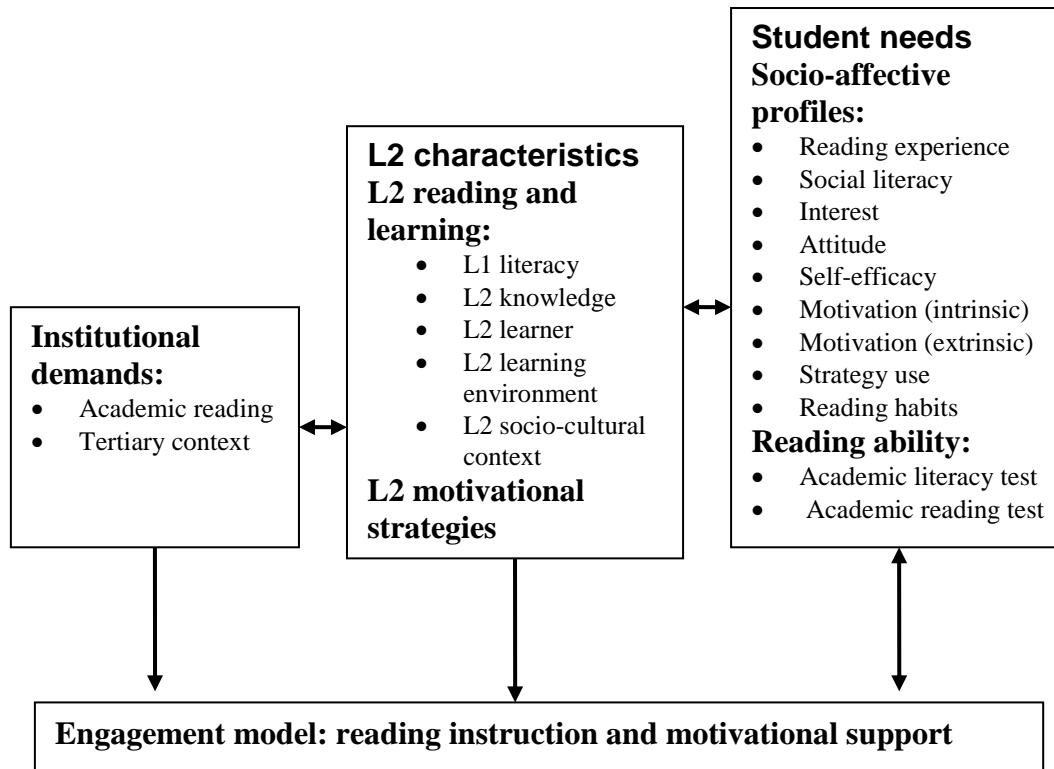


Figure 3.4: Framework for developing academic reading ability of L2 tertiary students

The principles, elements, and techniques have been suitably integrated for the context of the present study. This integration was used to generate the above model. Although the core of the design is based on Guthrie and Wigfield’s Engagement Model, it is situated in the context of academic reading at tertiary level, according to its institutional demands and disciplinary norms, as well as proficiency levels.

The model can be explained as follows: First, the demands and constraints of the institutional context are important in any teaching and learning situation. For example, as much as the lecturer is free to modify and adapt lessons, this freedom is curtailed by institutional demands and constraints. The institutional demands and requirements should therefore guide the teaching and learning. The institutional requirements can be determined empirically from a survey of lecturers’ perceptions as in Butler (2007), or from experiential knowledge of the lecturer and other colleagues, which is the case in this study. Student needs are ascertained through questionnaire surveys and reading tests to determine students’ social and affective levels in relation to reading, as well as reading proficiency levels. As learning depends on the individual (Guthrie & Wigfield 2000; Kumavaradivelu

2003), the importance of exploring students' social and affective levels to inform teaching cannot be overemphasised. The results of the exploratory survey, the L2 reading issues and L2 motivational strategies will together guide the classroom teaching techniques of Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) to provide engagement in reading that will produce desired outcomes of achievement, knowledge and practices in reading. Institutional demands, L2 characteristics and students' needs influence classroom management (such as teaching procedures, classroom activities and teaching materials) and are grounded in engagement practices of motivational and cognitive support. However, students' socio-affective and reading proficiency levels, in particular, have a bidirectional relationship with the motivational classroom practices (§ 3.4.4), as they can be influenced by the classroom practices as well as being used to design classroom teaching practices. The results of the exploratory survey will be used to guide the classroom activities and tasks, select appropriate and significant texts, and emphasise areas of need within the engagement techniques of L2 learning and reading.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) model, and its relevance to the study, in that it focuses on affective and cognitive strategies to improve reading ability. A discussion of the affective constructs: *motivation*, *self-efficacy*, *attitude* and *interest* was undertaken. Given the fact that academic reading at tertiary level, L2 reading strategies, and L2 motivational strategies are important in the UP context, these issues were discussed. This culminated in a framework for developing L2 tertiary students' reading ability. Although the framework was constructed for the UP context, and is used for the present study, it can be adapted or used at other South African institutions, or similar contexts. This framework serves as a navigational map for the empirical research conducted in four phases:

1. the contextual exploration (students' needs);
2. pre-intervention survey and the intervention programme;
3. post intervention survey (quantitative analysis);
4. probing students' evaluation of the teaching strategies of the intervention based on Guthrie and Wigfield's (2000) framework (qualitative analysis) and mapped on to the affective factors listed above and discussed under § 3.2.

The next Chapter presents the methodology of the research, explaining the research design and methodological norms, as well as elaborating on the phases of the research.