REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

YILDIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

MASTER'S THESIS

EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF DIFFERENTIATED EXTENSIVE READING ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND READING SELF-EFFICACY IN EMI PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

HABİBE ÖZKARA

227C5046

THESIS ADVISOR

ASST. PROF. DR. Semin KAZAZOĞLU

2025

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

YILDIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

MASTER'S THESIS

EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF DIFFERENTIATED EXTENSIVE READING ON READING SELF-EFFICACY AND READING ACHIEVEMENT IN EMI PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

HABİBE ÖZKARA

227C5046

ORCID NO: 0009-0000-3527-1474

THESIS ADVISOR

ASST. PROF. DR. Semin KAZAZOĞLU

JUNE 2025

Habibe ÖZKARA tarafından hazırlanan **"**Exploring The Effects Of Differentiated Extensive Reading On Reading Self-Efficacy And Reading Achievement In Emi Preparatory Schools" başlıklı çalışma, **17/06/2025** tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği ile başarılı bulunmuş ve jürimiz tarafından Yabancı Diller Eğitimi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programında **YÜKSEK LİSANS tezi** olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman	**İmza**
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Semin KAZAZOĞLU	……

Jüri Üyeleri	**İmza**
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Emrah ÖZCAN	……
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Umut Muharrem SALİHOĞLU	……

ABSTRACT

EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF DIFFERENTIATED EXTENSIVE READING ON READING SELF-EFFICACY AND READING ACHIEVEMENT IN EMI PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

While differentiation strategies refer to teaching methods adapted to students' individual language levels, interests and learning profiles, extensive reading is a practice that aims to increase students' language proficiency, motivation, and participation. In this context, although the importance of differentiated education and extensive reading is accepted, the effects of differentiated extensive reading practices on students' reading self-efficacy and reading achievement have not been investigated in depth. This study aimed to examine the effects of differentiated extensive reading (ER) practices in English Medium Instruction (EMI) preparatory classes on students' reading self-efficacy and reading achievement. By applying differentiated extensive reading strategy activities for 4 weeks to the study group, their English reading achievement and self-efficacy were measured. The data were collected quantitatively through pre-test and post-test, with the "EFL Learners' Reading Self-Efficacy Scale" developed by Ghonsooly and Elahi (2011) and the "Reading Achievement Test"; and qualitative data support was provided through teacher interviews. The obtained data were evaluated using descriptive statistical analysis methods. This research aimed to measure the effects of differentiated informal reading practices and to provide evidence-based recommendations for the integration of these methods into the English Language Teaching curriculum.

The results showed that there was a statistically significant main effect of time on reading achievement, indicating improvement in both groups. However, there was no significant interaction effect between group and time. It shows that the DER intervention did not yield significantly higher gains compared to traditional reading instruction. Similarly, while both groups reported comparable levels of reading self-efficacy before and after the intervention, no statistically significant differences emerged over time or between groups. Qualitative findings indicated that students in the experimental group had positive perceptions of differentiated extensive reading practices as they noted increased reading motivation, enhanced autonomy, and appreciation for personalized and multimodal reading tasks. These insights suggest that, although DER did not lead to significantly higher test scores or self-efficacy ratings, it was perceived as a supportive and engaging approach by students in EMI contexts.

Keywords: Differentiated instruction, extensive reading, reading self-efficacy, language achievement, ELT

ÖZET

FARKLILAŞTIRILMIŞ YOĞUN OKUMANIN İNGİLİZCENİN ÖĞRETİM DİLİ OLARAK KULLANILDIĞI HAZIRLIK PROGRAMLARINDA AKADEMİK BAŞARI VE OKUMA ÖZ-YETERLİLİĞİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Farklılaştırma stratejileri, öğrencilerin bireysel dil seviyelerine, ilgi alanlarına ve öğrenme profillerine uyarlanmış öğretim yöntemlerini ifade ederken; yaygın okuma, öğrencilerin dil yeterliliği, motivasyonu ve katılımını artırmayı hedefleyen bir uygulamadır. Bu bağlamda farklılaştırılmış eğitimin ve yaygın okumanın önemi kabul edilmekle beraber farklılaştırılmış yaygın okuma uygulamalarının öğrencilerin okuma öz yeterlilikleri ve okuma başarıları üzerindeki etkileri derinlemesine araştırılmamıştır. Bu çalışma, İngilizce Eğitim Dili (EMI) hazırlık sınıflarında farklılaştırılmış yaygın okuma (ER) uygulamalarının öğrencilerin okuma öz yeterliliği ve okuma başarıları üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Çalışma grubuna, farklılaştırılmış yaygın okuma stratejileri etkinlikleri 4 hafta boyunca uygulanarak, İngilizce okuma başarıları ve öz-yeterlilikleri ölçülmüştür. Veriler, ön test ve son test yoluyla, Ghonsooly ve Elahi (2011) tarafından geliştirilen "İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Öğrenciler için Okuma Öz-Yeterlilik Ölçeği" ve "İngilizce Okuma Başarı Sınavı" ile nicel olarak toplanmış, ayrıca öğretmen mülakatları ile nitel veri desteği sağlanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler, betimsel istatistiksel analiz yöntemleri kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir. Bu araştırma, farklılaştırılmış yaygın okuma uygulamalarının etkilerini ölçmeyi ve bu yöntemlerin İngiliz Dili Öğretimi müfredatına entegrasyonu için kanıta dayalı öneriler sunmayı hedeflemiştir.

Sonuçlar, zamanın okuma başarısı üzerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir etkisi olduğunu ve her iki grupta da olumlu yönde olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak, grup ve zaman arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi bulunmamıştır. Bu da farklılaştırılmış yaygın okuma müdehalesinin geleneksel okuma eğitimine kıyasla önemli ölçüde daha fazla kazanım sağlamadığını göstermektedir. Benzer şekilde, her iki grup da müdahaleden önce ve sonra karşılaştırılabilir düzeyde okuma öz yeterliliği bildirirken, zaman içinde veya gruplar arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark ortaya çıkmamıştır. Nitel bulgular, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin farklılaştırılmış yaygın okuma uygulamalarına ilişkin olumlu algılara sahip olduğunu, okuma motivasyonlarının arttığını ve özerkliklerinin geliştiğini belirtirken, kişiselleştirilmiş ve çok modlu okuma görevlerini de beğendiklerini göstermiştir. Bu görüşler, DER'in önemli ölçüde daha yüksek test puanlarına veya öz yeterlilik derecelerine yol açmamasına rağmen, EMI bağlamlarda öğrenciler tarafından destekleyici ve ilgi çekici bir yaklaşım olarak algılandığını göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Farklılaştırılmış öğretim, yoğun okuma, öz-yeterlilik, dil başarısı, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my thesis advisor, Asst. Prof. Dr. Semin Kazazoğlu, for her invaluable guidance, support, and encouragement throughout every stage of this thesis. Her academic insight, constructive feedback, and patience were truly instrumental in helping me complete this study. I feel incredibly fortunate to have worked under her supervision.

I am also thankful to my thesis jury members, Dr. Emrah Özcan and Dr. Umut Muharrem Salihoğlu, for their valuable time, insightful comments, and constructive suggestions during the thesis defense. Their feedback enriched the quality of my work and contributed significantly to my academic development.

I would also like to extend my heartfelt thanks to my family for their unwavering love and support during my entire academic journey. A special thank you goes to my mother whose endless prayer, strength, and unconditional care carried me through every challenge and moment of doubt. I am truly blessed to be her daughter. I am also deeply grateful to my father, whose unwavering support, and steady belief in me have been a source of strength throughout this journey. His quiet encouragement and presence gave me the confidence to keep moving forward, even in the face of difficulty. My heartfelt thanks also go to my sisters, whose constant encouragement, understanding, and ability to bring lightness to the heaviest days meant more to me than words can express. Their companionship reminded me to find joy even in the most challenging moments.

Special thanks to my buddy and emotional support human, for cheering me on, reminding me to eat, and and putting up with my constant overthinking and late-night panics.

I am sincerely grateful to my dear friend Sena Tepebağlı, who has always stood by me with kindness, patience, and encouragement. She supported me through many of the most challenging aspects of this thesis with her guidance, experience, and emotional support. I am deeply thankful for her presence throughout this process.

I would also like to express my sincere appreciation to The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TÜBİTAK) for supporting my graduate studies through the BİDEB 2211 – Domestic Graduate Scholarship Program. Their generous support has played a vital role in making this academic journey possible.

This thesis would not have been possible without the contributions, love, and belief of all these amazing people. Thank you all.

Habibe ÖZKARA

June, 2025; İstanbul

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT iii
ÖZET iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS v
TABLE OF CONTENTS vi
LIST OF TABLES viii
LIST OF FIGURES ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS x

1. INTRODUCTION 1
1.1. Statement of the Problem 3
1.2. Significance of the Study 4
1.3. Purpose Statement 5
1.4. Research Questions 5
1.5. Summary 6
1.6. Definitions of the Key Terms 6

2. LITERATURE REVIEW 9
2.1. Differentiated Instruction (DI) 9
2.1.1. Historical Development of Differentiated Instruction 11
2.1.2. Key Concepts of Differentiated Instruction 13
2.1.3. Curricular Components of Differentiated Instruction 15
2.1.4. Key Strategies for Implementing Differentiated Instruction 19
2.1.5. Challenges for Implementing Differentiated Instruction (DI) 22
2.1.6. Studies on Differentiated Instruction Conducted in Türkiye 24
2.2. Extensive Reading: A Pedagogical Approach in ELT 26
2.2.1. Theoretical Foundations of Extensive Reading 26
2.2.2. Challenges and Strategies for Implementing Extensive Reading in EMI Classrooms 27
2.3. Relationship between Differentiated Instruction and Extensive Reading 29
2.3.1. Examples of Differentiated Reading Activities in Language Education 31
2.4. The Role of Reading Self-Efficacy in EFL/ELT Contexts 31

3. METHODOLOGY 33
3.1. Research Design 33
3.2. Data Collection Procedures 35
3.3. Instructional Design 36
3.3.1. Weekly Intervention Process 38
3.3.2. Development of the Materials 41
3.4. Mixed-Methods Research 41
3.5. Participants 43
3.6. Data Collection Instruments 47
3.6.1. EFL Learners' Reading Self-Efficacy Scale 47
3.6.2. Reading Achievement Test 48
3.7. Data Analysis 48
3.7.1. Quantitative Data Analysis 48
3.7.2. Qualitative Data Analysis 50

4. RESULTS 51
4.1. Quantitative Findings 51

4.1.1. Reading Achievement Test Results 51
4.1.2. Reading Self-Efficacy Scale Results 53
4.2. Qualitative Findings 54
4.2.1. Theme 1: Confidence & Autonomy in Reading 56
4.2.2. Theme 2: Accessibility & Engagement 57
4.2.3. Theme 3: Vocabulary Development Through Repetition and Context 57
4.2.4. Theme 4: Collaborative Support for Comprehension 58
4.3. Summary of Findings 58

5. DISCUSSION 60
5.1. Research Question 1: 60
5.2. Research Question 2: 61
5.3. Research Question 3: 62

6. CONCLUSION 63
6.1. Implications 64
6.2. Limitations of the Study 65
6.3. Recommendations for Future Research 65

REFERENCES 67
APPENDICES 76

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Overall Design Of The Study..... 34
Table 2. Overview of the Weekly Intervention Process with Differentiated Instruction Strategies..... 38
Table 3. Demographic Characteristics of Participants by Group..... 44
Table 4. The distribution of the participants across academic departments 45
Table 5. Characteristics of the Semi-Structured Interviewees..... 46
Table 6. Descriptive Statistics and Normality Indicators for RA and RSE Scores ... 49
Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Achievement Scores by Group and Time 52
Table 8. Mixed-Design ANOVA Results for Reading Achievement Test..... 52
Table 9. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Self-Efficacy by Group and Time..... 53
Table 10. Mixed-Design ANOVA Results for Reading Self-Efficacy..... 54
Table 11. Thematic Coding Results of Student Perceptions..... 55

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Differentiated Instruction Flow Chart 22
Figure 2. Overview Of The Study Design 36
Figure 3. VAK Learning Styles Model 37
Figure 4. Concurrent Triangulation Design 43

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DI	: Differentiated Instruction
DER	: Differentiated Extensive Reading
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
EMI	: English-Medium Instruction
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ER	: Extensive Reading
MMR	: Mixed Methods Research
RA	: Reading Achievement
RSE	: Reading Self-Efficacy
UDL	: Universal Design for Learning
VAK	: Visual, Auditory, Kinaesthetic
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an introduction to the study. The first section introduces the statement of the problem for the current study. The significance of the study is outlined in the second part. The purpose statement is explained in the third section. The fourth section consists of research questions and a summary. Finally, the fifth section provides the explanations of the key terms that are used throughout the study.

Reading has always been an important part of communication and learning. It has been serving as a main source of information sharing across people for years. In contrast to oral communication, which occurs naturally, reading is a learned skill that necessitates explicit instruction and practice (Wolf & Stoodley, 2007). Over time, the way of practicing reading has changed considerably. Educational reforms, technological developments, and changes in literacy demands have affected reading. In language learning, as Grabe (2009) states, reading is believed to be one of the most essential skills, especially for EFL learners because it makes it easier to access academic content, improves vocabulary acquisition, and facilitates critical thinking. Extensive Reading (ER) has been generally accepted as an effective approach for developing reading fluency and comprehension, as it exposes learners to a large amount of easy-to-understand and engaging texts (Day & Bamford, 2002).

However, traditional ER programs often use a standard approach that gives all students similar reading tasks and materials without considering the different interests, proficiency levels, or learning styles of students (Westwood, 2016). On the other hand, the purpose of differentiated instruction (DI) is to meet different student needs by changing content, process, and product to meet these different needs (Tomlinson, 2014). Regarding second language acquisition, DI may be highly helpful as it makes reading exercises more interesting and accessible to all students, which in turn develops their self-efficacy and motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). Although the benefits of DI and ER are well-documented in a separate manner, there has been limited research about how differentiated extensive reading practices affect students' reading self-

efficacy and achievement, especially in English Medium Instruction (EMI) settings where academic achievement is mostly reliant on language proficiency.

Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura (1997) as individuals' belief in their ability to perform a task with success, and it has been considered a considerably important component that has a big impact on reading engagement and success. When students have higher reading self-efficacy, they tend to handle reading difficulties, use reading strategies, and have a positive attitude for reading (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006). In contrast, when students have low self-efficacy, they may experience difficulties in comprehension and reading anxiety and thus avoid reading tasks. Research suggests that teaching strategies that offer suitable challenges, support, and opportunities for achievement can improve students' self-efficacy and overall reading performance (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006). Through the application of DI practices in ER programs, teachers can provide students with reading materials that are appropriate to their proficiency levels, preferences, and interests, which can increase students' confidence and motivation for reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Differentiated ER practices may be particularly helpful in EMI preparatory programs since students in these settings need quick improvement in their academic reading skills to be successful in university classes. The challenges EMI students face in reading are often because of limited exposure to academic English, different proficiency levels, and cognitive ability to process content in a second language (Macaro et al., 2018). When students are exposed to texts with suitable difficulty and scaffolding strategies, these challenges can be decreased, and reading development can be facilitated (Nation, 2009). Additionally, as Schraw reported, choice and autonomy regarding reading materials, which are both crucial elements of DI, can have a considerable contribution to students' motivation and engagement with reading.

Despite the acknowledged advantages of both DI and ER, there is still a lack of empirical research on their combined influence on EMI settings. In other words, studies have shown how effective DI is in general language instruction and how beneficial ER is for language development; however, few studies have examined the influences of differentiated extensive reading on reading self-efficacy and achievement in preparatory school contexts. Therefore, it is obvious that with the growing focus on different teaching methods and student-centered learning, more

research is required to identify how DI might be successfully involved in ER practices to increase language learning outcomes.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The growing focus on differentiated instruction (DI) has stressed the importance of different teaching styles adjusted according to students' unique needs, including their proficiency levels, learning profiles, and interests. Nevertheless, research related to how these strategies, especially combined with extensive reading (ER), affect students' reading self-efficacy and achievement is limited. As Bamford and Day (2004) noted, the benefits of ER in terms of improving language development and motivation have long been known; however, little research has been conducted regarding how DI can increase the effectiveness of ER, especially in English Medium Instruction (EMI) preparatory programs.

Reading is a fundamental skill for academic improvement because it affects not only language proficiency but also the development of cognitive skills across disciplines (Snow, 2010). Despite this, as Breen (2014) reported, students in EMI settings often experience difficulties in engaging with reading tasks because individual differences are not satisfied by traditional and undifferentiated materials. DI, which highlights the importance of adapting instruction to meet different learner needs, presents a promising solution to this problem by modifying reading practices that consider students' interests, learning styles, and proficiency level (Tomlinson, 2003).

Even though DI's rewards in personalized learning experiences are recognized (Tomlinson, 2001; Hall et al., 2003), there is not adequate research on how DI can particularly contribute to extensive reading practices. In other words, the result of involving DI strategies in ER practices on learners' reading self-efficacy, which is defined by Bandura (1997) as students' belief in their ability to successfully engage in and finish reading tasks, remains unclear. To understand students' engagement with reading practices in EMI programs, understanding of self-efficacy is required, which is one of the most significant influencers of motivation and academic success (Schunk & Ertmer, 2000).

Furthermore, according to Day and Bamford (2002), a lack of attention to individual needs often restricts extended reading practices, which in turn negatively affects

students' ability to engage with texts in a meaningful way. In other words, extensive reading activities are limited by traditional, standardized teaching practices, which may fail to match the different needs of students. To create more student-centered and interesting reading experiences, it is required to explore how DI strategies can be used in ER practices with different learner profiles of students in EMI programs.

1.2. Significance of the Study

In recent years, using Differentiated Instruction (DI) strategies in language learning environments has become more important because teachers are aware of the importance of meeting students' different learning needs. DI has been known as a successful approach to meet these needs, as it presents personalized learning experiences with a differentiated way of instruction (Tomlinson, 2014). In parallel, Extensive Reading (ER), a method to encourage learners to read large amounts of materials to improve language skills (Day & Bamford, 2002), has become an important part of language learning. Despite the increasing recognition of both DI and ER as important education practices, as was already said, research on their collective effects has received little attention. Therefore, to increase students' reading potential and development in language, it is necessary to understand how DI practices can improve the effectiveness of ER.

The examination of differentiated extensive reading strategies in the current study aims to contribute to the literature by exploring how these strategies influence students' reading self-efficacy and reading achievement. Understanding how different DI practices affect students' reading outcomes provides valuable insights for educators who want to design more engaging and efficient language learning environments. In other words, the findings of this paper offer practical recommendations for teachers whose goal is to improve their students' reading skills by integrating the rewards of DI and ER.

Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the literature by exploring the impacts of using DI in ER activities on students' reading self-efficacy and reading achievement in EMI preparatory classes. This corresponds to the rising focus on adjusting educational practices to better match the different backgrounds and learning profiles of students (Tomlinson, 2014).

1.3. Purpose Statement

Reading skills in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms have been considerably affected by the changing pedagogical strategies that seek to meet the different needs of learners. Regarding EMI preparatory classes, as learning preferences and language proficiency vary broadly, it is becoming more important to understand how DI strategies affect students' reading engagement and performance for improving reading results (Kırkgöz, 2009). DI, which offers modified instruction to students' readiness levels, preferences, interests, and learning profiles, has been accepted as an effective way to encourage students' engagement and academic performance (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2012). Suggesting that ER is a broadly used approach to increase reading fluency, motivation, and comprehension (Day & Bamford, 2002; Yamashita, 2013), it is highly important to find out how DI strategies affect students' reading engagement and overall language achievement.

The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of differentiated ER practices on the reading self-efficacy and reading achievement of EMI preparatory class students. To achieve this, ER activities, which were adjusted based on students' interests, learning preferences, and proficiency levels, were implemented. Data was gathered regarding students' use of differentiated extensive reading strategies. Semi-structured interviews were also designed to learn more about how students engaged with differentiated ER tasks and how their reading development was affected by these practices.

1.4. Research Questions

The purpose of this paper is to explore the effects of differentiated extensive reading on reading self-efficacy and reading achievement in EMI preparatory schools. The current study aims to address the following questions:

1. To what extent does differentiated extensive reading influence students' reading self-efficacy in EMI preparatory schools?
2. To what extent does differentiated extensive reading impact students' reading achievement in EMI preparatory programs?
3. What are the perceptions of students regarding differentiated extensive reading instruction?

1.5. Summary

As differentiated instruction (DI) becomes more important in English as a foreign language (EFL) education, its adaptation into extensive reading (ER) practices continues to be valuable to explore more. As there are different needs, interests, and proficiency levels of students in English Medium Instruction (EMI) preparatory schools, it is obviously important to understand the impact of differentiated ER on reading self-efficacy and achievement; however, limited research has been conducted about that. This paper aimed to investigate the effects of DER strategies on students' reading self-efficacy and reading achievement. The results fill the gap in the literature regarding differentiated instruction in EFL reading pedagogy and present practical implications for EMI preparatory schools.

1.6. Definitions of the Key Terms

Content Differentiation: Adapting what children learn according to their learning profiles, interests, or readiness levels is known as content differentiation. Using a variety of reading materials, multimedia content, or tiered tasks are a few examples of this (Tomlinson, 2014).

Curriculum Compacting: One tactic for expediting instruction for students who have already mastered a particular subject is curriculum compacting. In order to avoid repetition, teachers pre-assess students and substitute more complex or enhanced learning opportunities (Reis et al., 1992).

DI (Differentiated Instruction): Differentiated instruction is an approach that allows teachers to design their lessons to meet the needs of every student. It stems from the belief that there is differentiation among learners, and therefore, teachers should modify instruction accordingly (Tomlinson, 1999, 2001, 2003).

ER (Extensive Reading): Extensive reading is related to reading a large amount by aiming to get a full understanding of the material. Rather than focusing on the meaning of single words and phrases, readers are more interested in the meaning of the whole text. (Day & Bamford, 1997)

EMI (English Medium Instruction): English Medium Instruction (EMI) refers to the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries where the first language of the majority of the population is not English.

Flexible Grouping: The process of regularly and intentionally switching up student groups according to readiness, interest, or learning profile is known as flexible grouping. This dynamic organization guarantees that instruction is responsive rather than fixed and enables students to work with a diversity of peers (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010).

Interest-Based Projects: Students' own interests are incorporated into project-based learning assignments using this method. Motivation and engagement tend to rise when students are exposed to important content. Students can demonstrate their understanding through self-directed inquiry through interest projects (Tomlinson, 2001).

Learning Centers/Stations: Learning centers are spaces set aside in the classroom where students can work on several projects at once. Individual or small-group learning is possible since each station focuses on a particular skill, learning preference, or interest. Learning centers offer a variety of learning pathways and encourage self-reliance (Gregory & Chapman, 2013).

Learning Environment Differentiation: This method modifies the physical or psychological environment for learning. Tomlinson (2014) provides instances of flexible seating, group arrangements, and silent work zones.

Process Differentiation: Differentiating the way students interact with the content is known as process differentiation. This involves utilizing several teaching techniques like choice boards, learning centers, and cooperative learning (Tomlinson, 2001).

Product Differentiation: Changing the outputs that students produce to show their understanding is the main goal of product differentiation. Presentations, posters, writings, and videos are a few examples. Options for how students convey their learning may be provided (Heacox, 2012).

Scaffolding: The practice of temporarily assisting students in achieving higher comprehension or skill development is known as scaffolding. As students gain higher independence, this support is progressively reduced (Vygotsky, 1978; Hammond, 2001). Scaffolding guarantees that all students can access difficult material with the right amount of assistance in differentiated instruction.

Technology-Integrated Differentiated Instruction: By providing a variety of engagement, representation, and expression channels, technological technologies can be utilized to promote differentiation. Teachers can set assignments that are customized to each student's needs, give interactive feedback, and encourage self-directed learning with the help of digital platforms. Video-based tutorials, digital decision boards, and adaptive learning applications are a few examples (Hall et al., 2012).

Tiered Assignments: Although all students strive for the same learning goal, the assignments are modified in terms of depth or complexity to offer a suitable challenge (Tomlinson, 2001), which is known as tiering. This upholds high standards for everyone while guaranteeing fair access to education.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review provides information on related subjects based on the results of the many studies. These theories are described here to give readers a more comprehensive understanding of the study's theoretical framework.

2.1. Differentiated Instruction (DI)

Every student has different characteristics in terms of culture, background, language, gender, interest, and learning styles. The learning process is directly affected by these individual differences (Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner & Tremblay, 2011). According to Tomlinson and Imbeau (2023), teachers can be aware of the differences and see their effects on students' learning process and the support that students need during this process when differentiated instruction is effectively applied. Tomlinson (2001) describes differentiated instruction (DI) as a pedagogical approach that meets the diverse needs and interests of students by adjusting instruction to accommodate students' different features, including interests, learning profiles, and readiness levels. In other words, when instruction is well differentiated by teachers, they make sure critical points are learned by all students, and students can show what they understand in a more comfortable and appropriate environment thanks to the differentiated classroom atmosphere (Tomlinson, 2010).

According to constructivist learning theory, differentiated instruction (DI) is also in line with Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), indicating that tasks should be structured according to the developmental levels of students. Vygotsky (1978) defines ZPD as the diversity of tasks that are performed by students with some guidance but not without assistance, highlighting the significance of scaffolding in order to narrow the difference between current ability and future progress. According to Mahn (1999), in a classroom where instruction is differentiated, learners are provided with appropriate instruction matching their readiness levels, which facilitates their progress within their ZPD. Walqui (2006) also indicates that as differentiated

tasks address the varied needs of students, learners remain in their ZPD, which provides them with meaningful and long-lasting progress.

In addition to ZPD, differentiated instruction (DI) techniques are supported by the theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983), indicating that diverse strengths and preferences of students should be considered while choosing teaching methods. According to Gardner's framework (1983), every person has different types of intelligences, which are linguistic, spatial, logical-mathematical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, musical, and naturalistic. In line with this theory, learners may outperform in different areas, and standardized instruction may not be interactive for all students (Armstrong, 2009). Therefore, instructors can be aware of these differences, and they can create more customized and interactive learning environments for their learners, which serve students' diverse strengths and learning styles (Felder & Silverman, 1988). Tomlinson (2014) supports this approach by claiming that DI based on the theory of multiple intelligences both enhances student involvement and promotes a thorough comprehension of content since materials are varied and encouraging for students to accommodate their cognitive and emotional preferences.

Tomlinson (2001) notes that theoretical underpinnings stress the value of adaptive teaching strategies that consider the different dynamics of contemporary classroom environments. He also states that all students, regardless of background, can succeed thanks to DI's ability to create a more engaging, inclusive, and customized learning environment.

On the other hand, Ashman et al. (1998) note that implementing efficient teaching methods might be difficult because of the obstacles experienced in modern education, including high-stakes standardized testing, varied student needs, and time limitations, which restrict teachers from effectively meeting students' unique needs and preferences. Furthermore, instructors experience challenges while covering a loaded curriculum within a limited timeframe, offering little flexibility for captivating students and designing creative lesson plans (Maas et al., 2021). Tomlinson and Edison (2003) support the idea that as today's classrooms have a diverse nature, including special needs students, gifted learners, students from different socioeconomical and

cultural backgrounds, and those who have different first languages, these differences among learners need close examination to be met.

A lot of educators may feel unprepared to overcome these difficulties because of inadequate professional development that offers efficient training related to differentiated methods (Brighton et al., 2005). In order to address these difficulties, Tomlinson (2001) suggests that differentiated instruction (DI) introduces a forward-looking strategy, inspiring educators to create lesson plans for the varied needs of students rather than only answering to them. He also indicates that students work on tasks that fit their interests, preferences, and skill levels with the help of differentiated instruction (DI) as it has a wide range of teaching strategies, including multi-level assignments, personalized support, and flexible grouping. This approach not only develops the academic performance of students but also strengthens their self-esteem and confidence since it presents activities in accordance with students' learning styles and developmental stages (Prast et al., 2018). The active involvement supported by DI has been found to improve cognitive skills, resulting in better participation and success in different classroom settings (Hidi & Renninger, 2006). Additionally, DI emphasizes the need to adjust assessment methods to gain a deeper insight into individual learning objectives, which can enhance both teaching and learning results (Roy et al., 2012).

2.1.1. Historical Development of Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction (DI) exists because students differ in their readiness levels, learning profiles, interests, and motivation, and teaching methods must adapt to achieve maximum learning results. The philosophical basis of DI emerges from constructivist learning theory through the contributions of Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. According to Piaget (1952), students build knowledge through suitable developmental experiences, yet Vygotsky (1978) explained that learning reaches its peak when instruction addresses the area slightly above what students already understand by introducing the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The fundamental principles of instruction require adjustments according to individual student cognitive development and potential, which forms the core of differentiated instruction.

Learner-centered instruction developed from these principal original ideas that were further expanded by John Dewey (1938) as an approach to teaching that is connected to student interests and lives. Dewey's educational philosophy supports DI's mission– one that engages students in meaningful content, uses democratic classrooms, and does so within the context of experiential learning where success paths are flexible.

Another primary DI influence is Howard Gardner's (1983, 1999) theory of multiple intelligences, which criticizes the one-size-fits-all conception of intelligence and tells that learners have multiple intellectual strengths—linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, intrapersonal, and interpersonal intelligences. It helped to shift the paradigm of thinking of and treating children as though everyone was the same and all possessed the same strengths and potential; thus, it caused teachers to offer different kinds of instruction styles and assessment to meet diverse intelligences.

The modern conception of differentiated instruction is attributed mainly to Carol Ann Tomlinson, who formed the model in the 1990s and early 2000s. Differentiation is broadly defined as "a philosophy of teaching and learning that recognizes the differentiated backgrounds, readiness levels, interests, and learning preferences of students and responds to them in the curriculum, instruction, and/or assessment" (Tomlinson, 1999, 2001). Tomlinson's work revolves around three essential components: content (what the students learn), process (how the students learn it), and product (how the students demonstrate learning), all of which can be differentiated to address the needs of individual students. She also stressed the significance of an encouraging and flexible classroom environment in order to do effective differentiation (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2023).

DI is also intentionally related to the principles of universal design for learning (UDL), which is a framework introduced to promote inclusive education. UDL is predicated on the multiple means of representation, expression, and engagement and is intended to address learner variability from the very beginning, among the range of other important factors (Rose & Meyer, 2002). The confluence of UDL and DI has made a strong argument for instruction that is flexible up front, rather than waiting until students fail, then redesigning the instruction they have experienced.

Studies have found that DI, when properly implemented, can improve academic performance and student motivation, particularly in diverse and heterogeneous classrooms (Tomlinson, 2014). As Hall et al. (2003) point out, DI creates more equitable learning environments because it accommodates for differences between students' strengths and weaknesses. Relatedly, according to Subban (2006), DI has evolved as a result of the growing degrees of variability in classrooms associated with inclusion, globalization, and wider access to education.

In sum, it can be concluded that the roots of DI, which are placed within constructivist and learner-centered principles, are supported by psychological (e.g., multiple intelligence) and educational theories (e.g., UDL) and take the shape of practical conceptualizations proposed by educational leaders such as Tomlinson. As educational settings become more and more diverse, the argument for DI becomes much stronger in theory and in practice.

2.1.2. Key Concepts of Differentiated Instruction

In implementing differentiated instruction (DI), educators concentrate on five key components, which are content, process, product, affect, and the learning environment (Tomlinson & Moon, 2013).

Content: Tomlinson (2014) defines content in differentiated instruction as the material that students need to learn, which should be adapted according to students' readiness levels, interests, and learning profiles. Differentiating content allows teachers to give students texts and materials that match their level, which at the end helps all students engage with the resources (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009). For example, using multilevel reading materials helps teachers to differentiate content as students with different proficiency levels can work on texts that are suitable for their levels (Westwood, 2018). Research suggests that when students deal with texts that are appropriate to their levels, they experience higher engagement and in-depth understanding (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Process: Tomlinson and Imbeau (2023) define process as the educational activities and strategies that teachers use to help students understand the content. According to Tomlinson (2001), differentiating process means involving different teaching methods, including guided reading, hands-on activities, and collaborative learning so

that different learning styles are addressed. The reason behind this idea is that, for instance, visual aids may be useful for some students, whereas discussions or kinesthetic activities help others more (Sousa & Tomlinson, 2011). Research indicates that in the contexts where the instructional process is in line with students' learning preferences, students tend to understand easily and feel engaged in learning (Heacox, 2012).

Product: Product in DI is defined by Tomlinson (2017) as the way of students presenting their understanding of what they learn, which can be adjusted according to their strengths and preferences. Differentiated instruction makes it easier for students to express their learning in different ways, including essays, videos, presentations, or creative projects (Blaz, 2013). Brookhart (2017) also indicates that when students are offered choices about how they want to show their knowledge, they feel more motivated and willing to apply information. At this point, it can be said that adaptable assessment strategies are also helpful to increase students' confidence and their self-management for their learning (Algozzine & Anderson, 2007).

Affect: Tomlinson and Sousa (2011) describe affect in DI as students' attitudes, feelings, and motivation, which have a considerable role in their learning experiences. In the classrooms where teachers create a supportive and engaging environment, students tend to feel valued and engaged (Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to Gambrell (2011), differentiating affective factors means involving different strategies, including positive reinforcement and student-teacher meetings, to develop students' confidence and increase their intrinsic motivation. This is because students who feel emotionally supported in the classroom have a greater tendency to show a positive attitude for learning and handle challenging tasks (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006).

Learning Environment: Learning environment is defined by Tomlinson and Moon (2013) as the physical and psychological components of the classroom that have a big effect on students' learning ability. In a classroom environment where differentiation occurs properly, lessons are flexible, student-centered, and adapted to meet different learner needs (Hall et al., 2012). It is possible for teachers to differentiate the learning environment by adjusting seating arrangements, including quiet study areas, and creating a classroom culture that gives importance to collaboration and respect (Heacox, 2012). Studies also indicate that when students feel comfortable and valued

in their learning environment, they show a high level of engagement and academic performance (Dixon et al., 2014).

2.1.3. Curricular Components of Differentiated Instruction

According to the framework by Tomlinson (2001), these components mentioned above are strengthened by three main principles, which are readiness, interest, and learning profile.

Readiness: Tomlinson (2001) defines readiness in differentiated instruction as the developmental stage at which students are actively operating, particularly concerning their comprehension and skill competence in a specific subject. Readiness is not equivalent to intellectual capacity; it is a far more complete state that is shaped by previous learning and life experiences, beliefs about school, as well as cognitive and metacognitive proficiency (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009, 2012; Sousa & Tomlinson, 2011). It highlights the need for activities and tasks that are appropriate to individual learners' ability, which guarantees that students are challenged at an appropriate level without making them feel either overwhelmed or uninterested (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), activities should be scaffolded so that learners can perform them with guidance or collaboration, closing the gap between their current abilities and their potential development (Vygotsky, 1978). Studies have shown that ZPD-based instruction is beneficial for learning in different contexts, including language learning (Heidari et al., 2014; Mirzaei & Eslami, 2015; Pahlevansadegh & Mirzaei, 2018). Learning is significantly improved when it is cooperative and supportive, according to a study by Rezaee and Azizi (2012) that examined the function of ZPD in learning and the importance of addressing it.

According to Brighton et al. (2005), when tasks are designed in accordance with students' readiness, they have an important contribution to students' success. They also indicate that by providing tiered assignments in which tasks are gradually more challenging based on the learner's readiness level, instructors can avoid frustration and boredom while enhancing a feeling of accomplishment and motivation. Moreover, by placing students at similar readiness levels together, level-based grouping has been shown to improve learning outcomes, thus enabling the instructor the opportunity to differentiate instruction in accordance with the specific needs of each group of students

(Prast et al., 2018). Zimmerman and Schunk (2011) also state that by carefully planning tasks to match the readiness of students, teachers can provide an environment in which students feel competent and motivated to overcome possible challenges, increasing learners' confidence, self-efficacy, and overall academic performance.

Furthermore, according to Guskey and Bailey (2001), in readiness-based differentiated instruction, teachers are required to evaluate students' skill levels through formative assessments, such as quizzes, observations, and performance tasks. By providing teachers with necessary information about students and the learning process so that they can adjust instruction and tasks actively, these assessments make sure learners remain at the appropriate developmental level for the highest level of growth (Tomlinson, 2001).

Interest: According to Tomlinson's framework of differentiated instruction (2001), a classroom's instruction should also be shaped by the individual interests of its students. According to Ainley et al. (2002) and Renninger and Hidi (2015), interest is a very effective technique for creating motivation and engagement, both of which are necessary for learning to occur. Interest-based differentiated instruction in education underlines the importance of choosing assignments and tasks that are appropriate to students' individual interests and preferences, as it plays an important role in supporting intrinsic motivation and increasing engagement (Renninger & Hidi, 2011). Research shows that when learners have the opportunity to explore topics that are personally meaningful for them, they feel more engaged and have better academic performance (Renninger & Hidi, 2006). This is because students have a greater tendency to study tasks with stronger motivation when they consider that the tasks are personally relevant (Schiefele, 1991).

Additionally, students are more likely to engage in critical thinking and deep processing when they are allowed to explore issues that have their attention (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In this context, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) support the idea that interest-based differentiation not only improves motivation but also contributes to stronger cognitive processing because students are more willing to extend their learning journey beyond the classroom. According to Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000), encouraging situational interest in which students' curiosity is raised by creating attractive materials can lead to higher levels of engagement, which in turn has beneficial effects on

students' academic success. Furthermore, when educators give students some choices within the curriculum that allow them to discover their preferences and interests while covering the necessary material, students' motivation and performance are positively affected, especially when students feel a sense of autonomy over their learning (Reeve, 2009). In other words, integrating student interests into differentiated instruction also supports a stronger sense of control over the learning process, which has been shown to improve persistence and strength, especially when experiencing difficult tasks (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2003).

Learning Profiles: Learning profiles, which include cognitive styles, cultural backgrounds, and personality traits, play an important role in adapting instruction to meet individual learners' needs (Tomlinson, 2001). According to Dunn and Honigsfeld (2009), learners have different learning preferences in terms of environmental, social, and emotional factors, and recognizing these differences helps teachers adjust their approaches to maximize student performance. For instance, a study conducted by Dunn and Dunn (1978) shows that some learners perform better in a quiet, bright environment, while others may achieve higher outcomes in a more interactive, energetic setting. These environmental factors, along with other different learning profiles, show the significance of creating differentiated instructional strategies that meet the diverse needs of students (Renzulli, 2002).

Cognitive styles, a key component of learning profiles, refer to the preferred ways in which learners process and organize information (Sternberg, 1997). He identifies several cognitive processing preferences, including analytical, creative, and practical thinking. For instance, students who are outstanding in analytical thinking may benefit from tasks that require logical problem-solving, while creative thinkers might prefer activities that encourage creativity and conceptual thinking. Similarly, Kolb (2014) identifies four different learning styles, which are converging, diverging, assimilating, and accommodating, that reflect how students prefer to understand and process information. Being aware of these variations in cognitive processing, instructors can plan lessons in accordance with each learner's different way of thinking, thus improving learning outcomes (Kolb, 2014).

Cultural background is another significant element in shaping learning profiles. Hofstede (2001) emphasizes how cultural factors such as individualism versus

collectivism affect the way students' approach educational tasks. For example, according to his study, students from collectivist cultures may enjoy group work and cooperative tasks, while those from individualistic cultures may have their best performance in environments that require autonomous study. In order to create a more comprehensive and productive learning environment, teachers should adjust their teaching strategies to meet the needs of different preferences of students from various backgrounds. (Gibson, 2017). Another study conducted by Lee et al. (2015) shows that whereas Western students prefer more independent tasks, Asian students, who usually give importance to group achievement, benefit from tasks involving group discussions or teamwork.

In addition to cognitive styles and cultural background, learning profiles are influenced by personality traits including introversion and extraversion (Felder & Silverman, 1988). According to McCrae and Costa (2003), these personality traits play a big role in students' behavior in the classroom environment. They claim that extroverted students generally perform better in group work and conversations; introverted students, on the other hand, may have better performance in solo study sessions and written projects. In addition to learning profile, motivation and involvement are affected by these personality traits; introvert learners demand more encouragement to be involved in group activities, while extroverted learners pursue social connection (Dweck, 2006). Felder and Silverman (1988) note that by understanding these personality-based differences, teachers can form lesson plans and learning experiences that are appropriate to each student's differences and contribute to their interaction and academic achievement.

Educators can create differentiated instruction that meets the unique needs of each learner by recognizing and making room for these different learning profiles. Research shows that instruction is in line with students' strengths, preferences, interests, and needs; it not only improves academic performance but also contributes to student satisfaction and motivation (Tomlinson, 2014). Adapting instruction in this way facilitates a learning setting where students feel valued and supported, contributing to better academic outcomes and deeper understanding of the lesson (Brighton et al., 2005). Additionally, the research by Gardner (1983) on multiple intelligences and by Sternberg and Zhang (2005) on thinking styles emphasizes the need to adapt teaching

strategies to match individual strengths, thereby enhancing both academic performance and student satisfaction (Gardner, 1983; Sternberg & Zhang, 2005).

2.1.4. Key Strategies for Implementing Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction (DI) teaching philosophy is based on individualizing methods to meet the needs of the variety of students in mixed-ability classrooms (Tomlinson, 2001; Heacox, 2012). The instructional model of DI compels teachers to differentiate instruction in terms of how they deliver the mix of content, learning activities, products, and learning environments in response to individual student readiness, interests, and learning styles (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2023). A key feature corresponding to adaptation guidelines is the sense of purpose in the strategies employed, coupled with ongoing formative assessment (Gregory & Chapman, 2013; Tomlinson & Moon, 2013).

Tiered assignments: One of the most widely used strategies in DI is tiered assignments. This is a popular DI strategy and is described as a method where multiple tasks are addressed to one learning objective with different levels of difficulty (Tomlinson, 1999). These are tasks that allow students to work at a level that is challenging and not too easy and not too difficult (Beecher & Sweeny, 2008). In foreign language learning, tiered tasks assist learners in getting language skill support (input/output) at their level of proficiency (Gibbons, 2002).

Learning centers/stations: Learning centers or stations are another common method of instruction and allow students to rotate activities that emphasize different skills and learning styles (Gregory & Chapman, 2013). This strategy enables differentiation through multimodal tasks, which include all learning style preferences such as visual, aural, and kinesthetic (Hall et al., 2003). Multimodal tasks allow each student to learn in the manner that best suits their learning style preferences; thus, this results in student engagement being maintained throughout the whole lesson (Tomlinson, 2014).

Flexible grouping: Teachers use flexible grouping as a crucial tool for differentiated instruction to create short-term groups based on readiness levels, learning profiles, and interests according to Tomlinson (2001) and Rock et al. (2008). The method of flexible grouping prevents fixed ability-based grouping through its dynamic approach which

adjusts group membership based on task requirements, student needs and assessment results (Gregory & Chapman, 2013). The instructional method according to Tomlinson (2014) reduces student discrimination because its group members change throughout different learning activities. Students who participate in different group arrangements including pairs, small groups, whole class and individual settings develop better collaboration abilities and gain multiple perspectives while learning from peers with different strengths (Algozzine & Anderson, 2007; Heacox, 2012). Flexible grouping practices help students develop self-directed learning skills by performing tasks that need interdependence and content or process differentiation (Baum, Cooper, & Neu, 2001). Students can achieve meaningful shared inquiry through project-based learning and literature circles because these approaches allow them to take different roles while working on objectives that fulfill their individual needs (Danzi, Reul, & Smith, 2008). The research evidence shows positive results from flexible grouping in EFL as well as general education classrooms. The method's effective implementation produces better student engagement, deeper understanding, and higher-level thinking abilities according to McTighe & Brown (2005). According to Willis and Willis (2007) language learners find safe participation environments through flexible group structures that balance proficiency levels with peer support. The successful implementation of flexible grouping depends on detailed planning and ongoing assessment together with effective classroom management abilities. Teachers must verify that group assignments match the group size while maintaining student engagement (Gregory & Chapman, 2013; Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2023).

Curricular compacting: In the context of a classroom with high-ability students, this involves opportunities for students who have demonstrated mastery of content to avoid redundant work and engage in enriched alternatives (Tomlinson & Moon, 2013). The strategy prevents students from disengaging while encouraging them to learn at a higher level (Winebrenner, 1992).

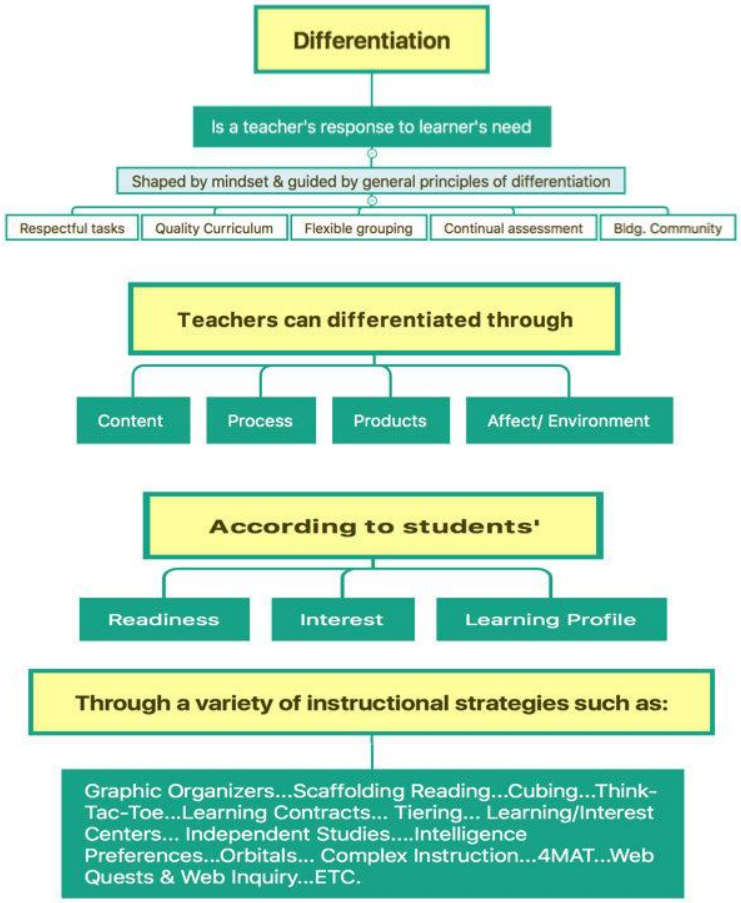
Interest Projects: DI advocates the use of student interest projects that are a perfect blend of the passion of the student with the academic requirements that they need to meet (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2023). The interest-based projects work particularly effectively in an EFL learning environment, as they link instruction with learner interest (Dörnyei, 2001; Brown & Lee, 2025).

Technology-integrated DI: Research findings show that technology-based differentiated instruction remains essential for digital-native classrooms. The educational tools, including Google Forms, Quizlet, and Nearpod, enable teachers to provide customized content and individual assessment of students (Hall et al., 2012). Through technology-enhanced DI, teachers can use multimedia, adaptive quizzes, and real-time feedback to address different proficiency levels (Hasselbring & Glaser, 2000).

Scaffolding: The differentiation technique of scaffolding appears commonly in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English Medium Instruction (EMI) classrooms. The teaching method uses sentence starters, vocabulary banks, visuals, and simplified texts to make academic content accessible (Gibbons, 2002; Macalister & Nation, 2019). Through scaffolding, students receive linguistic assistance, which helps them develop their independence (Vygotsky, 1978; Ellis, 2003).

In summary, the implementation of DI strategies allows students to understand instruction effectively while processing information based on their individual needs and showing learning through their unique strengths (Tomlinson, 2001; Heacox, 2012). The strategic and consistent application of these practices contributes to inclusive, motivating, and academically effective classrooms (Tomlinson & Moon, 2013; Rock et al., 2008). The differentiated classrooms' conceptual map created by Tomlinson (1999) can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Differentiated Instruction Flow Chart



Source: Tomlinson, 1999

2.1.5. Challenges for Implementing Differentiated Instruction (DI)

While there are many advantages of differentiated instruction, it has several challenges while implementing. One of the biggest problems is time restriction because planning and presenting differentiated lessons can be demanding (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009). Teachers need to create different materials and activities that meet the needs of different students, and this takes much more time than the traditional way of lesson planning (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009). Also, time restriction can be a bigger problem when teachers are asked to meet the specific goals of curriculum, which does not leave enough time for differentiation (Tomlinson, 2001). The complex process of differentiating lessons, such as designing multilevel assignments or creating small group activities, demands in-depth preparation and can cause teachers to feel burnout (Brighton et al., 2005).

In addition to feeling burnout, many teachers feel they do not have sufficient training in DI strategies, resulting in unreliable application and feelings of frustration

(Bringhton et al., 2005). As Santangelo and Tomlinson (2009) note, a lot of educators do not receive enough training about how to adjust instruction for different student needs, which in turn results in frustration and decreases efficacy. Without proper training, teachers may need to rely on standardized methods that do not achieve meeting the needs of all learners, weakening the goals of DI (Tomlinson, 2014).

Classroom management is another important challenge in implementing DI. According to Chamberlin and Powers (2010), in a differentiated classroom, students can work on different tasks at the same time, and this makes it more difficult for teachers to manage transitions and be sure that all students are concentrated and engaged. Therefore, teachers should also manage the complexity of grouping students depending on their readiness levels, preferences, interests, or learning profiles, and this requires careful planning to avoid disengagement and confusion (Tomlinson & Moon, 2013). As research by Tomlinson (2001) suggests, providing equal support for diverse needs of students who work on different tasks can be difficult for teachers, and if they do not have effective classroom management strategies, differentiation may not be beneficial. Additionally, there may be the possibility of chaos in the classroom because teachers are required to monitor multiple student groups or individualized activities, which necessitates multitasking skills that some teachers may not feel completely prepared for (Tomlinson, 2001).

In addition to the time restriction, inadequate training, and classroom management problems, assessment also presents several challenges. Gregory and Chapman (2013) note that differentiated assessment strategies require considerable time and effort to implement effectively, while they are beneficial in terms of giving personalized feedback to learners. They state that this is because teachers are expected to design assessment styles according to different learning profiles and proficiency levels of their students, which increases teachers' workload. According to Moon (2005), the assessment process should be flexible and adaptive in differentiated classrooms; however, this may not ease the teaching environment, which is demanding. Also, the problem of tracking students' progress with multiple and individualized assessments can be overwhelming for teachers, especially when they have other instructional demands that they are already expected to manage (Doubet & Hockett, 2015).

2.1.6. Studies on Differentiated Instruction Conducted in Türkiye

The Turkish educational context has placed significant emphasis on understanding how differentiated instruction (DI) affects student academic results and their motivation toward foreign languages. For instance, Erden and Koçyiğit (2023) implemented a quasi-experimental research design to study how differentiated instruction affects English reading achievement and motivation among fifth-grade students. The research showed that students in the experimental group demonstrated higher motivation levels and reading achievement results according to their post-test findings. Sapan and Mede (2022) also studied how DI affected eighth-grade students' motivation levels, their achievement results, and learner autonomy development. The research demonstrated that DI produced substantial improvements in learner motivation, autonomy, and achievement because it allows teachers to create personalized instruction based on individual student needs.

The research project of Leblebicier (2020) at the tertiary level examined DI in academic writing courses through action research. The research with second-year university students demonstrated that DI strategies enhanced students' writing abilities and simultaneously improved their self-efficacy, motivation, and autonomous learning capabilities. The research findings were confirmed through student reflection data and interview responses, which indicated that differentiated tasks and feedback created an inclusive and engaging learning space.

Güven (2023) conducted a doctoral study with fifth-grade students and employed a mixed-methods approach. She utilized achievement tests, affective scales, interviews, and observation. The study results demonstrated that DI effectively lowered foreign language anxiety levels and improved student motivation together with self-confidence and reading achievement. Another study by Özer (2016) examined how sophomores' views toward vocational second language acquisition and their foreign language proficiency were affected by thinking-style-based DI. There was an experimental group in this mixed methods quasi-experimental study, including 25 students in the experimental group and 18 in the control group. The study's findings demonstrated that the experimental group's achievement scores were noticeably higher than the control group's. However, there was little difference in the groups' perspectives on learning foreign languages for a career. The study's qualitative results

indicate that students felt DI improved their self-confidence, motivation, and level of engagement in the classes.

Research on the effects of DI on speaking proficiency development has received less attention. Meşe (2021) investigated how differentiated online speaking instruction affected speaking proficiency and self-regulation among preparatory school students. The experimental group achieved better speaking test results. Additionally, students in this group indicated that personalized feedback and task design helped them improve their performance and develop strategic learning behaviors.

In addition to student outcomes, several studies have also examined teacher perceptions and practices related to DI. For instance, Şaban (2020) conducted a doctoral study in a university preparatory school with 51 instructors and over 100 students. The study revealed that teachers held positive views about DI after receiving targeted training and implementing it in their classrooms. However, the instructors also reported challenges related to time management, material preparation, and classroom management when differentiating instruction.

Şaban (2020) conducted a doctoral study at a university preparatory school with 51 instructors and more than 100 students. The research showed that teachers developed favorable attitudes toward DI after receiving specific training and using it in their teaching practice. According to the results of the study, students also showed improvements in motivation, attitudes, and autonomy. However, the instructors faced difficulties with time organization, lesson preparation, and classroom control when they implemented different instructional methods.

More recently, Erdemir-Sezer (2023) and Karasaç-Horkel (2023) studied EFL instructors' experiences with DI in Turkish higher education settings. The research showed that professional development and institutional support are necessary to address implementation challenges and enhance teacher confidence in using DI effectively.

Overall, research conducted in Türkiye shows that DI produces positive effects on both academic achievement and affective elements, including motivation, self-efficacy, and autonomy. Research indicates positive outcomes but also shows that DI needs wider

implementation and more extensive teacher training. The research lacks information about how DI affects students in the long term, its effects on reading abilities, and its implementation in technology-based EFL learning environments.

2.2. Extensive Reading: A Pedagogical Approach in ELT

2.2.1. Theoretical Foundations of Extensive Reading

Day et al. (1998) defines extensive reading as a pedagogical approach that emphasizes reading large amounts of material at a comfortable level of understanding, leading learners to focus on meaning rather than form. The theoretical basis for ER is grounded in Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis, which underlines that language acquisition occurs most efficiently when learners are exposed to comprehensible input moderately above their current proficiency level. Extensive reading facilitates this by providing a high level of exposure to language in context, enhancing unintentional learning of vocabulary, syntax, and grammar (Nuttall, 2005). Additionally, Krashen (2004) notes that ER is consistent with the "input hypothesis," which declares that pleasant and meaningful engagement with language supports deeper learning and retention.

This approach is further supported by cognitive theories, such as Anderson's (1978) schema theory, which underlines the importance of the role of background information in understanding texts. According to Grabe and Stoller (2011), by offering a range of topics, ER gives learners the ability to activate their previous knowledge, which in turn contributes to comprehension and facilitates a sense of engagement with the material.

ER has been shown to improve linguistic competence by intensifying exposure to authentic language, enhancing vocabulary acquisition, and developing syntactic knowledge (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006). Day et al. (1998) supports the idea that learners who engage in ER are more prone to develop fluency since frequent exposure to widely used words and phrases facilitates automaticity in language processing. Research also suggests that ER has a big contribution to advanced writing skills because reading extensively provides learners with the opportunity to see varied text structures and rhetorical strategies (Kirin, 2010).

Additionally, Yamashita (2013) claims that learners who engage in ER are more likely to consider reading as an enjoyable and satisfying activity, which thus can encourage

their intrinsic motivation for learning. This is especially important in English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) settings, where students often experience difficulties with language anxiety and low confidence. ER provides a safe way for learners to build their skills at their own pace, thereby improving self-efficacy and decreasing language-related stress (Macalister, 2010). In addition to linguistic and motivational benefits, ER has been linked to cognitive and academic advantages. According to Grabe and Stoller (2011), learners who engage in ER develop critical thinking skills by synthesizing, analyzing, and assessing information provided in texts. Furthermore, Renandya and Jacobs (2016) state that ER supports academic achievement by enhancing reading comprehension and improving a thorough understanding of the material, which is particularly valuable in EMI classrooms where comprehensive understanding depends on language proficiency.

2.2.2. Challenges and Strategies for Implementing Extensive Reading in EMI Classrooms

Despite its benefits, implementing extensive reading (ER) in EMI contexts has a variety of problems. According to Day et al. (1998), one significant obstacle is the inadequacy of appropriate reading materials that match students' language proficiency and interest. They also note that because of this conflict between text complexity and student abilities, students' motivation and engagement decrease, as they may have problems related to texts that are too challenging for them. In other words, textbooks and academic readings are generally too difficult for learners in many EMI settings, which causes frustration and disengagement (Macalister, 2010).

Research conducted by Schmitt (2008) shows that students feel cognitively overloaded when they face texts that are above their current proficiency level, which affects their learning outcomes in a negative way. To resolve this matter, educators can integrate graded readers that are texts particularly designed for language learners at different proficiency levels (Hill, 2013). Hill (2013) claims that these texts give learners the chance to interact with authentic texts while being more accessible because of their limited vocabulary and patterns.

Furthermore, a lack of motivation can occur if the texts do not match students' interests (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Research by Renninger and Hidi (2011) suggests that when learners are engaged with materials that are in line with their personal interests,

they are more likely to remain focused on reading tasks. By using a range of texts, such as graded readers that appeal to different genres, students can choose readings according to their preferences, which increases motivation and improves language acquisition (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Tomlinson (2003) also suggests that teachers can also use multimedia materials in addition to graded readers to accommodate a variety of learning preferences.

In addition, the integration of digital tools and online resources in extensive reading (ER) is a powerful way to improve student engagement and support language acquisition in EMI settings. Stockwell (2010) claims that digital platforms are resources filled with a range of graded readers, interactive reading materials, and multimedia resources that address different learning preferences and proficiency levels. According to Macalister (2008), these tools can offer students the flexibility to choose the right reading material for their own pace and level, which in turn supports autonomous learning and contributes to a stronger bond with the content. Additionally, online resources offer immediate feedback and adaptive learning, facilitating tracking progress and providing tailored support (Ally, 2004). Research by Stockwell (2010) underlines that learners tend to be engaged with reading when they are able to reach interactive digital formats, as these resources create a more progressive and interactive learning environment. Hockly (2013) also supports this idea by claiming that by offering a variety of learning methods, including audio versions of texts, vocabulary-building activities, and quizzes, digital tools can contribute to motivation by helping students in understanding and remembering the content.

Another challenge about implementing extensive reading in EMI contexts is the problem of time restrictions within the curriculum. Many EMI programs give priority to content presentation over language development and academic skills, which often leaves minimal opportunity to do activities including extensive reading (Renandya & Jacobs, 2016). Macalister (2010) states that this imbalance can cause a lack of attention to language achievement; thus, teachers can integrate ER into existing textbooks by assigning reading tasks that are in line with the course objectives to overcome this issue. Grabe and Stoller (2011) also indicate that by including readings that are relevant to the subject matter and easily understandable, educators can contribute to language development.

Additionally, teachers can involve ER activities in their lesson plans by structuring them in a way that increases time efficiency (Grabe, 2009). To illustrate this, Bell (2001) suggests that short assignments including articles related to students' preferences can be added into homework lists or classwork activities. This approach offers students the chance to practice English while also improving their content knowledge. Furthermore, combining ER with other language skills activities, such as vocabulary exercises or group discussions related to readings, can make efficient use of class time and make sure that language learning is integrated into the academic content (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989).

Moreover, online resources can offer a solution by providing flexible, time-efficient platforms for extensive reading (ER). According to Schunk, Pintrich, and Meece (2008), digital tools like online reading platforms or e-books can be effective in EMI settings since students might have different levels of language proficiency and access to resources. Also, digital libraries and reading apps provide learners with easy access to a large variety of materials, making it more appropriate to engage in extensive reading out of the classroom (Ro & Kim, 2022). Therefore, incorporating different and engaging formats, including digital texts or audiobooks, can address students' different learning preferences and proficiency levels, which thus makes ER exercises more attractive and engaging (Stockwell, 2010; Macalister, 2008).

2.3. Relationship between Differentiated Instruction and Extensive Reading

Differentiated instruction (DI) and extensive reading (ER) are two significant, efficient pedagogical approaches that contribute to one another by addressing different learner needs and increasing language development at the same time. Tomlinson (2014) states that DI makes ER more effective by providing learners with the opportunity to access materials that match their proficiency levels, interests, preferences, and learner profiles. Krashen (2004) supports the idea that when students are given texts that are easy to understand but moderately difficult, they tend to engage in continuous reading, which is highly important for language development. In DI, adaptation of reading materials to meet individual needs guarantees that learners are neither overwhelmed nor bored, which supports their progress, motivation, and reading outcomes (Guthrie, Wigfield, & You, 2012). Furthermore, according to Gardner (2006), DI strategies support ER by providing a variety of texts in different formats, including audiobooks,

digital texts, or novels, which in turn contributes to different learning styles. Research by Day and Bamford (2002) suggests that when students are allowed to choose their own text to read according to their interests and needs, they are more likely to feel involved in the material, and this improves their overall reading skills. This is because, according to Deci and Ryan (2000), student choice is a primary part of DI as it supports autonomy and motivation. Additionally, when students read materials that match their proficiency level, they experience less frustration and more success, which causes an increase in their confidence and enjoyment of reading (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006).

In addition, ER makes it possible for teachers to group flexibly as they can implement peer-assisted reading strategies, guided reading sessions, and independent reading tasks in accordance with students' skill levels (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). Research suggests that when learners engage in collaborative reading tasks including literature circles, they show a higher level of thinking skills and feel more involved in tasks, which contributes to the goals of both DI and ER (Daniels, 2001).

On the other hand, DI addresses the issue that students may lose motivation when they find texts too difficult or uninteresting. It guarantees that students can find materials that match their differences and proficiency levels, which increases their motivation and engagement (Heacox, 2012). According to Gambrell (2011), it is indicated that students who deal with self-selected reading activity in a differentiated curriculum experience higher intrinsic motivation for reading. In addition, DI strategies help close the gap between the readers who are low achievers and those who are high achievers, as DI provides learners with appropriate content and material for their level (Parsons, Nuland & Parsons, 2014). Studies have also shown that when students are given appropriate materials specialized for their abilities, they experience a lower level of anxiety and a higher level of self-efficacy, which increases reading comprehension (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006). Therefore, by involving ER in a differentiated framework, teachers can plan a more comprehensive reading environment where students feel confident to take control of their learning process (Hirsch, 2006). This integration creates an active and adaptive learning environment that supports language acquisition by being both effective and engaging for all students with different needs and preferences, regardless of their learning styles or starting point (Tomlinson, 2017; Day et al., 1998).

2.3.1. Examples of Differentiated Reading Activities in Language Education

Differentiated extensive reading can be implemented practically in ELT classrooms in the following ways:

Reader-Response Journals: Students can discuss what they have read, share their thoughts, and relate the content of the text to their own life, which supports their creativity. (Takase, 2007).

Peer Discussions: Book clubs or small group discussions give learners a chance to share thoughts and perspectives, which thus improves collaborative learning and critical thinking (Grabe & Stoller, 2011).

Project-Based Reading: Students can engage in projects including creating stories, designing book covers, or preparing presentations related to their readings, which facilitates different learning styles and improves engagement with texts (Nuttall, 2005).

Gamified Reading Challenges: Applications or digital platforms can motivate learners by providing them with the opportunity to set reading goals and earn rewards, and they support individualized pacing (Klimova & Zamborova, 2020).

2.4. The Role of Reading Self-Efficacy in EFL/ELT Contexts

Reading self-efficacy, according to Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, represents the learner's confidence in their reading task accomplishment abilities. Self-efficacy stands as a crucial factor in EFL learning because it affects student motivation and reading achievement and strategy application (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007).

Students in EFL learning environments face linguistic and cognitive obstacles, yet self-efficacy acts as an anxiety and disengagement protection mechanism, according to Yogurtcu (2013). Research indicates that EFL students who possess strong reading self-efficacy tend to use metacognitive strategies and maintain their efforts through challenging texts while achieving better comprehension results (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010).

Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010) specifically developed the EFL Learners' Reading Self-Efficacy Scale, which has been widely used to measure reading-specific self-beliefs in

foreign language contexts. Their study (2010) showed that self-efficacy beliefs were a significant predictor of reading comprehension outcomes for EFL learners, even when controlling for general language proficiency.

Additionally, the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs in reading and student engagement with texts, reading material selection, and comprehension regulation has been established by Schunk and Zimmerman (2006). The connection between reading instruction and student confidence in reading abilities has been highlighted in research on extensive reading (ER) and learner autonomy (Yamashita, 2004; Takase, 2007).

Studies conducted in Turkish EFL environments have also confirmed the significance of reading self-efficacy. The research by Okyar (2021) showed that students in university preparatory classes who had stronger reading self-efficacy used more effective reading strategies and achieved better results in reading assessments. The research by Erten and Burden (2014) showed that students who received scaffolded instruction and experienced success demonstrated improved reading task engagement and performance.

Research has investigated how instructional approaches, including differentiated instruction and technology-enhanced reading, help students develop reading self-efficacy. Altay and Altay (2017) discovered that digital reading platforms that match learners' interests and proficiency levels lead to substantial improvements in both self-efficacy and comprehension.

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology employed to explore the effects of differentiated extensive reading on students' reading self-efficacy and reading achievement in an English Medium Instruction (EMI) preparatory program. The research design used a mixed-methods quasi-experimental approach that integrated both quantitative and qualitative methods. The research collected quantitative data through pre- and post-tests alongside semi-structured interviews that generated qualitative student perception data. This chapter outlines the research design, participants, instructional procedures, data collection tools, and data analysis methods used in the study.

3.1. Research Design

This study used a mixed-methods approach combining qualitative and quantitative research methods to give a complete picture of how differentiated instruction (DI) affected the reading self-efficacy and reading performance of the students. Because it gains from the strengths of each method, mixed-methods research provides a more whole knowledge of research questions and combines both qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collecting and analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). This study specifically applied a mixed-methods approach as it uses qualitative data to complement quantitative results; thus, it offers a more complete picture of the research issue (Creswell, 2012).

The primary aim of this study is to explore the effect of differentiated extensive reading (ER) practices in English Medium Instruction (EMI) preparatory classes. To achieve this, summative evaluation was employed. The summative evaluation consisted of a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design including one-on-one semi-structured interviews with students to examine their experiences closely. As Creswell (2012) highlights, qualitative data has a key role in reflecting the personal experiences of

participants, while quantitative data offers concrete, measurable evidence regarding the impact of the intervention.

The study used a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design with two B1-level classes from the preparatory school of a private university. These classes served as the experimental and control groups of the study. Both groups received the pre-/post-reading achievement test and Reading Self-Efficacy Scale. Table 1 shows the research questions, data collection instruments, and data analysis of the study.

Table 1. Overall Design Of The Study

Research Question	Participants	Data Collection Instruments	Data Analysis
1. To what extent does differentiated extensive reading influence students' reading self-efficacy in EMI preparatory schools?	Students in both experimental and control group	Reading Self-Efficacy Scale	Paired samples t-test, Independent samples t-test
2. To what extent does differentiated extensive reading impact students' reading achievement in EMI preparatory programs?	Students in both experimental and control group	Reading Achievement Test	Paired samples t-test, Independent samples t-test
3. What are the perceptions of students regarding differentiated extensive reading instruction?	7 students from the experimental group	Semi-structured interview	Descriptive analysis

3.2. Data Collection Procedures

At the beginning of the academic term, students were placed into classes based on the results of a university-administered placement test. Students scoring between 70 and 90 on this test were placed in advanced-level classes. The study was conducted with students from these advanced-level classes. The participants were randomly assigned to different classes by the institution, and the research was carried out in two of these classes—one serving as the experimental group and the other as the control group.

Prior to the data collection process, all participants were informed about the researcher's background information, the purpose of the study, and the procedures involved in data collection (see Appendix 1 & 2). This information was shared to ensure transparency and to collect informed consent. Students were asked to read the details and complete a consent form before taking part in the intervention, tests, and interviews. They also provided basic demographic information such as gender, age, nationality, and department (Appendix 3).

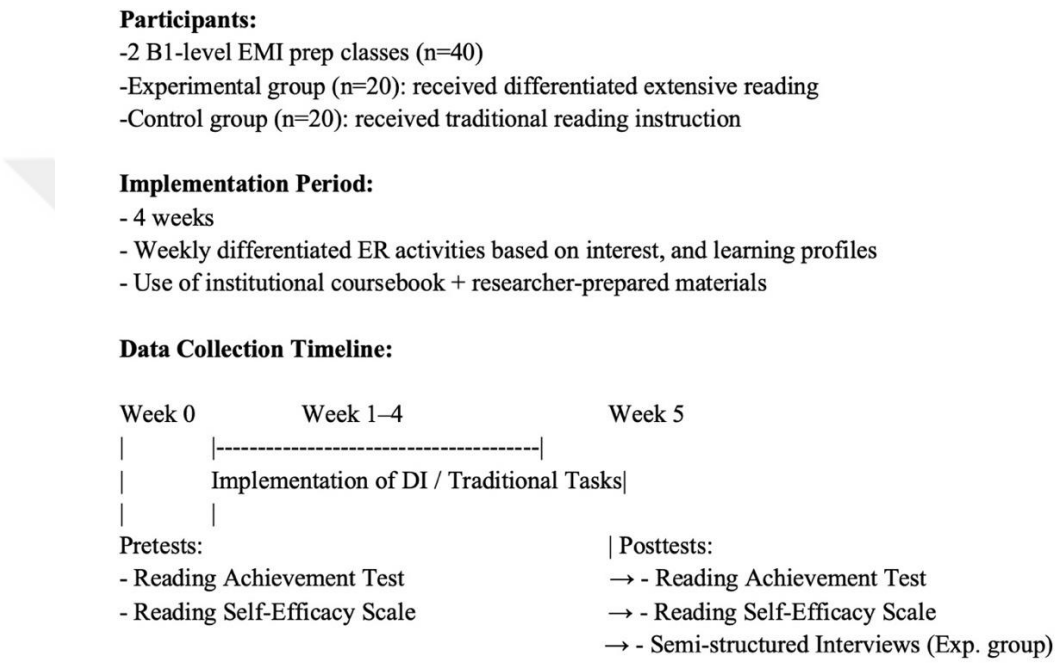
Data collection took place over a six-week period. In the week before the intervention, both the reading self-efficacy scale and the reading achievement test were administered to all participants as pre-tests. This was followed by a four-week intervention phase during which the experimental group received instruction through differentiated extensive reading practices, while the control group continued with regular, traditional reading instruction. Target reading sections found in every unit of the coursebook laid the groundwork for the intervention. Under the framework of differentiated instruction (DI), the experimental group interacted with these materials, including different levels of reading texts and tasks depending on students' interests, needs, and learning profiles. By means of the same materials but without variation, the control group adopted a more conventional, one-size-fits-all method of reading instruction. In the week following the intervention, the same reading self-efficacy scale and reading achievement test were administered as post-tests to both groups.

After the implementation was finished, seven members of the experimental group participated in semi-structured interviews. In order to represent a wide range of experiences, skill levels, and attitudes toward reading, participants were chosen using

maximum variation sampling. The purpose of these interviews was to learn how students felt about differentiated reading practices, as well as the advantages they encountered.

The overall design of the study, including the sequence of procedures, instruments, and participant groups, is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Overview Of The Study Design



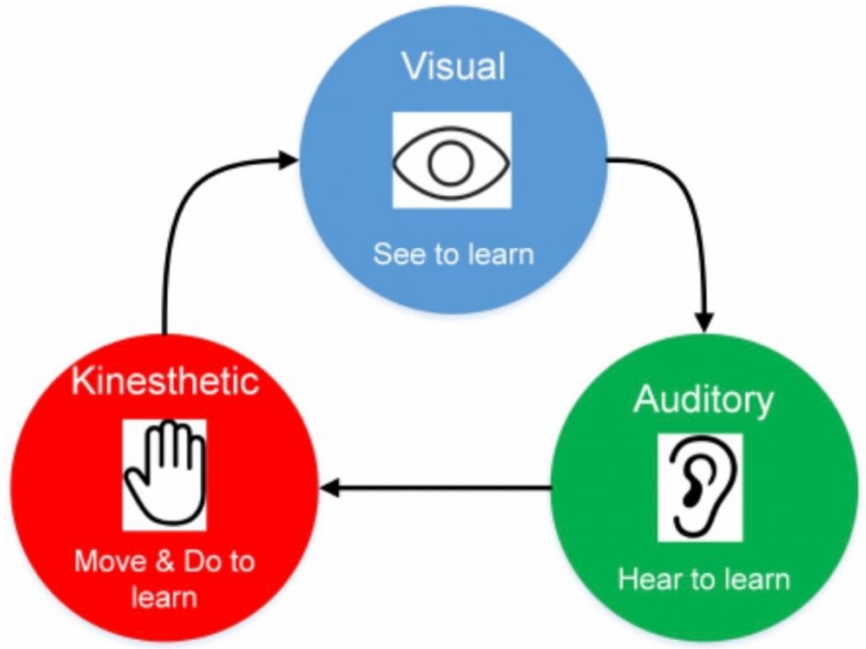
3.3. Instructional Design

The instructional design process for this study was developed around the application of differentiated extensive reading (ER) practices in English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) preparatory classes at the B1+ level. One 45-minute session every week made up the four-week course of treatment. In order to promote changes in reading self-efficacy and reading achievement, the intervention aimed to apply differentiation strategies to support learners' varied needs.

Data on students' individual profiles was gathered first to guide instructional decisions. Participants in the experimental group received the *VAK (visual, auditory, kinesthetic) Learning Styles Questionnaire* created by Chislett and Chapman (2005; Appendix 4),

which distinguishes students as visual, auditory, or kinesthetic depending on their preferences, during the first week of the module. Figure 3 shows the simple modeling of VAK learning styles.

Figure 3. VAK Learning Styles Model



Source: Moubayed et al., 2018

There are thirty items on the questionnaire, three response choices for each one of the three modalities. The findings exposed a diverse range of learning styles within the group, which directly informed the preparation of reading assignments addressing these preferences through various forms of content delivery (e.g., visuals for visual learners, discussions for auditory learners, and hands-on tasks for kinesthetic learners). Considering the results of the VAK Questionnaire, there were 9 kinesthetic, 6 auditory, and 5 visual learners in the experimental group. Apart from their learning preferences, the students' interests were considered using an interest inventory created by Heacox (2012; Appendix 5), which included 26 questions. Following the administration of the inventory, the researcher teacher examined the responses to determine the participants'

interests and adapted the activities accordingly. Since all of the students were B1+ level EFL learners who were placed in the class according to their performance on the previous level accomplishment test, their readiness could not be considered during the analysis phase.

Table 2. Overview of the Weekly Intervention Process with Differentiated Instruction Strategies

Week	Differentiated Instruction Strategy	Task Description
1	Learning Centers (based on learning preferences: visual, auditory, kinesthetic)	Group tasks based on visual, auditory, and kinesthetic styles; students created final products.
2	Interest-Based Grouping	Students analyzed readings on homeopathy and robotics using interest-specific worksheets.
3	Interest-Based Grouping and Technology Integrated DI	Students selected water-related issues to explore, took notes, and discussed possible solutions.
4	Scaffolding Differentiation	Reading on global healthcare systems supported by visuals, vocabulary aids, and peer activities.

3.3.1. Weekly Intervention Process

Week 1: For the first week of the intervention, the learning centers strategy was implemented to address students' diverse learning preferences. Learning centers are emphasized as one of the most popular DI strategies (Fox & Hoffman, 2011; Gregory & Chapman, 2013; Heacox, 2012; Tomlinson, 2017). The aim of the lesson was to make students infer the advantages and disadvantages of distance learning versus face-to-face learning. The class was divided into three small groups based on their preferred learning styles: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic. Each center featured a differentiated extensive reading (DER) activity tailored to these styles. The visual group engaged in

a graphic organizer task to identify and compare pros and cons using evidence from the text (Appendix 6). Then they were asked to write some keywords for related icons about face-to-face and distance learning in the exercise sheet (Appendix 7). The auditory group role played a dialogue provided by the teacher (Appendix 8), as it was aimed to expose the group to hear what was written about the content in the dialogue form. Then the group was asked to summarize key arguments and discuss their inferences in pairs. The kinesthetic group participated in a short debate activity. They were asked to use role cards provided by the teacher (Appendix 9), and were first expected to understand what to argue and then debate about their positions. Each group then created a product (poster, podcast, or role-play) to demonstrate their understanding of the topic.

Week 2: The primary differentiated instruction technique for the second week was interest-based grouping, which is another important DI strategy. Through interest projects and self-directed inquiry, students can show what they have learned (Tomlinson, 2001). With this method, students were able to interact with the reading materials from viewpoints that matched their own interests, whether those were in the arts, sports, politics, business, or science (Appendix 10). The reading texts on homeopathy and robotics were analyzed by each group using a worksheet that was specifically designed for their chosen topic. At the end of their reading, they were asked to answer some questions and do the task on their worksheets. By relating academic material to situations that are relevant to students' interests, this approach aimed to improve their understanding, increase their level of participation, and promote profound conversations.

Week 3: The intervention's third week's theme, which was water-related difficulties, prompted students to consider potential answers to these worldwide problems. Differentiation by interest and technology-integrated DI strategy were chosen as the main teaching techniques in order to accommodate the wide range of interests of the students. According to Hall et al. (2012), with the use of digital platforms, educators may assign tasks that are tailored to the needs of each student, provide interactive feedback, and promote self-directed learning. In this session, a variety of water-related problems, such as water scarcity, pollution, droughts, access to clean water, and creative technical solutions, were covered in the extensive reading resources. Students

were directed to search for water-related problems according to their interests. The chance to select readings that most closely matched their individual interests or curiosities was granted to the students. They were free to choose the type of text, such as an infographic, short stories, or dialogues, by using their mobile phones, tablets, and laptops, and they were also allowed to choose the topic that they wanted to learn about. After selecting readings that matched their personal interests, students used digital tools to annotate texts, take notes, or create visual representations of key ideas. Some took notes, drew pictures, and wrote down some key words or slogans to interact with the texts at their own pace. In their groups, students discussed the issues, proposed solutions, and co-created digital outputs such as infographics, video presentations, or podcasts using tools like Canva, Flip, or Jamboard. These digital products were shared with the class via an online board. This strategy aimed to increase learner autonomy, facilitate meaningful collaboration, and strengthen digital literacy while supporting deeper engagement with the extensive reading texts. (See sample student products, Appendix 11.)

Week 4: In the fourth week of the intervention, the differentiated extensive reading (DER) lesson was conducted on the topic of healthcare systems. The scaffolding differentiation method was applied to accommodate students' varying proficiency levels and support their understanding of complex texts. Scaffolding is the process of providing short-term support to students in order to help them develop their knowledge or skills. This support gradually decreases as students become more independent (Vygotsky, 1978; Hammond, 2001).

The lesson was initiated with a warm-up question projected on the board: *"If you were the president, how would you organize healthcare in your country?"* A few student responses were obtained to activate prior knowledge. Following this, an infographic comparing global healthcare models was presented (Appendix 12). Students were encouraged to predict the content of the reading materials based on the visual cues provided.

Important concepts with definitions were provided, including burden, consultation, treatment, and accessibility. After that, the students had access to reading texts, including infographics and articles about healthcare systems across different nations (Appendix 13). Students could select a country and access the article about the

healthcare system of the country via this website. Students were led through scanning and skimming exercises to pinpoint key terms and concepts during the reading phase. A selected healthcare model was summarized by one student in a pair activity, while the other student posed comprehension questions.

Students then completed a brief reflection exercise in which they were asked to write the type of healthcare system, strengths, and weaknesses of the country that they were interested to read about. The worksheet was provided by the teacher (Appendix 14). To guarantee that every student could effectively connect with the subject and enhance their reading comprehension, support was continuously given throughout the class through the use of vocabulary aids, supervised peer interaction, and focused questioning.

3.3.2. Development of the Materials

The extensive reading materials used in the intervention were custom-designed to align with the weekly instructional goals and differentiation strategies. To ensure the texts were level-appropriate, engaging, and relevant to students' interests and learning preferences, OpenAI's ChatGPT was utilized as a generative tool in the material development process.

Prompts were crafted to produce reading passages on topics such as distance vs. face-to-face learning, homeopathy, and robotics. The generated texts were then reviewed, edited for clarity and language level (suitable for high B1 learners), and formatted into worksheets or center-based tasks. Visual aids, role cards, dialogues, and discussion prompts were also created or adapted with the help of ChatGPT to support differentiated instruction.

This approach allowed for the rapid creation of diverse, flexible, and extensive reading materials tailored to the needs of the specific student group and aligned with the aims of each weekly lesson.

3.4. Mixed-Methods Research

The research method of mixed methods research (MMR) unites qualitative and quantitative data collection, analysis, and interpretation within one study to achieve

comprehensive understanding of research topics (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The fundamental principle of this approach rests on the understanding that educational events cannot be fully represented by either quantitative or qualitative methods alone (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Combining these techniques instead lets researchers use the advantages of each while minimizing their individual constraints.

Mixed methods research originated in the pragmatic paradigm, which stresses methodological pluralism and practical answers to real-world problems. Rather than strictly following a single methodological tradition, this viewpoint supports the application of "what works" in answering research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). MMR is therefore especially suited for applied fields like education, where the complexity of classroom dynamics and learner outcomes usually calls for both numerical evidence and contextual interpretation.

Mixed methods research—defined by Creswell and Plano Clark (2023) as research in which the investigator gathers and examines data, combines the results, and, in a single study or program of inquiry, makes inferences using both qualitative and quantitative techniques or approaches. Among MMR's several basic designs, they name convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential, and embedded design.

Adopting a convergent parallel design—also known as triangulation design in previous literature—quantitative and qualitative data were gathered concurrently, analyzed separately, and then combined for interpretation in this work. This design lets one compare and validate results from both strands and offers a richer, confirmed knowledge of the educational intervention under investigation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2023; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989).

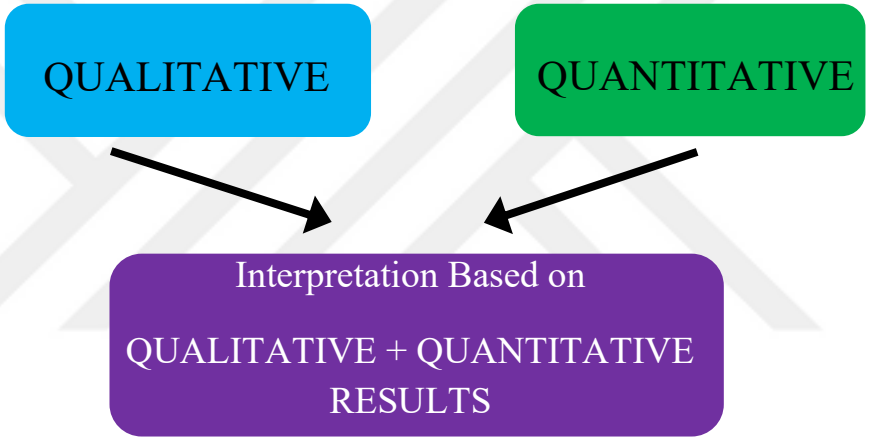
Using mixed methods in this study served two purposes: first, to qualitatively investigate students' impressions and experiences of an instructional intervention (by pre-post testing); second, to quantitatively evaluate the effectiveness of that intervention.

The mixed methods approach has become rather well-known in educational research as efficient for answering challenging research questions involving both outcomes and

processes (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006; Greene, 2007). This study, which aimed to investigate not only the observable effects of a differentiated reading intervention but also the lived experiences and contextual elements influencing that impact, was therefore especially suited.

Finally, this study properly combined the quantitative and qualitative data using a concurrent triangulation design—as shown in Figure 4. Under this method, both types of data are gathered concurrently, investigated separately, and then combined to support conclusions and present a whole picture of the study issue (Creswell, 2009). Creswell' (2009) depiction of the triangulation of the data can be seen in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Concurrent Triangulation Design



Source: Creswell, 2009

3.5. Participants

40 advanced-level English medium instruction (EMI) students registered in departments at the preparatory school of a foundation university in Istanbul participated in this study. They were assigned to a B1-level classroom as a result of institutional English proficiency exams that were done before the semester. Two groups made out of the sample were an experimental group (n = 20) and a control group (n = 20). The participants were selected using convenience sampling. The study took place during the spring semester of the 2024–2025 academic year.

The control group consisted of 3 male and 17 female students. In terms of age, 6 were 18 years old, 6 were 19, 4 were 20, 3 were 21, and 1 was 24 years old. The group included 18 Turkish students, 1 Palestinian student, and 1 Algerian student. Their

academic departments varied: International Relations (1), Psychology (4), Nursing (1), Pharmacy (1), Management Information Systems (1), Chemistry (2), Software Engineering (2), New Media and Communication (1), Biomedical Engineering (1), Industrial Systems Engineering (3), Computer Engineering (2), and Molecular Biology and Genetics (1).

The experimental group consisted of 9 male and 11 female students. Among them, 5 were 18 years old, 8 were 19, 5 were 20, and 2 were 21. Nineteen were Turkish students, and 1 was a Palestinian student. Their departments included New Media and Communication (1), Industrial Systems Engineering (2), Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation (1), Psychology (2), Chemistry (2), Mathematics (1), Mechanical Engineering (1), Biomedical Engineering (2), International Trade and Business (2), Molecular Biology and Genetics (2), Electrical and Electronics Engineering (1), Management Information Systems (1), Digital Game Design (1), and Economics (1).

Table 3 below shows the demographic distribution of the participants in terms of gender, age, and nationality:

Table 3. Demographic Characteristics of Participants by Group

Demographic Variable	Category	Control Group (n = 20)	Experimental Group (n = 20)
Gender	Female	17 (85%)	11 (55%)
	Male	3 (15%)	9 (45%)
Age	18	6 (30%)	5 (25%)
	19	6 (30%)	8 (40%)
	20	4 (20%)	5 (25%)
	21	3 (15%)	2 (10%)
	24	1 (5%)	0 (0%)
Nationality	Turkish	18 (90%)	19 (95%)
	Palestinian	1 (5%)	1 (5%)
	Algerian	1 (5%)	0 (0%)

In terms of age, most of the students were between the ages of 18 and 21. One student in the control group was aged 24. As for nationality, the majority of participants were Turkish in both groups.

In addition to demographic variables, the distribution of the participants across academic departments is presented in Table 4:

Table 4. The distribution of the participants across academic departments

Department	Control Group (n = 20)	Experimental Group (n = 20)
International Relations	1 (5%)	0 (0%)
Psychology	4 (20%)	2 (10%)
Nursing	1 (5%)	0 (0%)
Pharmacy	1 (5%)	0 (0%)
Management Information Systems (MIS)	1 (5%)	1 (5%)
Chemistry	2 (10%)	2 (10%)
Software Engineering	2 (10%)	0 (0%)
New Media and Communication	1 (5%)	1 (5%)
Biomedical Engineering	1 (5%)	2 (10%)
Industrial Systems Engineering	3 (15%)	2 (10%)
Computer Engineering	2 (10%)	0 (0%)
Molecular Biology and Genetics	1 (5%)	2 (10%)
Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Mathematics	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Mechanical Engineering	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
International Trade and Business	0 (0%)	2 (10%)

Electrical and Electronics Engineering	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Digital Game Design	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Economics	0 (0%)	1 (5%)

Table 4 shows the participants' wide spectrum of academic fields—engineering, health sciences, business, and social sciences, among others. In the framework of advanced-level English learners at the university, this variety helped the results to be generally applicable.

Regarding the semi-structured interviewees, 7 students from the experimental group were selected by following the maximum variation sampling technique. The interview participants included 4 female students and 3 male students. The selection process for participants included students who achieved various levels of reading achievement and reading self-efficacy based on their post-test scores. The experimental group students achieved a mean reading achievement score of 5.25 and a mean reading self-efficacy score of 3.46. The selection of students included participants from all performance levels, including lower, middle, and upper bounds. The selection process included students who scored both low and high on the measures as well as students who scored near the group average. The research aimed to understand how students with different outcomes experienced the differentiated extensive reading (DER) process. Detailed demographic information about the interviewees is presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Characteristics of the Semi-Structured Interviewees

Participants	Age	Gender	Nationality	Department
S1	18	Female	Turkish	New media and communication
S2	18	Male	Turkish	Electrical and electronic engineering
S3	18	Male	Turkish	Economics
S4	20	Female	Turkish	Nursing
S5	19	Female	Turkish	Chemistry

S6	19	Male	Turkish	Software engineer
S7	21	Female	Turkish	Psychology

3.6. Data Collection Instruments

This mixed-methods study combined qualitative and quantitative data-collecting tools in order to completely understand the research questions. Quantitative data were gathered using a self-efficacy scale and a reading achievement test, while qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews.

3.6.1. EFL Learners' Reading Self-Efficacy Scale

The participants' perceived effectiveness in reading comprehension was assessed using the EFL Learners' Self-Efficacy Scale in Reading Comprehension (Appendix 15), which was developed by Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010). This scale was developed specifically for students learning English as a foreign language and is based on several important instruments used in research on self-efficacy. The authors state that the Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (Jinks & Morgan, 1999), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1988), and the Persian Adaptation of the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1996) served as the foundation for the scale's development. According to Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010), in order to ensure face and content validity, the scale's first version underwent strict procedures.

The scale consists of 11 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). Its purpose is to measure students' perceptions of their own ability to comprehend and perform well on reading assignments. Sample items include statements such as "I believe that my English reading comprehension proficiency improves every day."

The scale used in this study was found to have adequate internal consistency. The scale's Cronbach's alpha coefficient is determined to be from .494 to .716 when analyzed within different groups, including pre-test, post-tests, experimental, and control groups, which showed adequate reliability for use with advanced-level EFL

learners. In order to analyze any changes in learners' reading self-efficacy after the differentiated extensive reading intervention, this instrument was given to all participants in the experimental and control groups at the pre-test and post-test stages.

3.6.2. Reading Achievement Test

Examining students' reading comprehension performance, a standardized reading text—more especially, Test 113, Passage 2, "Changes in Reading Habits"—was chosen from the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) academic exam (see Appendix 16).

The chosen passage features a variety of question types meant to assess different reading abilities, including skimming, scanning, main idea recognition, and comprehension of particular facts. For this reading section, the highest score allowed was 13. The time given to take the actual test was 40 minutes. For consistency in assessing improvement in reading comprehension, the same section was used for both the pre-test and the post-test.

It can be argued that an IELTS reading passage guarantees that the work is level-appropriate for advanced preparatory students and reflects actual academic reading expectations.

3.7. Data Analysis

3.7.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

The research used a mixed methods approach, which combined quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods to understand the effects of the differentiated extensive reading intervention. The researcher employed IBM SPSS Statistics version 26.0 for the quantitative data analysis. The dataset for normality was checked before running inferential tests to decide if parametric procedures were suitable. The evaluation of normality involved checking Skewness and Kurtosis values, and comparing mean, median, and mode values, according to Büyüköztürk (2016). The Shapiro–Wilk test served as a statistical tool to determine normal distribution when the p-value exceeded .05. The evaluations received support from Table 6, which displayed descriptive statistics, including Skewness and Kurtosis values for the

dependent variables: pre- and post-test scores for both reading achievement (RA) and reading self-efficacy (RSE).

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics and Normality Indicators for RA and RSE Scores

		Pre-Ra	Post-Ra	Pre-Rse-Total	Post-Rse-Total
N	Valid	40	40	40	40
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.10	5.10	36.55	36.92
Mode		3	5	35	36
Std. Deviat.		1.646	1.997	4.883	4.827
Skewness		.232	-.384	-.338	-.329
Std. Error Of Skewness		.374	.374	.374	.374
Kurtosis		.868	-.304	-.486	-.098
Std. Error Of Kurtosis		.733	.733	.733	.733
Minimum		0	2	25	25
Maximum		8	10	44	45

The skewness values in Table 6 spanned from -.338 to .384 while kurtosis values spanned from -.486 to .868 and all values remained within the ±1.5 acceptable range (George & Mallery, 2010). The data distribution was confirmed as normal through both visual inspection and Shapiro–Wilk test results and the skewness and kurtosis values. The data met the requirements for parametric tests to proceed with further analysis.

A 2 × 2 mixed-design ANOVA was used to determine if there were statistically significant changes in reading achievement and reading self-efficacy across groups and time. This test allows for the analysis of within-subjects effects (i.e., time),

between-subjects effects (i.e., group), and their interaction. The interaction effect is particularly important, as it indicates whether the amount of change over time differs significantly between the experimental and control groups (Büyüköztürk, 2021; Howitt & Cramer, 2011). All assumptions for mixed ANOVA were tested. These included (a) normal distribution (Shapiro–Wilk test), (b) homogeneity of variance (Levene's test), and (c) sphericity for repeated measures (Mauchly's test). Meeting these assumptions confirmed the appropriateness of the mixed ANOVA for this dataset.

3.7.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis in this study employed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase theme analysis approach to identify, analyze, and interpret significant patterns in the interview data. The first step in the process was familiarization with the data, which required reading the transcripts several times to fully understand the information and noting down initial thoughts. The generation of initial codes, which involved methodically labeling significant data features throughout the entire dataset, came next. By grouping related codes into possible themes, the coded data was examined in the third phase, "searching for themes," to find more general patterns of meaning. Reviewing themes was the fourth phase, which needed them to be refined and validated by comparing them to the coded extracts and the complete dataset to make sure they were relevant and coherent. Each theme was then precisely defined, given a name, and further developed to summarize the core of the data it represented during the defining and naming themes phase. Lastly, the writing of the report process entailed connecting the findings to the research questions and body of existing literature while tying the themes together using illustrative data extracts. A thorough and reliable examination of the experiences and viewpoints of participants was made possible by this exacting and adaptable framework.

4. RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the current study in line with the research questions. Pretest and posttest analyses were used to evaluate the impact of Differentiated Extensive Reading (DER) practices on students' reading achievement and reading self-efficacy. It shows the summative evaluation of the instructional intervention. In this regard, the chapter first presents quantitative results that concern the effects of DER on reading achievement and reading self-efficacy. These results are followed by qualitative findings derived from student interviews. The qualitative findings offer additional information about learners' experiences and perceptions of the DER-based reading instruction.

4.1. Quantitative Findings

This chapter focuses specifically on the quantitative results, which were taken from pre- and post-test comparisons between experimental and control groups.

4.1.1. Reading Achievement Test Results

To examine the effect of the intervention on reading achievement scores, a 2 (experimental group, control group) × 2 (time: pre, post) mixed-design analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using SPSS.

Normality was assessed using the Shapiro–Wilk test. All scores were normally distributed (ps > .05), except for the pre-test condition in the control group, $W = 0.90$, $p = .042$. Considering the effect of ANOVA on moderate deviations from normality, the analysis was conducted as stated.

Levene's test of equality of variances was nonsignificant at pre-test, $F(1, 38) = .600$, $p = .443$. It indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met. However, the test was significant at post-test, $F(1, 38) = 8.445$, $p = .006$. It displays a

violation of the assumption. Given that the sample sizes were approximately equal and small, the analysis was conducted.

Descriptive statistics for reading achievement scores are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Achievement Scores by Group and Time

Group	Pre-Test			Post-Test		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Experimental	20	4.30	1.93	20	5.25	2.47
Control	20	3.90	1.33	20	4.95	1.43

As can be seen in Table 7, at pre-test, the experimental group (M = 4.30, SD = 1.93) and control group (M = 3.90, SD = 1.33) demonstrated comparable levels of reading achievement. At post-test, the experimental group (M = 5.25, SD = 2.47) scored higher than the control group (M = 4.95, SD = 1.43). There was a significant main effect of time, $F(1, 38) = 7.04$, $p = .012$, $\eta^2_p = 156$. It indicates that reading achievement scores increased from pre- to post-test across both groups. The main effect of the group was not significant, $F(1, 38) = .62$, $p = .43$, $\eta^2_p = .016$. The interaction between time and group was also not significant, $F(1, 38) = .018$, $p = .895$, $\eta^2_p = .016$. This suggests that changes over time did not differ between the experimental and control groups. The ANOVA summary for reading achievement is presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Mixed-Design ANOVA Results for Reading Achievement Test

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.	η^2
Between-Subjects	153.2	39				
Group	2.45	1	2.45	.618	.437	.016
Error	150.75	38	3.967			
Within-Subjects	128	40				

Measure (Pre-post Tests)	20	1	20	7.04	0.12	.156
Group * Measure	.05	1	.05	.018	.895	.000
Error	107.95	38	2.841			
Total	281.2	79				

4.1.2. Reading Self-Efficacy Scale Results

A second 2 (Group: Experimental, Control) × 2 (Time: Pre, Post) mixed-design ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effect of the intervention on reading self-efficacy.

The assumption of normality was met for all time points. Levene's test indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met in both pre-reading assessment scores and post-reading assessment scores. Descriptive statistics for reading self-efficacy scores are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Self-Efficacy by Group and Time

Group	**Pre-Test**			**Post-Test**		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Experimental	20	3.36	.48	20	3.46	.47
Control	20	3.28	.41	20	3.25	.39

As can be seen in Table 9, at pre-test, the experimental group (M = 3.36, SD = .48) and control group (M = 3.28, SD = .41) reported similar levels of self-efficacy. At post-test, the experimental group (M = 3.46, SD = .47) reported similar self-efficacy compared to the control group (M = 3.25, SD = .39).

There was not a significant main effect of time, $F(1, 38) = .503$, $p = .483$, $\eta^2_p = .013$. The main effect of group was also not significant, $F(1, 38) = 1.20$, $p = 280$, $\eta^2_p = 031$.

Lastly, interaction between time and group was not significant, $F(1, 38) = 1.63$, $p = .210$, $\eta^2_p = .041$. The ANOVA summary for reading self-efficacy is presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Mixed-Design ANOVA Results for Reading Self-Efficacy

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.	η^2
Between-Subjects	13.355	39				
Group	.410	1	.410	1.203	.280	.031
Error	12.945	38	.341			
Within-Subjects	2,53	40				
Measure (Pre-post Tests)	.023	1	.023	.503	.483	.013
Group * Measure	.075	1	.075	1.629	.210	.041
Error	1.757	38	.046			
Total	15,885	79				

4.2. Qualitative Findings

This section presents the results of the thematic analysis of students' responses to open-ended questions. The aim was to understand how students perceived the Differentiated Extensive Reading (DER) program and what specific elements supported or hindered their engagement and progress in English reading.

Thematic analysis yielded four major themes:

1. Confidence & Autonomy in Reading
2. Accessibility & Engagement
3. Vocabulary Development Through Repetition
4. Collaborative Support for Comprehension

Table 11. Thematic Coding Results of Student Perceptions

Category (Theme)	Code Label	Code Description	Frequency	Percentage
Confidence & Autonomy in Reading	Increased confidence	Feeling more capable, less anxious, more fluent	6	20.7%
	Reduced dependence	Needing less help, using less translation, reading independently	4	13.8%
	Self-perceived improvement	Reporting general progress or skill development	3	10.3%
Accessibility & Engagement	Level-appropriate texts	Texts were not too difficult, suitable for learners' current proficiency	3	10.3%
	Relevant/interesting topics	Topics aligned with students' interests (e.g., sports, tech)	2	6.9%
	Motivation & enjoyment	Reading perceived as enjoyable or less stressful	2	6.9%
Vocabulary Development Through Repetition	Vocabulary improvement	Learning new words or recalling familiar ones through repetition	3	10.3%
	Understanding from context	Learning to infer meaning	2	6.9%

		without translation		
Collaborative Support for Comprehension	Help from group work	Understanding improved by discussing with peers	3	10.3%
	Teacher guidance	Teacher provided support, encouragement, and clarification	1	3.4%

Each theme is outlined below, with corresponding quotes from students.

4.2.1. Theme 1: Confidence & Autonomy in Reading

A dominant theme among student responses was the significant growth in self-confidence and independence in reading. Many students described a shift from feeling anxious or dependent to feeling capable and motivated.

"At the beginning of the semester, I used to feel nervous even looking at a paragraph in English… But with the DER activities, I had regular reading practice… I realized I could finish texts without checking every word or asking for help. That made me believe in my reading ability." – S1

"At the beginning, I felt unsure while reading, but after doing these reading tasks, I feel much more confident and less afraid to read on my own." – S4

"Reading used to be stressful because I always felt behind… I now enjoy reading more because I don't feel embarrassed anymore. It's not a struggle anymore." – S5

Several students also noted a decrease in reliance on tools like translation apps: "*Before, I always needed to translate every word into Turkish… Now, I can read stories and even understand difficult parts from the context. I don't need to rely on Google Translate so much."* – S1

Others gave short but clear statements of improvement:

"Now I can read without worrying about making errors." – S6

"I think my skills improved. Regular practice helped me." – S2

This theme underscores how DER supported students' confidence by providing frequent, successful reading experiences tailored to their levels.

4.2.2. Theme 2: Accessibility & Engagement

Students consistently expressed appreciation for the way DER made reading more manageable and relevant. Several emphasized that the difficulty level of the texts was appropriate and encouraged them to continue reading:

"If a text is too hard, I give up quickly. But in this lesson, the texts had clear topics and not too many difficult words, so I could follow easily and finish them." – S1

"Clearly and short tasks that don't include complex words." – S4

Motivation was also boosted by content that aligned with personal interests: *"The topics were related to things I like, like technology and sports. I felt more motivated for reading because I wanted to learn. It didn't feel like a task. It was more like reading for fun."* – S4

"*Texts related to my interests helped me."* – S4

This theme suggests that differentiated materials that match both level and interest can foster intrinsic motivation and sustained reading engagement.

4.2.3. Theme 3: Vocabulary Development Through Repetition and Context

Another frequently mentioned benefit was vocabulary improvement. Students noticed that DER's repeated exposure to similar words and themes helped them retain new vocabulary more effectively:

"*Knowing new words and their pronunciation is an important part of reading. I am able to do this now. I have improved in this sense."* – S3

"We repeated the same words and topics in different texts, and I think that helped me remember them more. In regular classes, we just read once and move on. But here, with DER, I had a chance to see the same structures again, which helped me to learn them easily." – S7

Some students also became more comfortable with using context clues to understand meaning:

"Now, I can read stories and even understand difficult parts from the context." – S1

"I can finish a reading in one go, and I even remember new words because we read them in different contexts." – S5

This theme confirms the vocabulary-building power of extensive reading, especially when it includes meaningful repetition and contextual exposure.

4.2.4. Theme 4: Collaborative Support for Comprehension

A final theme related to group work and teacher guidance, which were seen as helpful for understanding texts and building trust.

"Group work also helped me understand better." – S7

"The group work was very helpful in terms of trust." – S4

Students appreciated hearing how others interpreted the same texts and learning from peers' perspectives:

"When we discussed the texts in groups, I learned how others understood things. Sometimes I missed something important, but my friend explained it." – S4

The teacher's encouragement was also mentioned:

"Our teacher was always guiding us and encouraging us to try. That support made reading easier and more fun for me." – S4

This theme highlights the social aspect of DER and how structured group discussions, alongside teacher facilitation, contributed to deeper comprehension and positive attitudes.

4.3. Summary of Findings

The analysis of student responses reveals that the DER program was perceived as supportive and effective. Students reported:

- Increased reading confidence and autonomy
- Greater engagement due to accessible and interesting materials

- Improved vocabulary knowledge through repetition and context
- Enhanced understanding through peer and teacher support

These findings provide strong evidence that differentiated extensive reading can positively influence EFL learners' attitudes and skills in an EMI preparatory context

5. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate how students' reading achievement and reading self-efficacy in EMI preparatory classes at a private university in Turkey were affected by differentiated extensive reading (DER) practices. The study's theoretical underpinnings, research design, methodology, and quantitative and qualitative findings were all covered in the preceding chapters. By answering each research question and evaluating the results in the context of the body of current literature, this chapter provides a discussion of the findings. The results chapter's numerical data and tables are not repeated here; rather, the emphasis is on interpreting the results and making comparisons with earlier studies.

5.1. Research Question 1:

To what extent does differentiated extensive reading influence students' reading self-efficacy in EMI preparatory schools?

According to the study's findings, students' reading achievement levels were significantly impacted by time, and both the experimental and control groups saw improvements from the pre-test to the post-test. Nevertheless, neither the group main effect nor the time-group interaction was determined to be significant. This implies that although students' reading proficiency increased over time in general, DER techniques did not cause the experimental group's improvement to be noticeably larger than that of the control group.

This result is somewhat consistent with earlier studies that highlight the benefits of intensive reading for students' reading abilities (Day et al., 1998; Renandya, 2007). Both of the groups showed a higher mean improvement, but the difference was not statistically significant. The brief treatment period or the limited exposure to differentiated reading materials could be one reason for this. Similarly, Yamashita

(2008) discovered that whereas reading widely can improve general reading skills, the effects tend to intensify over time. Thus, a longer treatment duration may be necessary to see quantifiable improvements rather than a lack of efficacy, as suggested by the non-significant result. This corresponds to prior research showing that self-efficacy development often requires longer-term or more targeted interventions (Bandura, 1997; Mills et al., 2007).

Furthermore, the qualitative findings support this interpretation. Differentiated materials, according to the experimental group's students, were more inspiring and gave them the freedom to select texts based on their interests and skill levels. Therefore, their reading confidence and engagement improved. This shows that DER had a significant impact on students' affective and behavioral engagement with reading, even if it did not result in statistically significant gains in achievement in this specific trial.

5.2. Research Question 2:

To what extent does differentiated extensive reading impact students' reading achievement in EMI preparatory programs?

The findings showed that students' reading self-efficacy levels were not significantly impacted by time, group, or interaction. In other words, during the intervention period, DER practices had no measurable effect on students' self-efficacy views on reading. This finding contrasts with studies that suggest that reading resources that are level-appropriate and self-selected can help students feel more competent and independent, which boosts their self-efficacy (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006; Bandura, 1997). However, it is crucial to remember that reading self-efficacy is a multifaceted concept that is influenced by classroom culture, past experiences, and personal beliefs in addition to instructional techniques (Pajares et al., 2006). The fact that self-efficacy did not significantly alter may suggest that the intervention did not last long enough to modify students' ingrained perceptions of their reading skills.

Despite the quantitative results, many students in the experimental group felt that their confidence and reading habits had improved, according to qualitative data. They said they felt more independent and less nervous when they could decide what and how

much to read. The results of Cho and Krashen (2001), who contended that student choice and personalization in reading programs lead to higher motivation and confidence, are in line with this. As a result, although the quantitative data did not reveal any noteworthy impacts, student responses indicated minor shifts in their perspectives that might become more apparent with time or a bigger sample size.

5.3. Research Question 3:

What are the perceptions of EMI prep class students about differentiated extensive reading (DER) practices?

The qualitative results provide valuable information on how students viewed the DER methodology. In general, the experimental group's students had favorable opinions about differentiated extended reading. In contrast to traditional reading habits, students reported feeling more motivated and less under pressure, and they valued the freedom to choose reading materials that matched their interests and skill levels.

Students stressed that by making reading seem less like an academic assignment and more like a personal hobby, DER assisted them in forming a reading habit. This supports the claim put out by Tomlinson (2014) and Heacox (2012) that differentiation improves student engagement by enabling them to acquire content in ways that best fit their needs and preferences.

Students also stated that DER increased their willingness to read in English and helped them control their reading anxiety. Some students said that they felt more successful and willing to read more as they could understand texts more easily. These results are consistent with the Self-Determination Theory of Deci and Ryan (1985), which emphasizes the value of competence and autonomy in promoting intrinsic motivation.

However, few students brought up difficulties, like having trouble selecting relevant materials and needing additional direction on how to track their development. These remarks imply that although DER was well welcomed, extensive preparation, scaffolding, and teacher assistance are necessary for its successful implementation.

6. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate how students in English Medium Instruction (EMI) preparatory programs' reading achievement and reading self-efficacy were affected by Differentiated Extensive Reading (DER) practices. The study, which was based on a mixed-methods, quasi-experimental design, wanted to determine whether using a differentiated extensive reading framework—which provides a variety of reading materials and adaptable tasks according to learners' interests and skill levels—would result in quantifiable gains over traditional extensive reading practices.

The DER intervention did not result in statistically significant changes between the experimental and control groups, according to quantitative data from the reading achievement test and reading self-efficacy measure. Over time, both groups showed comparable levels of growth. It demonstrates that, given the parameters and time frame of this study, differentiated reading practices did not produce a clear benefit in terms of self-reported confidence or reading comprehension test scores.

These quantitative findings, however, do not completely reflect the individualized aspects of students' reading experiences. Semi-structured interviews provided qualitative data that offered important supplementary information. A number of students in the experimental group reported feeling more motivated, enjoying, and engaged with the reading materials. Additionally, some participants said they felt less nervous and more independent, and they valued being in charge of their reading selections and speed. These findings indicate that DER practices could enhance reading engagement through affective and cognitive aspects, although these effects might not appear in traditional assessment methods.

The contrast between qualitative and quantitative results demonstrates why multiple evaluation methods should be used to assess instructional approaches. Reading self-efficacy and achievement result from multiple interconnected factors, which include

emotional engagement, prior experiences, and learning environment. The learner-centered approach of DER creates environments that sustain reading motivation, yet it does not produce immediate noticeable improvements in standardized test results.

In conclusion, the positive learner comments in the qualitative phase suggest that differentiated extensive reading (DER) has instructional value worth further research, even though the statistical results did not support the proposition that DER notably improves reading self-efficacy or achievement. These results underline the need for more thorough research that takes into account both performance outcomes and learner views, and they add to the continuing discussion on the function of differentiated instruction in EFL contexts.

6.1. Implications

The research offers understanding about how individualized Extensive Reading (DER) practices function in EMI preparatory programs based on recent developments in language teaching that emphasize learner-centered and individualized methods. The qualitative findings show that DER maintains educational value because it helps students connect emotionally and cognitively with reading activities, although the quantitative results failed to show significant improvements in reading achievement or self-efficacy scores.

The experimental group members experienced higher satisfaction levels, independence, and reduced anxiety when they read materials that matched their interests and reading abilities. The impressions suggest that DER creates a positive affective environment that supports long-term language development, although it may not immediately affect measurable academic results. The emotional advantages of DER should not be dismissed because language learning in reading becomes increasingly complex. DER supports long-term reading development through motivation, engagement, and learner autonomy because it allows students to make meaningful choices and learn at their own pace.

As a result, language teachers—particularly those employed in EMI settings—might think about adding differentiation components to their reading curricula. Addressing each student's unique needs and preferences can foster a more welcoming, inspiring,

and student-centered classroom environment, even if there aren't any obvious visible improvements in achievement. According to the interviews, these learner experiences demonstrate how DER can serve as a helpful teaching strategy, especially for students who lack confidence or enthusiasm to read.

6.2. Limitations of the Study

This study has several drawbacks that should be noted despite its contributions. First, the research sample consisted of a limited number of students from a Turkish private institution. The study's small sample size might reduce the ability to generalize its findings because it does not represent the full range of students across different institutional settings throughout the nation. A larger and more diverse sample in future research would enhance the understanding of differentiated extensive reading (DER) effects in EMI contexts.

Secondly, the intervention took place a duration of 4 weeks within the school year. The short duration of the intervention period might not have provided enough time to observe the complete impact of DER on student reading development and motivation. Research studies that extend across a semester would provide a better understanding of how these teaching methods affect students in the long run.

The research design combined quantitative data collection methods (reading achievement and self-efficacy) with qualitative interviews but failed to measure other essential reading development aspects. In other words, the research did not explore reading speed, vocabulary acquisition, or critical reading skills because these topics were outside its scope. Also, the research failed to examine the teacher's role in DER implementation through a detailed assessment of their instructional consistency and learner responsiveness. The instructional dynamics between students and teachers could have significantly affected how students experienced and gained from the differentiated reading practices.

6.3. Recommendations for Future Research

The research presents multiple directions for future investigation based on its current findings and constraints. First, future studies should use larger and more diverse

samples that include public school students and students with different English proficiency levels in order to enhance the external validity of the findings. Also, researchers should conduct extended interventions spanning a semester or several semesters to study the enduring effects of DER. Such studies could evaluate if the observed improvements in reading self-efficacy and achievement are maintained over time. Furthermore, future research could investigate how DER impacts students' development of other language skills such as writing ability and vocabulary skills. Research into various reading activities' educational value would become more complete by studying their combined effects on student ability development.

Finally, the research process should include teacher perspectives and classroom observation to better understand implementation procedures and instructional methods' effects on learner engagement. Experimental research that compares different differentiation models based on readiness, interest, and learning profile will help identify the most effective strategies for various learning environments.

REFERENCES

Ainley, M., Hidi, S., & Berndorff, D. (2002). Interest, learning, and the psychological processes that mediate their relationship. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*(3), 545–561. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.94.3.545

Algozzine, B., & Anderson, K. M. (2007). Tips for teaching: Differentiating instruction to include all students: Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, *51*(3), 49-54. https://doi.org/10.3200/PSFL.51.3.49-54

Ally, M. (2004). Foundations of educational theory for online learning. *Theory and Practice of Online Learning.* Athabasca University, Athabasca, 15-44.

Altay, İ.F., & Altay, A. (2017). The impact of online reading tasks and reading strategies on EFL learners' reading test scores. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 13*(2), 136-152.

Anderson, R. C. (1978). Schema-directed processes in language comprehension. In *Cognitive Psychology and Instruction* (pp. 67-82). Boston, MA: Springer US.

Armstrong, T. (2009). *Multiple intelligences in the classroom* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

Ashman, A., & Van Kraayenoord, C. E. (1998). *Guiding inclusive teaching and learning*. Harcourt Brace.

Bamford, J., & Day, R. R. (2004). *Extensive reading activities for teaching language.* Cambridge University Press.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* W H Freeman/Times Books/ Henry Holt & Co.

Baum, S. M., Cooper, C. R., & Neu, T. W. (2001). Dual differentiation: An approach for meeting the curricular needs of gifted students with learning disabilities. *Psychology In The Schools, 38*(5), 477-490.

Beecher, M., & Sweeny, S. M. (2008). Closing the achievement gap with curriculum enrichment and differentiation: One school's story. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, *19*(3), 502–530. https://doi.org/10.4219/jaa-2008-815

Bell, T. (2001). Extensive reading: Speed and comprehension. *The reading matrix*, *1*(1).

Blaz, D. (2013). *Differentiated instruction: A guide for foreign language teachers*. Routledge.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101.

Breen, M. (2014). *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research*. Routledge.

Brighton, C. M., Hertberg, H. L., Moon, T. R., Tomlinson, C. A., & Callahan, C. M. (2005). *The feasibility of high-end learning in a diverse middle school* (RM05210). Storrs: University of Connecticut, The National Research Center on the Gifted and Talented.

Brookhart, S. M. (2017). *How to give effective feedback to your students*. Ascd.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2025). *Principles of language learning and teaching: A course in second language acquisition*. Taylor & Francis.

Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2021). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı [Data analysis handbook for social sciences].* (29th ed.). Pegem.

Cambridge IELTS Academic 13 (2018). *Test 113, Passage 2 – Changes in Reading Habits*. Cambridge University Press.

Chamberlin, M. & Powers, R. (2010) The promise of differentiated instruction for enhancing the mathematical understandings of college students. *Teaching Mathematics and Its Applications, 29*(3), 113-139. 10.1093/teamat/hrq006

Cho, K. S., & Krashen, S. (2001). Sustained silent reading experiences among Korean teachers of English as a forgeign language: The effect of a single exposure to interesting. comprehensible reading. *Reading Improvement*, *38*(4), 170.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (3rd ed.).* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research (4th ed.).* Boston, MA: Pearson.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research.* Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2023). Revisiting mixed methods research designs twenty years later. *Handbook of mixed methods research designs*, *1*(1), 21-36.

Daniels, H. (2001). *Literature circles: Voice and choice in book clubs & reading groups (2nd ed.).* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781032681504

Danzi, J., Reul, K., & Smith, R. (2008). *Improving student motivation in mixed ability classrooms using differentiated instruction* (Master's Dissertation, Chicago, IL: Saint Xavier University & Pearson Achievement Solutions, Inc.).

Day, R. R., Bamford, J., Renandya, W. A., Jacobs, G. M., & Yu, V. W.-S. (1998). Extensive reading in the second language classroom. *RELC Journal, 29*(2), 187-191. https://doi.org/10.1177/003368829802900211

Day, R., & Bamford, J. (2002). Top ten principles for teaching extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 14*(2).

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. Berlin: Springer Science & Business Media. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-2271-7

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The" what" and" why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological inquiry*, *11*(4), 227-268.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. *Educational Forum, 50*, 241-252. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131728609335764

Dixon, F. A., Yssel, N., McConnell, J. M., & Hardin, T. (2014). Differentiated instruction, professional development, and teacher efficacy. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, *37*(2), 111-127.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom* (Vol. 10). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in Second Language acquisition* (1st ed.). Routledge. 10.4324/9781410613349

Doubet, K. J., & Hockett, J. A. (2015). *Differentiation in middle and high school: Strategies to engage all learners*. ASCD.

Dunn, R., & Dunn, K. (1978). *Teaching students through their individual learning styles.* Reston, VA: Reston.

Dunn, R., & Honigsfeld, A. (2009). *Differentiating instruction for at-risk students: What to do and how to do it*. Rowman & Littlefield.

Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The new psychology of cuccess.* New York: Random House Publishing Group.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Erdemir-Sezer, S. (2023). *The investigation of english preparatory classes in terms of differentiated instruction and andragogy*. (Publication No. 832666) [Unpublished Master's Thesis, Hacettepe University]. YÖK National Thesis Center.

Erden, B. & Koçyiğit, S. (2023). The effect of differentiated instructional practices on 5th grade students' reading comprehension and reading motivation. *Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education, 24*(2), 841-868. DOI: 10.17679/inuefd.1148014

Erten, İ. H., & Burden, R. L. (2014). The relationship between academic self-concept, attributions, and L2 achievement. *System*, *42*, 391-401.

Felder, R. M., & Silverman, L. K. (1988). Learning and teaching styles in engineering education. *Engineering Education*, *78*, 674–681.

Fox, J., & Hoffman, W. (2011). *The differentiated instruction book of lists* (6th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Gambrell, L. B. (2011). Seven rules of engagement: What's most important to know about motivation to read. *The Reading Teacher*, *65*(3), 172-178.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: A theory of multiple intelligences.* New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed: Multiple intelligences for the 21st century.* Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (2006). *Multiple intelligences: New horizons* (Rev. ed.). Basic Books/Hachette Book Group.

Gardner, R. & Tremblay, P. (2011). On motivation, research agendas, and theoretical frameworks1. *The Modern Language Journal. 78*. 359 - 368. 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02050.x.

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2010). *SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference, 17.0 update* (10th ed.). Pearson Education.

Ghonsooly, B. and Elahi, M. (2010). Learners' self-efficacy in reading and its relation to foreign language reading anxiety and reading achievement. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, *2*(217), 45-67. http://profdoc.um.ac.ir/articles/a/1020898.pdf

Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Gibson, M. L. (2017). De los derechos humanos: Reimagining civics in bilingual & bicultural settings. *The Social Studies*, *108*(1), 10-21.

Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a Second Language: Moving from theory to practice.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Grabe, W.P., & Stoller, F.L. (2011). *Teaching and researching: Reading (2nd ed.).* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833743

Greene, J. C. (2007**).** *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.

Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation & Policy Analysis, 11*, 255-274. https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737011003255

Gregory, G. H., & Chapman, C. (2013). *Differentiated instructional strategies: One size doesn't fit all* (3rd ed.). Corwin Press.

Guskey, T. R., & Bailey, J. M. (2001). *Developing grading and reporting systems for student learning*. Corwin Press.

Guthrie, J. T., & Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research, 3*, 403-422. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., & You, W. (2012). Instructional contexts for engagement and achievement in reading. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 601–634). Springer Science + Business Media. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7_29

Güven, H. (2023). *The effect of differentiated instruction design on 5th grade students' English reading comprehension skills and affective traits*. (Publication No. 782240) [Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Aydın Adnan Menderes University]. YÖK National Thesis Center.

Hafız, F. M., & Tudor, I. (1989). Extensive reading and the development of language skills, *ELT Journal*, *43*(1), 4–13, https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/43.1.4

Hall, T., Meyer, A., & Rose, D. H. (2012). *Universal design for learning in the classroom; Practical applications.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Hall, T., Strangman, N., & Meyer, A. (2003). Differentiated instruction and implications for UDL implementation. *Wakefield, MA: National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum*, (H324H990004).

Hammond, J. (2001). *Scaffolding: Teaching and learning in language and literacy education*. Primary English Teaching Assoc., PO Box 3106, Marrickville, New South Wales, 2204, Australia.

Hasselbring, T. S., & Glaser, C. H. (2000). Use of computer technology to help students with special needs. *The Future of children*, *10*(2), 102–122.

Hay, I., Ashman, A. F., & Van Kraayenoord, C. E. (1998). Educational characteristics of students with high or low self-concept. *Psychology in the Schools*, *35*(4), 391-400.

Heacox, D. (2012). *Differentiating instruction in the regular classroom: How to reach and teach all learners.* Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing.

Heidari, F., Izadi, M., & Ahmadian, M. V. (2012). The relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and use of vocabulary learning strategies. *English language teaching*, *5*(2), 174-182.

Hidi, S., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2000). Motivating the academically unmotivated: A critical issue for the 21st century. *Review of Educational Research*, *70*(2), 151-179. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543070002151

Hidi, S., & Renninger, K. A. (2006). The four-phase model of interest development. *Educational Psychologist*, *41*(2), 111–127. 10.1207/s15326985ep4102_4

Hill, D. R., (2013). Graded readers in English. *ELT Journal*, *62*(2), 184–204. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn006

Hirsch, E. D. (2006). *The knowledge deficit: Closing the shocking education gap for American children.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Hockly, N. (2013). Designer learning: The teacher as designer of mobile-based classroom learning experiences. *The International Research Foundation for English Language Education.* 1-12.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Sage publications.

Horwitz, E.K. (1988) The Beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal, 72*, 283-294. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1988.tb04190.x

Howitt, D., & Cramer, D. (2011). *Introduction to Research Methods in Psychology* (3rd ed.). Pearson Education.

Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Using mixed-methods sequential explanatory sesign: From theory to practice. *Field Methods*, *18*(1), 3-20. https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05282260

Jinks, J., & Morgan, V. (1999). Children's perceived academic self-efficacy: An inventory scale. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 72*(4), 224-230. https://doi.org/10.1080/00098659909599398

Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, *33*(7), 14-26. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033007014 (Original work published 2004)

Karasaç-Horkel, B. (2023). *EFL instructors' perceptions and practices of differentiated instruction at tertiary level*. (Publication No. 811363) [Unpublished Master's Thesis, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University]. YÖK National Thesis Center.

Kirin, W. (2010). Effects of extensive reading on students' writing ability in an EFL class. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, *7*(1).

Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education - TEACH HIGH EDUC. 14*. 81-93. 10.1080/13562510802602640.

Klimova, B., & Zamborova, K. (2020). Use of mobile applications in developing reading comprehension in second language acquisition—A review study. *Education Sciences*, *10*(12), 391.

Kolb, D. A. (2014). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. FT press.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.*

Krashen, S. D. (2004). *The power of reading: Insights from the research (2nd ed.).* Heinemann, and Libraries Unlimited.

Leblebicier, B. (2020). *Learning through differentiated instruction: Action research in an academic English class* (Master's thesis, Middle East Technical University (Turkey).

Lee, H. J., Lee, J., Makara, K. A., Fishman, B. J., & Teasley, S. D. (2015). A cross-cultural comparison of college students' learning strategies for academic achievement between South Korea and the USA. *Studies in Higher Education, 42*(1), 169–183. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1045473

Locke, E. A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. *Personnel psychology*, *50*(3), 801.

Maas, J., Schoch, S., Scholz, U., Rackow, P., Schüler, J., Wegner, M., & Keller, R. (2021). Teachers' perceived time pressure, emotional exhaustion and the role of social support from the school principal. *Social Psychology of Education: An International Journal, 24*(2), 441–464. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-020-09605-8

Macalister, J. (2008). Integrating extensive reading into an English for academic purposes program1. The *Reading Matrix, 8*(1), 23-34.

Macalister, J. (2010). Investigating teacher attitudes to extensive reading practices in higher education: Why isn't everyone doing it?. *Relc Journal*, *41*(1), 59-75.

Macalister, J., & Nation, I.S.P. (2019). *Language curriculum design* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429203763

Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English Medium Instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching, 51*(1), 36-76. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000350

Mahn, H. (1999). Vygotsky's methodological contribution to sociocultural theory. *Remedial and Special Education, 20*(6), 341–350. https://doi.org/10.1177/074193259902000607

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A five-factor theory perspective* (2nd ed.). Guilford Press.

McTighe, J., & Brown, J. L. (2005). Differentiated instruction and educational standards: Is détente possible?. *Theory Into Practice*, *44*(3), 234-244.

Meşe, E. (2021). *The impact of differentiated instruction on tertiary EFL students' speaking proficiency and online self-regulation, and student perceptions in distance education*. (Publication No. 701922) [Unpublished Master's Thesis, Bahçeşehir University]. YÖK National Thesis Center.

Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning, 57*(3), 417–442. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00421.x

Mirzaei, A., & Eslami, Z. R. (2015). ZPD-activated languaging and collaborative L2 writing. *Educational Psychology*, *35*(1), 5-25.

Mokhtari, K., & Reichard, C. (2004). Investigating the strategic reading processes of first and second language readers in two different cultural contexts. *System, 32*(3), 379-394. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.04.005

Moon, T. R. (2005). The role of assessment in differentiation. *Theory Into Practice*, *44*(3), 226–233. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4403_7

Moubayed, A., Injadat, M., Nassif, A.B., Lutfiyya, H., & Shami, A. (2018). E-Learning: Challenges and Research Opportunities Using Machine Learning & Data Analytics. *IEEE Access, 6*, 39117-39138. 10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2851790

Nation, I. S. (2008). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing*. Routledge.

Nuttall, C. (2005). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.* Oxford: Macmillan Education.

Okyar, H. (2021). Turkish EFL learners' reading strategy use and its relation to reading self-efficacy and gender. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, *21*(1), 116-130.

Özer, S. (2016). *The effects of thinking-style-based differentiated instruction on achievement, attitude and retention.* (Publication No. 430674) [Unpublished Master's Thesis, Necmettin Erbakan University]. YÖK National Thesis Center.

Pahlevansadegh, V., & Mirzaei, A. (2018). The effect of ZPD-activated instruction on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge and written lexical density. *Applied Linguistics Research Journal*, *4*(2), 81-96.

Pajares, F., Mills, N., & Herron, C. (2006). A Reevaluation of the role of anxiety: self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, *39*(2), 276-295. 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2006.tb02266.x.

Parsons, S. A., Nuland, L. R., & Parsons, A. W. (2014). The ABCs of student engagement. *Phi Delta Kappan, 95*(8), 23-27. 10.1177/003172171409500806

Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. International Universities Press, 8(5), 18-1952 https://doi.org/10.1037/11494-000

Pigada, M., & Schmitt, N. (2006). Vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading: A case study. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 18*(1), 1-28.

Prast, E. J., Van de Weijer-Bergsma, E., Kroesbergen, E. H., & Van Luit, J. E. H. (2018). Differentiated instruction in primary mathematics: Effects of teacher professional development on student achievement. *Learning and Instruction, 54,* 22 34. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2018.01.009

Reeve, J. (2009). Why teachers adopt a controlling motivating style toward students and how they can become more autonomy supportive. *Educational Psychologist*, *44*(3), 159–175. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520903028990

Reis, S. M., Burns, D. E., & Renzulli, J. S. (1992). *Curriculum compacting: the complete guide to modifying the regular curriculum for high ability students*. Prufrock Press Inc.

Renandya, W. A. (2007). The power of extensive reading. *RELC Journal*, *38*(2), 133-149. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688207079578 (Original work published 2007)

Renandya, W. A., & Jacobs, G. M. (2016). Extensive reading and listening in the L2 classroom. In W. A. Renandya, & Handoyo, P. (Eds.), *English language teaching* t*oday* (pp. 97-110). New York, NY: Routledge.

Renninger, K. A., & Hidi, S. (2011). Revisiting the conceptualization, measurement, and generation of interest. *Educational Psychologist, 46*(3), 168–184. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2011.587723

Renninger, K.A., & Hidi, S. (2015). *The power of interest for motivation and engagement (1st ed.).* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315771045

Renzulli, J. S. (2002). Expanding the conception of giftedness to include co-cognitive traits and to promote social capital. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *84*(1), 33-58. https://doi.org/10.1177/003172170208400109

Rezaee, A. A., & Azizi, Z. (2012). The role of Zone of Proximal Development in the students' learning of English adverbs. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *3*(1), 51-57.

Ro, E. & Kim, H. (2022). The effects of extensive reading on young Korean students' construction development. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *60*(4), 957-981. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2019-0076

Rock, M., Gregg, M., Ellis, E., & Gable, R. A. (2008). REACH: A Framework for differentiating classroom instruction. *Preventing School Failure, 52*, 31-47. https://doi.org/10.3200/PSFL.52.2.31-47

Rose, D. H., & Meyer, A. (2002). *Teaching every student in the digital age: Universal design for learning*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Roy, A., Guay, F., & Valois, P. (2012). Teaching to address diverse learning needs: Development and validation of a differentiated instruction scale. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, *17*(11), 1186–1204. 10.1080/13603116.2012.743604

Santangelo, T. and Tomlinson, C. (2009) The application of differentiated instruction in postsecondary environments: Benefits, challenges, and future directions. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 20*, 307-323.

Santangelo, T., & Tomlinson, C. A. (2012). Teacher educators' perceptions and use of differentiated instruction practices: An exploratory investigation. *Action in Teacher Education*, *34*(4), 309-327.

Sapan, M., & Mede, E. (2022). The effects of differentiated instruction (DI) on achievement, motivation, and autonomy among English learners. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *10*(1), 127-144. https://doi.org/10.30466/ijltr.2022.121125

Schiefele, U. (1991). Interest, learning, and motivation. *Educational Psychologist, 26*(3-4), 299–323.

Schmitt, N. (2008). Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language teaching research*, *12*(3), 329-363.

Schunk, D. H., & Ertmer, P. A. (2000). *Self-regulation and academic learning: Self-efficacy enhancing interventions. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), Handbook of Self-Regulation*. Cambridge, MA: Academic Press.

Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. (Eds.). (2011). *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance*. Taylor & Francis.

Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2006). Influencing children's self-efficacy and self-regulation of reading and writing through modeling. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 23*(1), 7–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560600837578

Schunk, D. H., Pintrich, P. R., & Meece, J. L. (2008). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications (3rd ed.).* Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.

Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (Eds.). (2008). *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (1st ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203831076

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). General perceived self-efficacy. *In J. Weinmanr, S.W. & M.Johnston (eds.), Measures in health* Psychology*: A User's Portfolio.* England: NFER-Nelson.

Snow, C. E. (2010). Academic language and the challenge of reading for learning about science. *Science, 328*(5977), 450–452. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1182597

Sousa, D. A., & Tomlinson, C. A. (2011). *Differentiation and the brain: How neuroscience supports the learner-friendly classroom.* Solution Tree Press.

Sternberg, R. J. (1997). *Thinking styles*. Cambridge University Press.

Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (Eds.). (2003). *The psychology of abilities, competencies, and expertise*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511615801

Sternberg, R. J., & Zhang, L. F. (2005). Styles of thinking as a basis of differentiated instruction. *Theory into practice*, *44*(3), 245-253. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4403_9

Stockwell, G. (2010). Using mobile phones for vocabulary activities: Examining the effect of platform. *Language Learning & Technology, 14*(2), 95–110. http://dx.doi.org/10125/44216

Subban, P. (2006). Differentiated instruction: A research basis. *International Education Journal*, *7*(7), 935–947. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ854351.pdf

Şaban, C. (2020). *The implementation of differentiated instruction in higher education EFL classrooms*. (Publication No. 620096) [Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Bahçeşehir University]. YÖK National Thesis Center.

Takase, A. (2007). Japanese high school students' motivation for extensive L2 reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 19*(1)*,* 1-18. Doi: 10125/66622

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2010). Putting the human back in ''human research methodology'': The researcher in mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research*, *4*(4), 271-277.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. Sage Publications.

Tomlinson, C. A. (1999). *The differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Tomlinson, C. A. (2001). *How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
Tomlinson, C. A. (2014). *The differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners*. Ascd.
Tomlinson, C. A. (2017). *How to differentiate instruction in academically diverse classrooms* (3rd ed.). ASCD.
Tomlinson, C. A., (2003). *Fulfilling the promise of the differentiated classroom: Strategies and tools for responsive teaching.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Tomlinson, C. A., & Edison, C. C. (2003). *Differentiation in practice: A resource guide for differentiating curriculum.* Ascd.
Tomlinson, C. A., & Imbeau, M. B. (2023). *Leading and managing a differentiated classroom*. Ascd.
Tomlinson, C. A., & Moon, T. R. (2013). *Assessment and student success in a differentiated classroom*. ASCD.
Tomlinson, C. A., Brighton, C., Hertberg, H., Callahan, C. M., Moon, T. R., Brimijoin, K., Conover, L. A., & Reynolds, T. (2003). Differentiating instruction in response to student readiness, interest, and learning profile in academically diverse classrooms: A review of literature. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, *27*(2-3), 119-145. https://doi.org/10.1177/016235320302700203
Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvjf9vz4
Walqui, A. (2006). Scaffolding instruction for English Language Learners: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 9*(2), 159–180. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050608668639
Westwood, P. (2016). *What teachers need to know about differentiated instruction*. ACER Press.
Westwood, P. (2018). *Commonsense methods for children with special educational needs* (8th ed.). Routledge.
Winebrenner, S. (1992). *Teaching gifted kids in the regular classroom.* Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing.
Wolf, M., & Stoodley, C. J. (2007). *Proust and the squid: The story and science of the reading brain* (1st ed). HarperCollins.
Yamashita, J. (2004). Reading attitudes in L1 and L2, and their Influence on L2 extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language. 16*(1), 1-19.
Yamashita, J. (2008). Extensive reading and development of different aspects of L2 proficiency. *System*, *36*(4), 661-672.
Yamashita, J. (2013). Effects of extensive reading on reading attitudes in a foreign language. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 25*(2)*,* 248-263.
Yoğurtçu, K. (2013). The impact of self-efficacy perception on reading comprehension on academic achievement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *70*, 375-386. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.075

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Informed Consent Form

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ OLUR FORMU

1. Aşağıda imzası olan ben "İngiliz Dili Öğretiminde Farklılaştırılmış Yaygın Okuma Uygulamalarının Okuma Öz-Yeterliliği ve Okuma Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkileri / Exploring the Effects of Differentiated Extensive Reading on Student Achievement and Reading Self-Efficacy in an EMI Preparatory School" başlıklı çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.
2. Bu çalışmayı yürüten Habibe ÖZKARA çalışmanın yapısı, amacı ve muhtemel süresi, hakkında ayrıntılı sözlü ve yazılı bilgi verdi.
3. Araştırmacı Habibe ÖZKARA'ya çalışmasıyla ilgili her soruyu sorma fırsatını buldum. Cevapları ve bana verilen bilgiyi anladım.
4. Araştırmacı Habibe ÖZKARA 'ya bilgilerin ayrıntılarını açıklamama ve benimle ilgili sırları koruması şartıyla benimle bu çalışmayı yapmasına izin veriyorum.
5. Çalışma boyunca tüm kurallara uyacağıma, araştırmacı Habibe ÖZKARA ile tam bir uyum içinde çalışacağıma ve konuyla ilgili herhangi bir sorun çıktığında hemen onu arayacağımı kabul ediyorum.
6. Bu çalışma sonuçlarının kullanılmasını kısıtlamayacağımı ve yayın, rapor ve benzeri bilimsel dokümanlarda kullanabileceğini kabul ediyorum.
7. Bu çalışmadan istediğim zaman çıkabileceğimi anladım.

OKUDUM VE ONAYLADIM.

Katılımcının Adı ve Soyadı, Adresi:

Tarih, İmza:

Araştırmacının Adı ve Soyadı: Habibe ÖZKARA
Adresi: Tarih, İmza:

Appendix 2. Participant Information Form

DENEKLERİN GÖNÜLLÜLÜĞÜ VE AYDINLATILMIŞ ONAM FORMU

Sayın Gönüllü,

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

Bu kapsamda Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim fakültesi yüksek lisans öğrencisi Habibe ÖZKARA ve tez danışmanı Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Semin KAZAZOĞLU tarafından yürütülen "İngiliz Dili Öğretiminde Farklılaştırılmış Yaygın Okuma Uygulamalarının Okuma Öz-Yeterliliği ve Okuma Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkileri / Exploring the Effects of Differentiated Extensive Reading on Student Achievement and Reading Proficiency in EMI Preparatory Schools" başlıklı yüksek lisans tez çalışmasına davet edilmektesiniz. Bu araştırmaya katılıp katılmama kararını vermeden önce, araştırmanın neden ve nasıl yapılacağını bilmeniz gerekmektedir. Eğer anlamadığınız veya sizin için açık olmayan bir durum varsa, ya da daha fazla bilgi isterseniz bizimle iletişime geçmekten çekinmeyiniz.

Bu çalışma, farklılaştırılmış öğretim ve yaygın okuma uygulamalarının İngilizce Hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin dil yeterliliği ve derse katılımı üzerindeki etkilerini ölçmek ve bu yöntemlerin İngiliz Dili Öğretimi müfredatına entegrasyonu için yenilikçi öneriler sunmayı hedeflemektedir. Araştırmada, "Okuma Öz-Yeterliliği Ölçeği" ve "Online Okuma Stratejileri Ölçeği" kullanarak katılımcıların okuma öz yeterlilikleri değerlendirilecektir. Bu ölçekte çoktan seçmeli sorular yer almakta olup, katılımcıların yabancı dilde okuma süreçlerine dair okuma öz yeterlilikleri analiz edilecektir.Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, ölçekleri tamamlayacak ve belirli okuma etkinliklerine katılacaksınız. Çalışma 01.01.2025-01.04.2025 tarihleri arasında gerçekleştirilecektir. Yanıtlarınızdan toplanan bilgiler yalnızca bu araştırmanın amaçları doğrultusunda kullanılacaktır.

Bu çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır, dilediğiniz zaman herhangi bir sebep göstermeksizin ayrılabilirsiniz. Araştırmadan çekilmeniz ya da araştırmacı tarafından araştırmadan çıkarılmanız durumunda sizle ilgili veriler kullanılmayacaktır. Sizden elde edilen tüm bilgiler gizli tutulacaktır, araştırma yayınlandığında kimlik bilgilerinizin gizliliği korunacaktır. Kimlik bilgileriniz, herhangi bir kişisel tanımlayıcı bilgi yerine bir kod numarası atanacaktır.

Bu formu onayladığınız takdirde araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz düşünülecektir.

Yukarıda yer alan araştırmaya başlamadan önce gönüllülere verilmesi gereken bilgileri içeren metni okudum (ya da sözlü dinledim). Eksik kaldığını düşündüğüm konularda sorularımı araştırmacılara sordum ve doyurucu yanıtlar aldım. Yazılı ve sözlü olarak tarafıma sunulan tüm açıklamaları ayrıntılarıyla anladığım kanısındayım. Çalışmaya katılmayı isteyip istemediğim konusunda karar vermem için yeterince zaman tanındı.

Bu koşullar altında, araştırma kapsamında elde edilen şahsıma ait bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını, gizlilik kurallarına uyulmak kaydıyla sunulmasını ve yayınlanmasını, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama altında kalmaksızın, kendi özgür irademle kabul ettiğimi beyan ederim.

Araştırmacı: Habibe ÖZKARA

İletişim:

Katılımcının Adı-Soyadı:

İmzası:

,

Appendix 3. Demographic Form

Demographic Information Form	
Name-surname:	
Age:	
Gender:	
Nationality:	
Department:	

Appendix 4. VAK Learning Styles Questionnaire

VAK LEARNING STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE

Name Surname:

Date:

1. When I operate new equipment I generally:

a) read the instructions first

b) listen to an explanation from someone who has used it before

c) go ahead and have a go, I can figure it out as I use it

2. When I need directions for travelling I usually:

a) look at a map

b) ask for spoken directions

c) follow my nose and maybe use a compass

3. When I cook a new dish, I like to:

a) follow a written recipe

b) call a friend for an explanation

c) follow my instincts, testing as I cook

4. If I am teaching someone something new, I tend to:

a) write instructions down for them

b) give them a verbal explanation

c) demonstrate first and then let them have a go

5. I tend to say:

a) watch how I do it

b) listen to me explain

c) you have a go

6. During my free time I most enjoy:

a) going to museums and galleries

b) listening to music and talking to my friends

c) playing sport or doing DIY

7. When I go shopping for clothes, I tend to:

a) imagine what they would look like on

b) discuss them with the shop staff

c) try them on and test them out

8. When I am choosing a holiday I usually:

a) read lots of brochures

b) listen to recommendations from friends

c) imagine what it would be like to be there

9. If I was buying a new car, I would:

a) read reviews in newspapers and magazines

b) discuss what I need with my friends

c) test-drive lots of different types

10. When I am learning a new skill, I am most comfortable:

a) watching what the teacher is doing

b) talking through with the teacher exactly what I'm supposed to do

c) giving it a try myself and work it out as I go

11. If I am choosing food off a menu, I tend to:

a) imagine what the food will look like

b) talk through the options in my head or with my partner

c) imagine what the food will taste like

12. When I listen to a band, I can't help:

a) watching the band members and other people in the audience

b) listening to the lyrics and the beats

c) moving in time with the music

13. When I concentrate, I most often:

a) focus on the words or the pictures in front of me

b) discuss the problem and the possible solutions in my head

c) move around a lot, fiddle with pens and pencils and touch things

14. I choose household furnishings because I like:

a) their colours and how they look

b) the descriptions the sales-people give me

c) their textures and what it feels like to touch them

15. My first memory is of:

a) looking at something

b) being spoken to

c) doing something

16. When I am anxious, I:

a) visualise the worst-case scenarios

b) talk over in my head what worries me most

c) can't sit still, fiddle and move around constantly

17. I feel especially connected to other people because of:

a) how they look

b) what they say to me

c) how they make me feel

18. When I have to revise for an exam, I generally:

a) write lots of revision notes and diagrams

b) talk over my notes, alone or with other people

c) imagine making the movement or creating the formula

19. If I am explaining to someone I tend to:

a) show them what I mean

b) explain to them in different ways until they understand

c) encourage them to try and talk them through my idea as they do it

20. I really love:

a) watching films, photography, looking at art or people watching

b) listening to music, the radio or talking to friends

c) taking part in sporting activities, eating fine foods and wines or dancing

21. Most of my free time is spent:

a) watching television

b) talking to friends

c) doing physical activity or making things

22. When I first contact a new person, I usually:

a) arrange a face to face meeting

b) talk to them on the telephone

c) try to get together whilst doing something else, such as an activity or a meal

23. I first notice how people:

a) look and dress

b) sound and speak

c) stand and move

24. If I am angry, I tend to:

a) keep replaying in my mind what it is that has upset me

b) raise my voice and tell people how I feel

c) stamp about, slam doors and physically demonstrate my anger

25. I find it easiest to remember:

a) faces

b) names

c) things I have done

26. I think that you can tell if someone is lying if:

a) they avoid looking at you

b) their voices changes

c) they give me funny vibes

27. When I meet an old friend:

a) I say "it's great to see you!"

b) I say "it's great to hear from you!"

c) I give them a hug or a handshake

28. I remember things best by:

a) writing notes or keeping printed details

b) saying them aloud or repeating words and key points in my head

c) doing and practising the activity or imagining it being done

29. If I have to complain about faulty goods, I am most comfortable:

a) writing a letter

b) complaining over the phone

c) taking the item back to the store or posting it to head office

30. I tend to say:

a) I see what you mean

b) I hear what you are saying

c) I know how you feel

Now add up how many A's, B's and C's you selected.

A's = B's = C's =

If you chose mostly A's you have a **VISUAL** learning style.

If you chose mostly B's you have an **AUDITORY** learning style.

If you chose mostly C's you have a **KINAESTHETIC** learning style.

Appendix 5. Interest Inventory

Interest Inventory

Name:

Date:

1) What is your favorite activity or subject in school? Why? Your least favorite? Why?
2) What are your "best" subjects? What makes them the easiest for you?
3) What subjects are difficult for you? What makes them the hardest?
4) What subject makes you think and work the hardest? Why is it the most challenging?
5) Rate the following topics according to your interests.

(1 = very interested, 2 = somewhat interested, 3 = not interested)

Dance Drama=	Social Studies=
Writing=	World Languages=
Computers=	Science=
Music=	Business=
Sports Math=	Politics/Law=

6) What are your favorite games or sports?
7) If you could learn about anything you wanted to, what would you choose to learn about? Be specific. (For example: science-fiction writing, meteorology, architecture, Shakespeare, Africa.)
8) What are three things you like to do when you have free time (besides seeing friends)?
9) What clubs, groups, teams, or organizations do you belong to? Include both school activities and those not sponsored by the school.
10) What things have you collected in the past? What, if anything, are you currently collecting?
11) Have you ever taught yourself to do something without the help of another person? If so, what?
12) If you were going to start a book club, what kinds of books would your club read?
13) If people were to come to you for information about something you know a lot about, what would the topic be?
14) If you could plan a field trip for learning, where would you go? Why would you choose that place?
15) When you're using the computer, are you usually playing games, doing homework, doing research, visiting websites, visiting chat rooms, social networking, shopping, exchanging email, programming, or some other activity?
16) If you could interview an expert on any subject, what subject would you like to talk to someone about?

17) If you could interview one significant person from the present and one from the past, who would you interview? Why would you choose these two people?

18) What careers are you currently interested in?

19) In school, I prefer to work:

☐alone ☐with one other person

☐in a small group ☐ in a larger group

20) In school, I learn best:

☐alone ☐with one other person

☐in a small group ☐ in a larger group

21) What helps you learn? (For example, a hands-on activity, reading, taking notes, or reading out loud.)

22) What makes learning more difficult for you? (For example, lectures, lots of writing.)

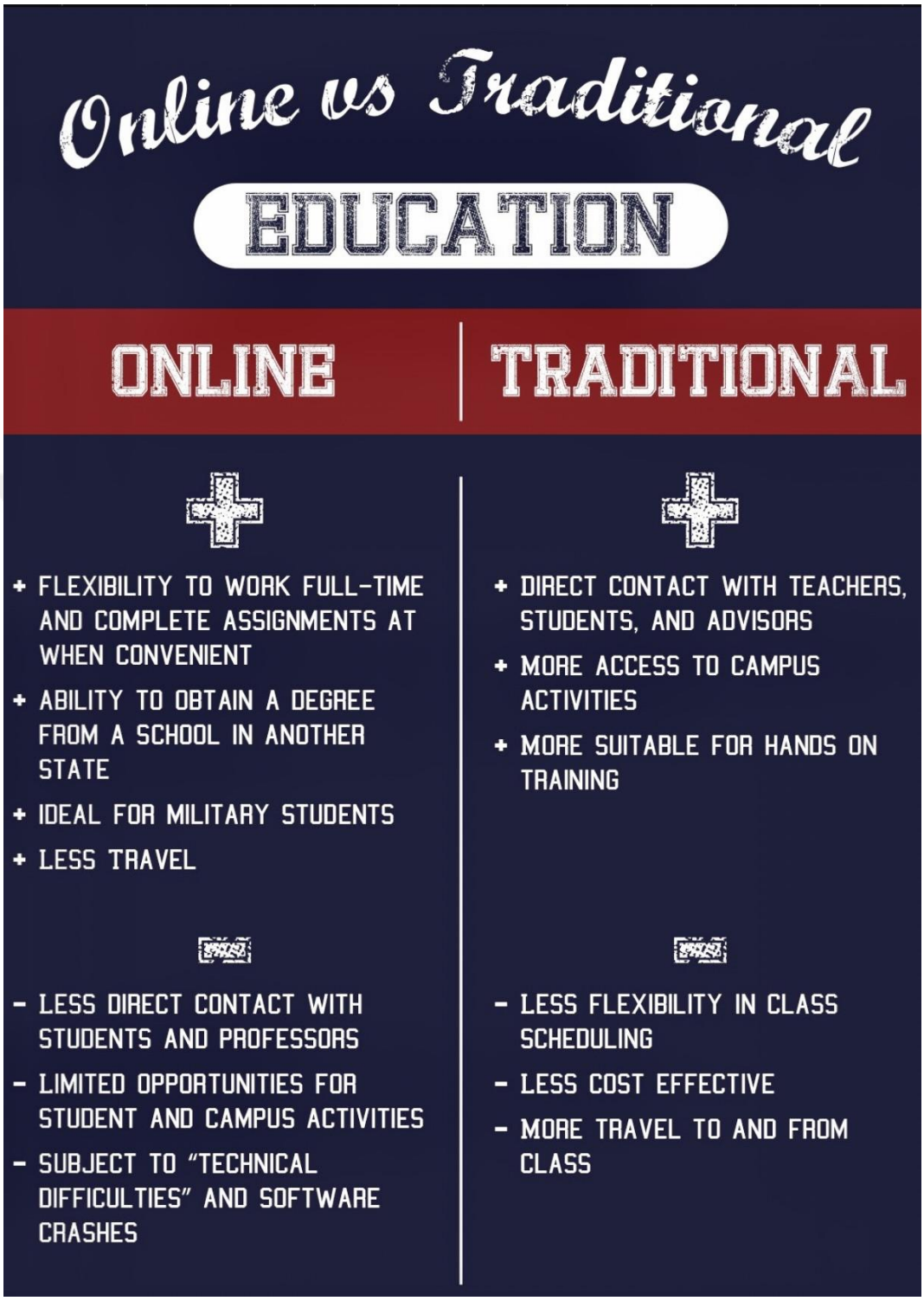
23) Think of a great teacher you've had. Describe what made this teacher so terrific.

24) What past school assignment or project are you proudest of? Why?

25) What project done outside of school are you proudest of? Why?

26) What else would you like me to know about you as a learner?

Appendix 6. 1st Week- Visual Group' Infographic



Retrieved from: https://elearninginfographics.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-online-education-infographic/?utm_source=chatgpt.com

Appendix 7. 1st Week- Visual Group's Task

1) Fill this Venn Diagram in while reading the text, using color-coded pens. Put a tick under the right column.

	Distance Learning	Face-to-Face Learning
Learn anywhere		
Timesaving		
Self-paced		
Immediate interaction		
Build social skills		
Classroom focus		
Requires tech		

2) Write keywords for each icon related to distance and face-to-face learning as in the example. Use the given meanings for help.

Keyword	Meaning	Icon
	Ability to choose time/place	
	Learn at your own speed	
	Tools needed for online learning	
	Talking with teacher/classmates	
	Staying concentrated	
	Working well with others	

Appendix 7. 1st Week- Dialogue for Auditory Group

[Student A – prefers distance learning]:

Personally, I really like distance learning. The biggest advantage for me is flexibility. I can study at any time, even late at night. I don't have to travel, so I save time and money. I also like that I can go at my own pace—if I don't understand something, I just replay the video or re-read the material.

But I know it's not perfect. Sometimes I feel lonely without classmates around. And it's easy to get distracted when I'm studying at home. You need to be very disciplined.

[Student B – prefers face-to-face learning]:

I prefer face-to-face learning. I learn better in a classroom because I can ask my teacher questions and get answers immediately. Group discussions help me stay focused and understand the topic more deeply. Also, it's easier to make friends and feel part of a learning community.

However, I agree that it's not as flexible. I have to wake up early and travel to school every day. That can be tiring, and sometimes the schedule doesn't fit my personal life.

Task: Compare their opinions. What are the main advantages and disadvantages of each learning type?

Appendix 8. 1st Week- Debate Cards for the Kinaesthetic Group

Role Cards for Mini Debate:

Role Card 1: Distance Learning – Student Perspective

• **Position:** Distance Learning

• **Key Arguments:**

1. I love how flexible distance learning is. I can choose when and where to study.

2. I can work at my own pace. If I don't understand something, I can replay the lessons or take my time on tasks.

3. I save time and money because there's no commuting to a physical school. This is especially important for me since I live far away.

4. I can use technology to access resources that I wouldn't have in a traditional classroom, like online lectures, videos, and extra practice materials.

Role Card 2: Distance Learning – Student Perspective

• **Position:** Distance Learning

• **Key Arguments:**

1. Distance learning offers a lot of independence. It's up to me how I organize my study time.

2. I enjoy being able to review materials as many times as I need. For example, I can listen to a lecture again if I missed something.

3. There's no pressure of being physically present in a classroom, which makes me feel more relaxed and less stressed.

4. I don't feel rushed to complete assignments, and I can take breaks when I need them, which is great for my mental health.

Role Card 3: Face-to-Face Learning – Student Perspective

• **Position:** Face-to-Face Learning

• **Key Arguments:**

1. I prefer the immediate interaction I get with the teacher and classmates. If I have a question, I can ask it right away and get an answer.

2. The classroom environment helps me stay focused. It's easier to learn when I'm physically present with my classmates.

3. I feel more motivated when I have a set schedule and know I have to attend class at specific times. It helps me stay on track.

4. Group discussions and activities help me understand the material better. I can get different perspectives from my classmates, which helps me learn more effectively.

Role Card 4: Face-to-Face Learning – Student Perspective

• **Position:** Face-to-Face Learning

• **Key Arguments:**

1. I think face-to-face learning is better for building relationships. I can easily communicate with my classmates and make friends.

2. I get to practice social skills in a physical classroom, which is important for my personal and professional life.

3. The teacher can give immediate feedback on assignments, which helps me improve quickly.

4. In-class activities like group work and presentations help me understand the subject better, and I stay engaged throughout the class.

Appendix 9. 2nd Week- Worksheets for Interest-Based Grouping

Worksheets

1. **Science & Technology** – Focus on robotics in medicine.
2. **Business & Economics** – The financial impact of 3D printing in healthcare.
3. **Politics & Society** – Ethical debates around homeopathy and state funding.
4. **Sports & Health** – The role of alternative medicine in sports recovery.
5. **Arts & Creativity** – Designing a futuristic medical innovation.

Worksheet 1: Science & Technology – Robotics in Medicine

Text:
Robotic surgery is rapidly transforming modern healthcare. In many hospitals today, robots assist surgeons during delicate and complex procedures such as heart surgeries or tumor removals. These machines can perform tasks with extreme precision, often reaching areas that would be difficult or dangerous for a human hand. For example, robotic arms can make tiny incisions, reducing the size of wounds and helping patients recover faster with fewer complications.

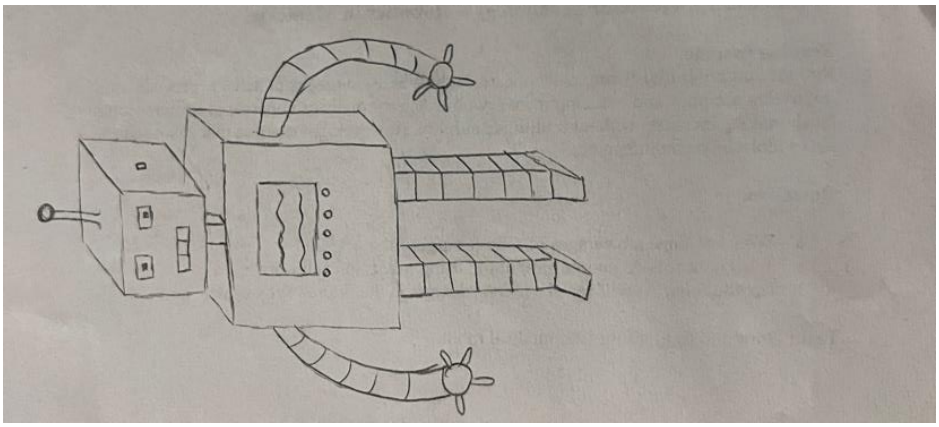
One fascinating development is the use of micro-robots that operate on a microscopic scale. These tiny machines can travel inside the body, delivering medicine directly to a tumor or even repairing tissues from within. As a result, patients may not need traditional surgery, which often involves longer hospital stays and more pain.

Despite these advancements, not everyone supports the widespread use of medical robots. Some healthcare professionals and patients are concerned that robots might one day replace human surgeons entirely. Critics argue that no machine, no matter how advanced, can replace human intuition, empathy, and decision-making—especially in unexpected or emergency situations. The debate continues: should we trust machines with our lives, or should they always remain tools under human control?

Questions:

1. What are some advantages of robotic surgery?
2. What concerns do people have about using robots in healthcare?
3. Do you think AI will replace human doctors in the future? Why or why not?

Task: Draw and label a futuristic medical robot.



Students' Work for Worksheet 1: Science & Technology – Robotics in Medicine

Worksheet 2: Business & Economics – The Cost of 3D Printing in Healthcare

Text:
The introduction of 3D printing in the medical field has revolutionized the way we think about healthcare costs and access. In the past, creating a prosthetic limb was a time-consuming and expensive process. Many people in developing countries or with limited financial resources simply could not afford them. Today, however, 3D printing technology allows medical professionals to design and produce artificial limbs that are not only affordable but also highly personalized.

This process begins with scanning the patient's body to collect exact measurements. Then, using digital designs, a 3D printer creates the prosthetic using plastic or lightweight metal materials. The result is a customized limb made within a few days at a fraction of the traditional cost. In some cases, children who quickly outgrow their prosthetics can receive new ones every year without putting financial strain on their families.

However, 3D printing in medicine still faces several challenges. Some companies and medical institutions hesitate to adopt the technology because of concerns about regulation, safety standards, and mass production. They worry that without strict quality controls, 3D-printed devices could fail and cause harm. Moreover, large medical equipment companies may resist 3D printing because it disrupts traditional business models and profits. As 3D printing continues to evolve, investors and policymakers will need to balance cost, innovation, and safety.

Questions:

1. How has 3D printing changed healthcare costs?
2. Why do you think some companies resist using 3D printing for medical devices?
3. If you were an investor, would you fund a 3D printing medical startup? Why?

Task: Create a cost-benefit analysis chart for 3D printing vs. traditional prosthetics.

Worksheet 3: Politics & Society – The Homeopathy Debate

Text:
Homeopathy is a form of alternative medicine that has been used for over 200 years. It involves treating illnesses with highly diluted natural substances, under the idea that "like cures like." Supporters of homeopathy argue that it offers a more natural and gentle approach to healing, especially for people who want to avoid synthetic drugs or chemicals. They also believe that homeopathic treatments stimulate the body's ability to heal itself.

In some countries, homeopathy is so popular that people are demanding it be included in national healthcare systems. They argue that patients should have the right to choose between conventional and alternative treatments, and that supporting homeopathy could reduce the cost of care in some cases.

On the other hand, many scientists and doctors strongly oppose using public funds for homeopathy. They point out that most homeopathic remedies have not been proven effective through scientific studies. Critics argue that governments should invest in treatments with solid evidence behind them, rather than spending taxpayer money on methods that may not work.

This debate touches on larger questions about healthcare access, freedom of choice, and the role of science in policy decisions. Should people be free to choose their treatment, even if it's not scientifically supported? Or should public health systems focus only on evidence-based medicine?

Questions:

1. What are the main arguments for and against homeopathy?
2. Should the government fund alternative medicine? Why or why not?
3. How does this debate compare to other public healthcare funding issues?

Task: Write a short speech arguing for or against government funding of homeopathy.

Worksheet 4: Sports & Health – Alternative Medicine in Sports

Text:
In the world of professional sports, staying healthy and recovering quickly from injuries is essential. While traditional treatments like physical therapy and surgery are common, many athletes are turning to alternative medicine to help speed up recovery and reduce pain. Practices such as acupuncture, herbal remedies, cupping therapy, and chiropractic care have become increasingly popular.

Some athletes claim these methods help them relax, reduce stress, and relieve pain without the use of strong medications. For example, acupuncture involves inserting thin needles into specific points on the body to stimulate healing. Others use herbal supplements believed to support muscle repair and improve sleep. These athletes often say that alternative treatments allow them to maintain performance without the side effects of pharmaceuticals.

However, sports scientists and medical professionals often raise concerns. Many of these treatments lack sufficient scientific evidence proving their effectiveness. In some cases, athletes may even risk their health by using unregulated or poorly studied methods. This raises important questions for sports organizations: should there be rules about what kinds of treatments athletes can use? And how can they ensure that athletes receive safe and ethical care?

Alternative medicine in sports also reflects broader trends in society—where people seek more natural, holistic approaches to health. Whether it's effective or not, it's clear that these practices are influencing how athletes train, heal, and perform.

Questions:

1. Why do some athletes prefer alternative medicine?
2. Do you think sports organizations should regulate non-traditional treatments?
3. Would you try an alternative treatment if you were injured? Why or why not?

Task: Research and present one alternative treatment used by athletes.

Worksheet 5: Arts & Creativity – Designing the Future of Medicine

Text:
When people think about medicine, they often picture doctors, hospitals, and machines. But behind every hospital bed or medical device is a team of designers, architects, and artists who shape the healthcare experience. From the color of a hospital wall to the shape of a prosthetic limb, design plays a critical role in both healing and innovation.

In recent years, more designers have begun working with medical professionals to improve patient care. For example, ergonomic prosthetics are not only functional but also beautiful, helping wearers feel more confident and comfortable. Some hospitals are built with natural light, calming colors, and open spaces to reduce stress and promote faster healing. Others use soundscapes and visual art installations to improve mental well-being.

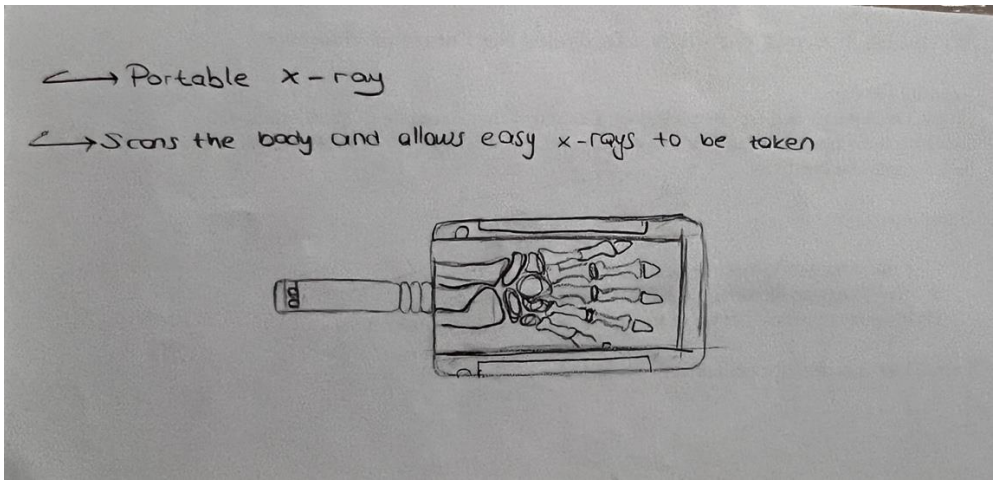
Medical technology also benefits from creative design. Engineers and artists work together to create tools that are easy to use and understand—especially for patients with disabilities or those in emergency situations. As healthcare moves toward more personalized and digital solutions, creativity will be essential in imagining devices and spaces that support both the body and the mind.

Designing the future of medicine means combining science, technology, and art. It's not just about treating illness—it's about creating environments that truly support human health in all its forms.

Questions:

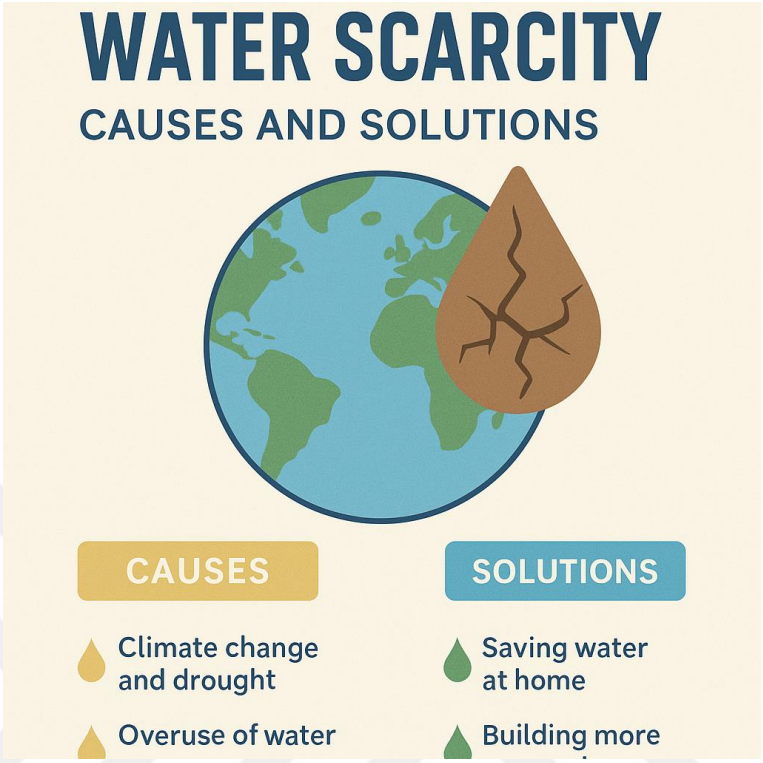
1. How can art influence medical innovation?
2. Why is design important in hospitals and medical devices?
3. Imagine a medical device of the future. How would it work?

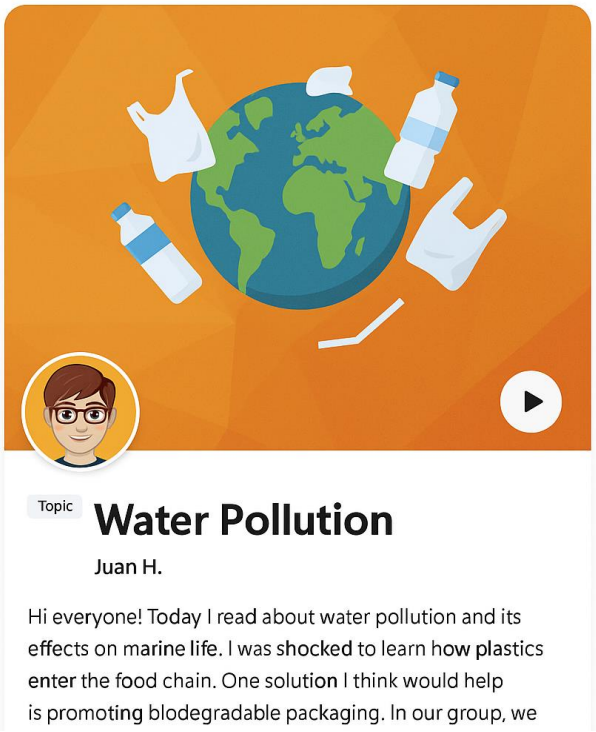
Task: Draw and describe an innovative healthcare product.



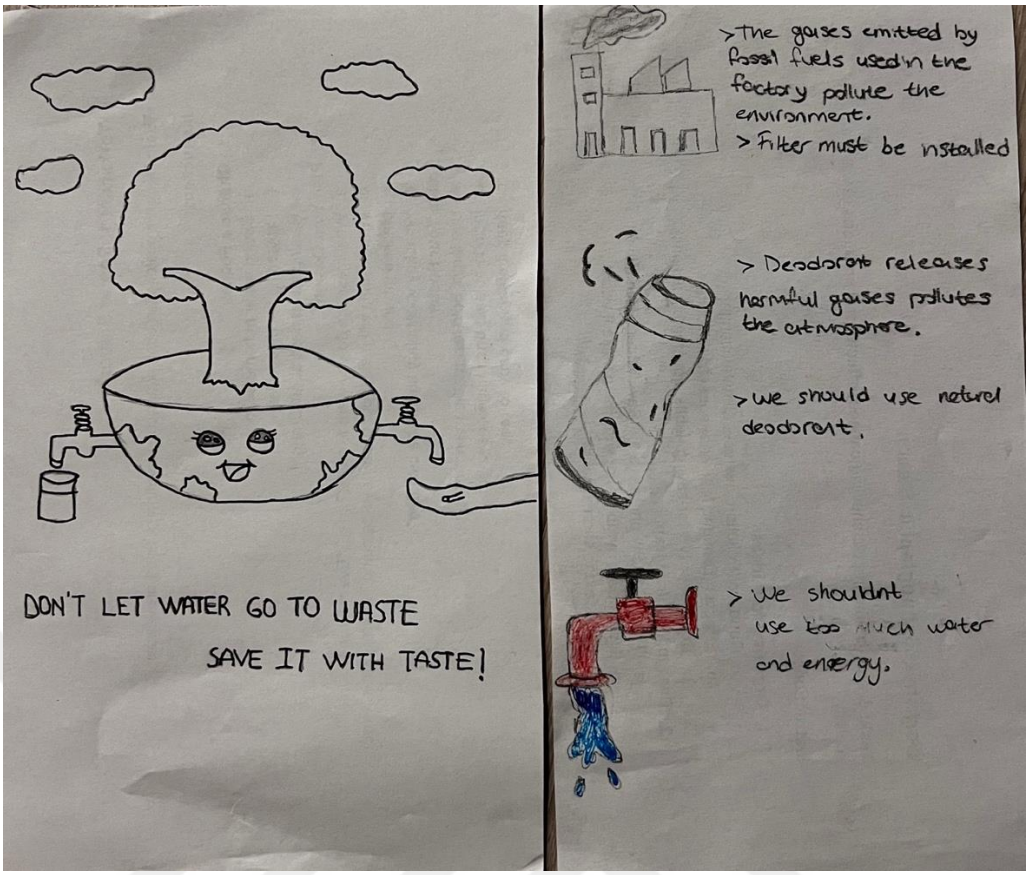
Students' work for Worksheet 5: Arts &Creativity – Designing the Future of Medicine

Appendix 10. 3rd Week-Sample Student Products



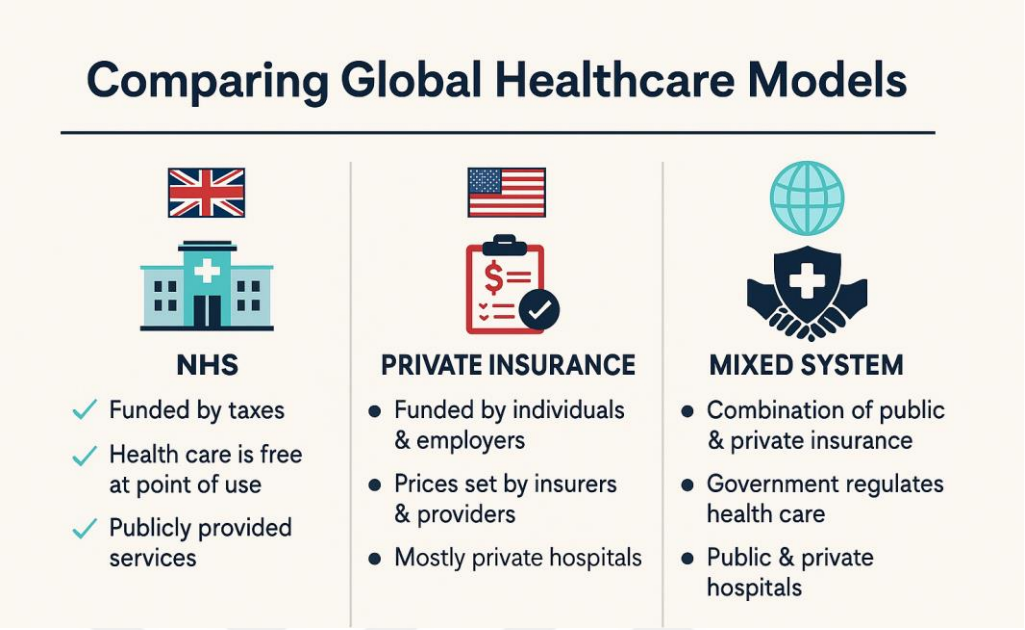


Screenshots from mobile phones



Student drawings about water-related problems

Appendix 11. 4th Week- An Infographic Comparing Global Healthcare Models

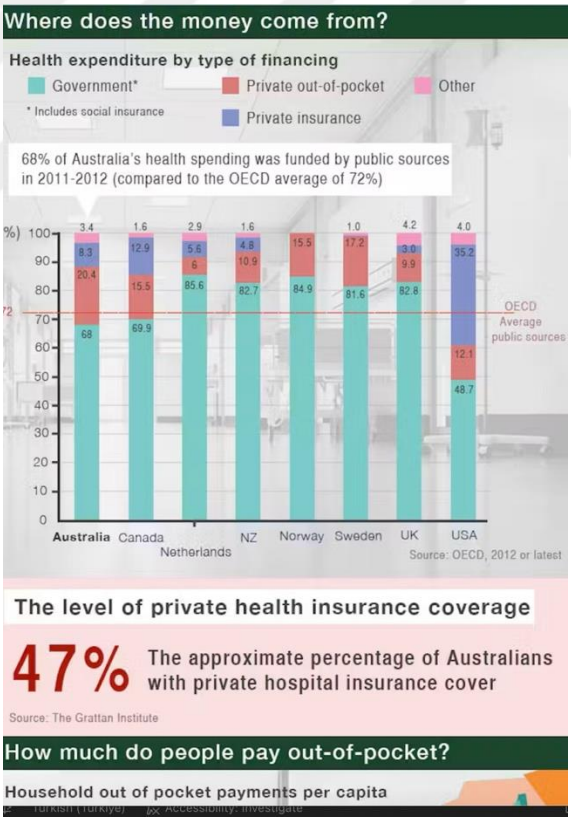


Appendix 12. 4th Week- Articles about Healthcare Systems Accross the World



Mainpage of the website.

https://www.commonwealthfund.org/international-health-policy-center/system-profiles



A sample infographic taken from the website.

https://theconversation.com/infographic-comparing-international-health-systems-30784

Appendix 13. 4th Week- Worksheet for the Reflection on Healthcare Systems of Countries

Top 5 Countries for Healthcare	**Developing Countries in Healthcare**
1. Singapore	1) Brazil
2. Japan	2) Russia
3. South Korea	3) Azerbaijan
4. Taiwan	4) Morocco
5. China	5) Indonesia

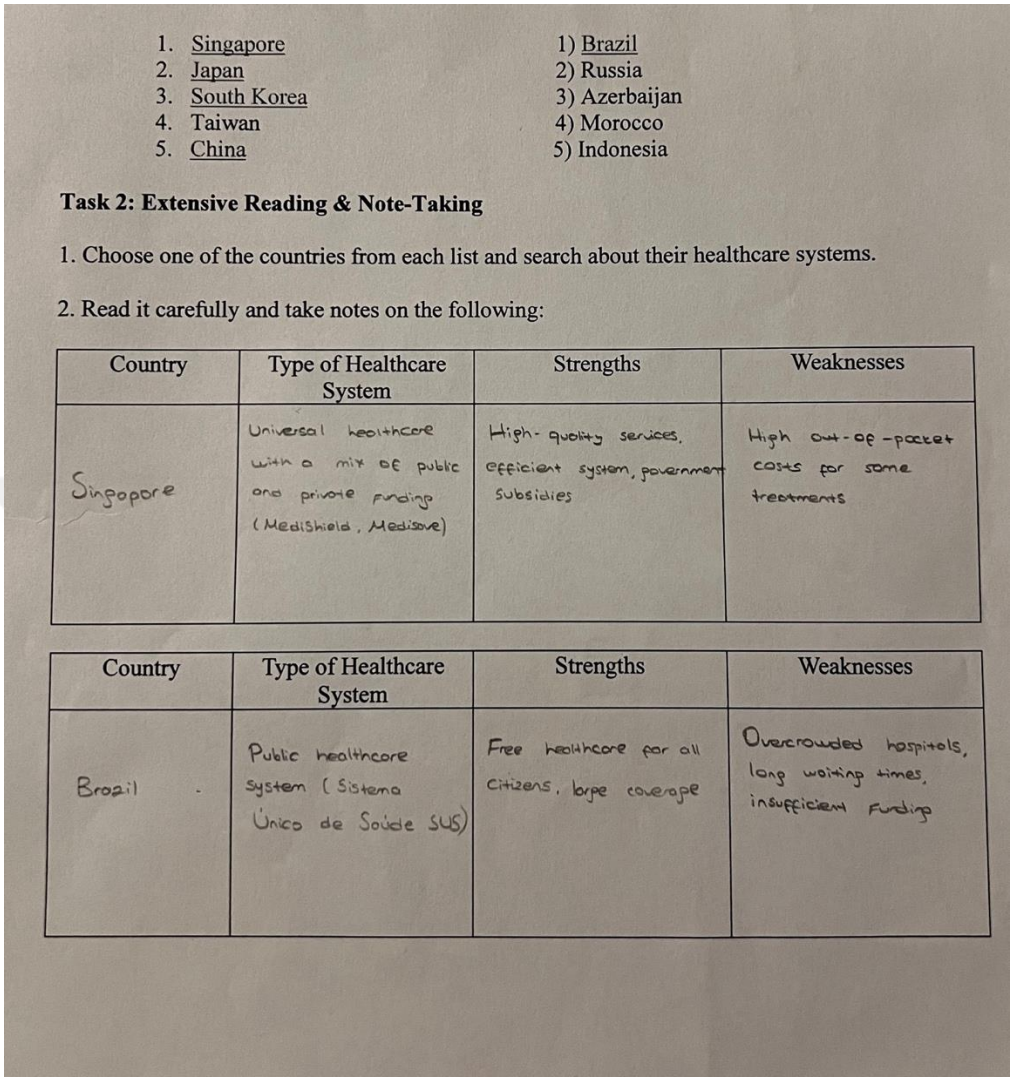
1. Choose one of the countries from each list and search about their healthcare systems.

2. Read it carefully and take notes on the following:

Country	Type of Healthcare System	Strengths	Weaknesses

Country	Type of Healthcare System	Strengths	Weaknesses

A Sample Student Reflection Worksheet



1. Singapore
2. Japan
3. South Korea
4. Taiwan
5. China

1) Brazil
2) Russia
3) Azerbaijan
4) Morocco
5) Indonesia

Task 2: Extensive Reading & Note-Taking

1. Choose one of the countries from each list and search about their healthcare systems.

2. Read it carefully and take notes on the following:

Country	Type of Healthcare System	Strengths	Weaknesses
Singapore	Universal healthcare with a mix of public and private funding (MediShield, Medisave)	High-quality services, efficient system, government subsidies	High out-of-pocket costs for some treatments

Country	Type of Healthcare System	Strengths	Weaknesses
Brazil	Public healthcare system (Sistema Único de Saúde SUS)	Free healthcare for all citizens, large coverage	Overcrowded hospitals, long waiting times, insufficient funding

Appendix 14. Reading Self- Efficacy Scale

English Reading Self-efficacy Scale:

Below are statements that relate to your reading self-efficacy. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statements by circling the numbers that best apply to you.

When thinking of my **English** reading experience,…	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**No Idea**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. I have the ability to focus all my concentration on the content of **English** text I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I believe that my **English** reading comprehension proficiency improves every day.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am capable of improving my **English** reading comprehension skill.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Reading **English** texts is stressful.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My instructor believes that I am proficient in **English** reading comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I enjoy practicing reading **English** texts with a proficient friend.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I believe that by more practice of reading **English** texts, I can improve the course grades.	1	2	3	4	5
8. At university, I am always voluntary to answer the questions regarding the **English** texts we have read.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am among the best readers at university.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Although my world knowledge is good, I have problems in **English** reading comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I don't care who does well in **English** reading comprehension among my schoolmates.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 15. Reading Achievement Test

*You should spend about **20 minutes** on Questions **1–13**, which are based on the reading passage below.*

Changes in Reading Habits

What are the implications of the way we read today?

Look around on your next plane trip. The iPad is the new pacifier for babies and toddlers. Younger school-aged children read stories on smartphones; older kids don't read at all, but hunch over video games. Parents and other passengers read on tablets or skim a flotilla of email and news feeds. Unbeknown to most of us, an invisible, game-changing transformation links everyone in this picture: the neuronal circuit that underlies the brain's ability to read is subtly, rapidly changing and this has implications for everyone from the pre-reading toddler to the expert adult.

As work in neurosciences indicates, the acquisition of literacy necessitated a new circuit in our species' brain more than 6,000 years ago. That circuit evolved from a very simple mechanism for decoding basic information, like the number of goats in one's herd, to the present, highly elaborated reading brain. My research depicts how the present reading brain enables the development of some of our most important intellectual and affective processes: internalized knowledge, analogical reasoning, and inference; perspective-taking and empathy; critical analysis and the generation of insight. Research surfacing in many parts of the world now cautions that each of these essential 'deep reading' processes may be under threat as we move into digital-based modes of reading.

This is not a simple, binary issue of print versus digital reading and technological innovations. As MIT scholar Sherry Turkle has written, we do not err as a society when we innovate but when we ignore what we disrupt or diminish while innovating. In this hinge moment between print and digital cultures, society needs to confront what is diminishing in the expert reading circuit, what our children and older students are not developing, and what we can do about it.

We know from research that the reading circuit is not given to human beings through a genetic blueprint like vision or language; it needs an environment to develop. Further, it will adapt to that environment's requirements – from different writing systems to the characteristics of whatever medium is used. If the dominant medium advantages processes that are fast, multi-task oriented and well-suited for large volumes of information, like the current digital medium, so will the reading circuit. As UCLA psychologist Patricia Greenfield writes, the result is that less attention and time will be allocated to slower, time-demanding deep reading processes.

Increasing reports from educators and from researchers in psychology and the humanities bear this out. English literature scholar and teacher Mark Edmundson describes how many college students actively avoid the classic literature of the 19th and 20th centuries in favour of something simpler as they no longer have the patience

to read longer, denser, more difficult texts. We should be less concerned with students' 'cognitive impatience', however, than by what may underlie it: the potential inability of large numbers of students to read with a level of critical analysis sufficient to comprehend the complexity of thought and argument found in more demanding texts.

Multiple studies show that digital screen use may be causing a variety of troubling downstream effects on reading comprehension in older high school and college students. In Stavanger, Norway, psychologist Anne Mangen and colleagues studied how high school students comprehend the same material in different mediums. Mangen's group asked subjects questions about a short story whose plot had universal student appeal; half of the students read the story on a tablet, the other half in paperback. Results indicated that students who read on print were superior in their comprehension to screen-reading peers, particularly in their ability to sequence detail and reconstruct the plot in chronological order.

Ziming Liu from San Jose State University has conducted a series of studies which indicate that the 'new norm' in reading is skimming, involving word-spotting and browsing through the text. Many readers now use a pattern when reading in which they sample the first line and then word-spot through the rest of the text. When the reading brain skims like this, it reduces time allocated to deep reading processes. In other words, we don't have time to grasp complexity, to understand another's feelings, to perceive beauty, and to create thoughts of the reader's own.

The possibility that critical analysis, empathy and other deep reading processes could become the unintended 'collateral damage' of our digital culture is not a straightforward binary issue about print versus digital reading. It is about how we all have begun to read o various mediums and how that changes not only what we read, but also the purposes for which we read. Nor is it only about the young. The subtle atrophy of critical analysis and empathy affects us all equally. It affects our ability to navigate a constant bombardment of information. It incentivizes a retreat to the most familiar stores of unchecked information, which require and receive no analysis, leaving us susceptible to false information and irrational ideas.

There's an old rule in neuroscience that does not alter with age: use it or lose it. It is a very hopeful principle when applied to critical thought in the reading brain because it implies choice. The story of the changing reading brain is hardly finished. We possess both the science and the technology to identify and redress the changes in how we read before they become entrenched. If we work to understand exactly what we will lose, alongside the extraordinary new capacities that the digital world has brought us, there is as much reason for excitement as caution.

Questions 1 – 4 *Choose the correct letter,* ***A, B, C*** *or* ***D****.*

1. What is the writer's main point in the first paragraph?

A Our use of technology is having a hidden effect on us.
B Technology can be used to help youngsters to read.
C Travellers should be encouraged to use technology on planes.
D Playing games is a more popular use of technology than reading.

2. What main point does Sherry Turkle make about innovation?
- **A** Technological innovation has led to a reduction in print reading.
- **B** We should pay attention to what might be lost when innovation occurs.
- **C** We should encourage more young people to become involved in innovation.
- **D** There is a difference between developing products and developing ideas.

3. What point is the writer making in the fourth paragraph?
- **A** Humans have an inborn ability to read and write.
- **B** Reading can be done using many different mediums.
- **C** Writing systems make unexpected demands on the brain.
- **D** Some brain circuits adjust to whatever is required of them

4. According to Mark Edmundson, the attitude of college students
- **A** has changed the way he teaches.
- **B** has influenced what they select to read.
- **C** does not worry him as much as it does others.
- **D** does not match the views of the general public.

Questions 5 – 9

*Complete the summary using the list of words, **A-H**, below.*

Studies on digital screen use

There have been many studies on digital screen use, showing some **5** …… trends. Psychologist Anne Mangen gave high-school students a short story to read, half using digital and half using print mediums. Her team then used a question-and-answer technique to find out how **6**…… each group's understanding of the plot was. The findings showed a clear pattern in the responses, with those who read screens finding the order of information **7** …… to recall. Studies by Ziming Liu show that students are tending to read **8** …… words and phrases in a text to save time. This approach, she says, gives the reader a superficial understanding of the **9** …… content of material, leaving no time for thought.

A-fast **B-**isolated **C-**emotional **D-**worrying
E-many **F-**hard **G-**combined **H-**thorough

Questions 10 – 13

Do the following statements agree with the views of the writer in Reading Passage?

TRUE if the statement agrees with the views of the writer
FALSE if the statement contradicts the views of the writer
NOT GIVEN if it is impossible to say what the writer thinks about this

10. The medium we use to read can affect our choice of reading content.

_____

11. Some age groups are more likely to lose their complex reading skills than others.

_____

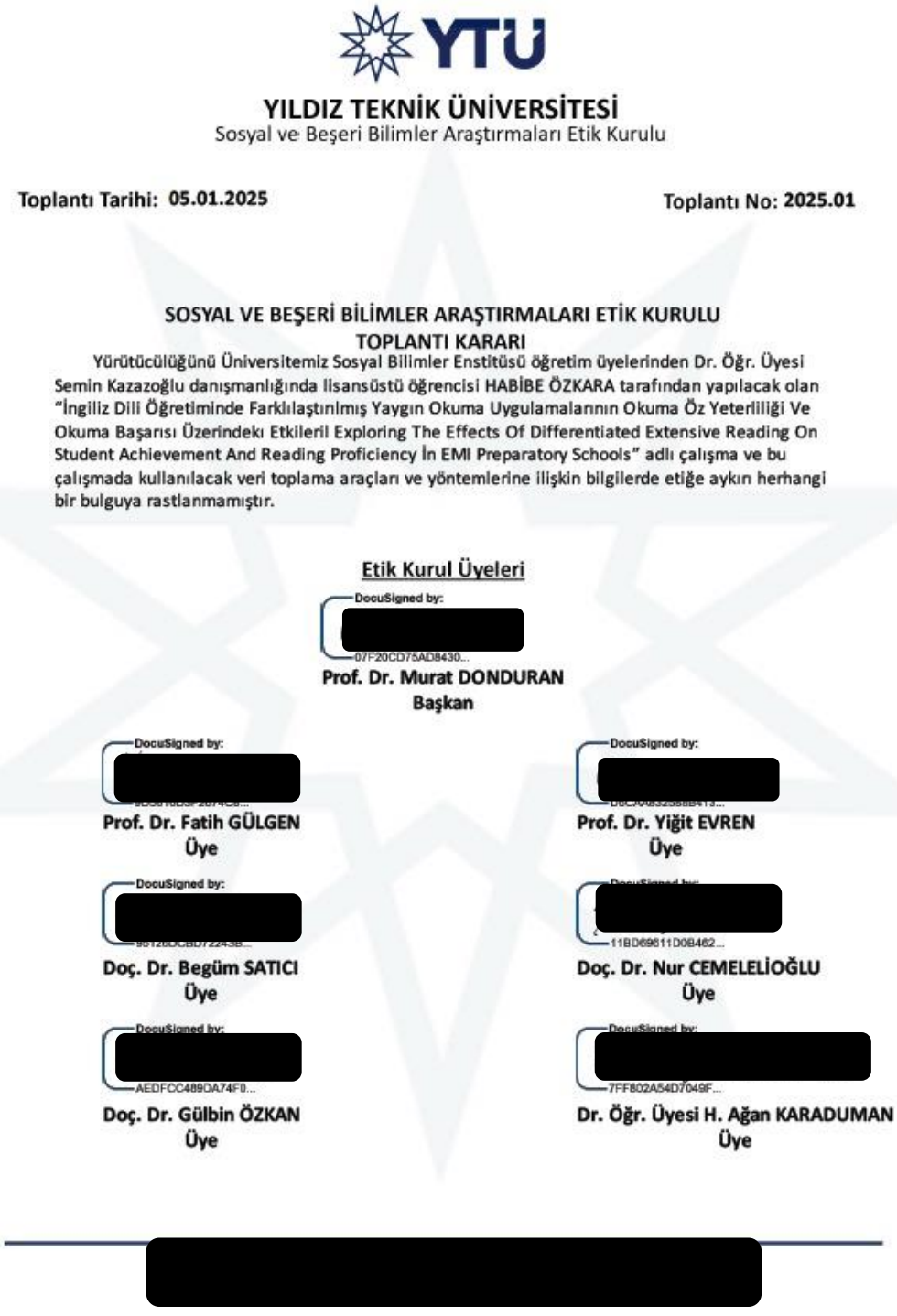
12. False information has become more widespread in today's digital era.

_____

13. We still have opportunities to rectify the problems that technology is presenting.

_____

Appendix 16. Approval of Ethics Committee



YILDIZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu

Toplantı Tarihi: 05.01.2025 Toplantı No: 2025.01

SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU
TOPLANTI KARARI

Yürütücülüğünü Üniversitemiz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü öğretim üyelerinden Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Semin Kazazoğlu danışmanlığında lisansüstü öğrencisi HABİBE ÖZKARA tarafından yapılacak olan "İngiliz Dili Öğretiminde Farklılaştırılmış Yaygın Okuma Uygulamalarının Okuma Öz Yeterliliği Ve Okuma Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkileril Exploring The Effects Of Differentiated Extensive Reading On Student Achievement And Reading Proficiency İn EMI Preparatory Schools" adlı çalışma ve bu çalışmada kullanılacak veri toplama araçları ve yöntemlerine ilişkin bilgilerde etiğe aykın herhangi bir bulguya rastlanmamıştır.

Etik Kurul Üyeleri

DocuSigned by: [redacted] 07F20CD75AD8430...
Prof. Dr. Murat DONDURAN
Başkan

DocuSigned by: [redacted]
Prof. Dr. Fatih GÜLGEN
Üye

DocuSigned by: [redacted]
Prof. Dr. Yiğit EVREN
Üye

DocuSigned by: [redacted]
Doç. Dr. Begüm SATICI
Üye

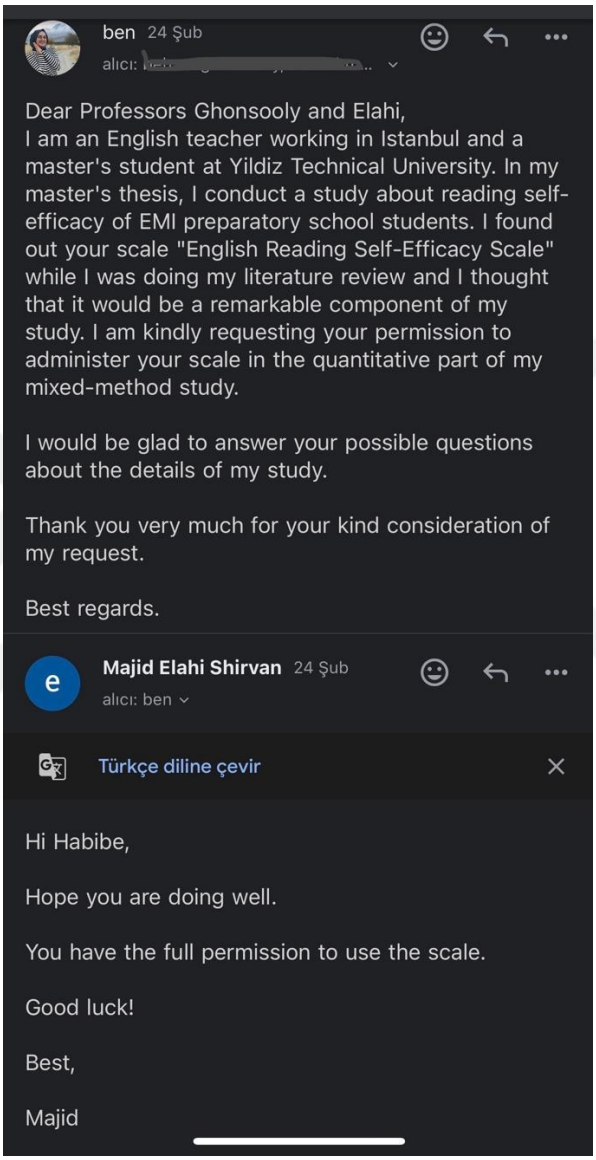
DocuSigned by: [redacted] 11BD69611D0B462...
Doç. Dr. Nur CEMELELİOĞLU
Üye

DocuSigned by: [redacted] AEDFCC489DA74F0...
Doç. Dr. Gülbin ÖZKAN
Üye

DocuSigned by: [redacted] 7FF802A54D7049F...
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi H. Ağan KARADUMAN
Üye

[redacted]

Appendix 17. Permission to Utillize the Scale



ben 24 Şub

alıcı: [redacted]

Dear Professors Ghonsooly and Elahi,
I am an English teacher working in Istanbul and a master's student at Yildiz Technical University. In my master's thesis, I conduct a study about reading self-efficacy of EMI preparatory school students. I found out your scale "English Reading Self-Efficacy Scale" while I was doing my literature review and I thought that it would be a remarkable component of my study. I am kindly requesting your permission to administer your scale in the quantitative part of my mixed-method study.

I would be glad to answer your possible questions about the details of my study.

Thank you very much for your kind consideration of my request.

Best regards.

e **Majid Elahi Shirvan** 24 Şub

alıcı: ben

Türkçe diline çevir

Hi Habibe,

Hope you are doing well.

You have the full permission to use the scale.

Good luck!

Best,

Majid