

KARADENİZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF WESTERN LANGUAGES & LITERATURES

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

EFFECTS OF EXPLICIT METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY TRAINING ON READING
COMPREHENSION, ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING AND STRATEGY
AWARENESS

MASTER'S THESIS

Gülbeste DURGUN

AUGUST 2010

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Thesis Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Abdul Kasım VARLI

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ÖZET

Dil öğrenme stratejileri, öğrenme süreçlerinin sorumluluğunu alabilen özerk öğrenciler yaratmak için önemli araçlardır. Planlama, kontrol etme ve değerlendirme aşamalarında rol oynayan bilişüstü stratejiler bağımsız öğrenme için hayati önem taşır. Bu çalışmanın amacı bilişüstü stratejilerin Türk Üniversiteleri'ndeki yabancı dil öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama, okumaya karşı tutum ve okuma stratejileri farkındalığını geliştirmek için nasıl uygulanabileceğini araştırmaktır.

İzmir Üniversitesi'nden 31 hazırlık okulu öğrencisi çalışmanın örneklemini oluşturdu. Çalışmada yarı deneysel araştırma deseni kullanıldı. Deney grubu 6 haftalık açık bilişüstü strateji eğitimini okuma dersi müfredatı içinde alırken, kontrol grubu açık strateji eğitimi almadı. Çalışmada 2 anket ve bir okuduğunu anlama testi veri toplama aracı olarak kullanıldı. Öğrencilerin okumaya karşı tutumu ASRA (Okuma Davranışı Yetişkin Anketi) ile ölçülürken, okuma stratejileri farkındalığı SORS (Okuma Stratejiler Anketi) ile ölçüldü. Okuduğunu anlama ise çoktan seçmeli bir test ile değerlendirildi. Öntestler çalışmanın başlangıcından bir hafta önce uygulandı ve çalışma sonunda öğrenciler 2 anket ve bir okuduğunu anlama testine sonestler olarak aynı oturum içinde tekrar cevap verdiler. Bilişüstü strateji eğitiminin, okuduğunu anlama, okumaya karşı tutum ve strateji farkındalığı üzerinde önemli sonuçlar doğurup doğurmayacağını görmek için T test değerlendirmeleri uygulandı. Sonuçlar, deney grubuyla kontrol grubu arasında, okuduğunu anlama, okumaya karşı tutum ve strateji farkındalığı açısından anlamlı fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin yabancı dilde okuduğunu anlaması, okumaya karşı tutumu ve okuma farkındalığını daha ileriye taşımak için uygulanan bilişüstü stratejileri sonuçlarda güçlü bir başarı, tutum ve farkındalık seviyesi yaratmamıştır.

ANAHTAR SÖZCÜKLER: Bilişüstü stratejiler, strateji eğitimi, okuduğunu anlama, okumaya karşı tutum, okuma stratejileri farkındalığı

ABSTRACT

Language learning strategies are important tools for creating autonomous learners who can take responsibility for their own learning processes. Metacognitive strategies which function in planning, monitoring and evaluating the phases of the process are vital for independent learning.

The purpose of this study was to explore how metacognitive strategies can be implemented in Turkish universities to improve EFL students' reading comprehension, reading attitude and strategy awareness.

31 preparatory school students at Izmir University were recruited as subjects in the study. A quasi-experimental research design was used. The experimental group received a 6 week explicit metacognitive strategy training embedded in their reading class curriculum. The control group in the study received no explicit strategy training.

2 questionnaires and one reading comprehension test were used as data collection instruments in the study. Students' attitudes towards reading were measured by ASRA (Adult Survey of Reading Attitude) and reading strategy awareness was measured by SORS (Survey of Reading Strategies). Reading comprehension was assessed by using a multiple choice test. Pretests were given a week before the study and at the end of the intervention study. Students answered the two questionnaires and the comprehension test again as post tests in the same session.

T-test measures were employed to assess whether metacognitive strategy training could bring significant outcomes on the EFL reading comprehension, reading attitude and strategy awareness. The results showed that the experimental group did not outperform the control group in terms of reading comprehension, attitude towards reading and reading strategy awareness. The metacognitive strategies that were taught in order to facilitate reading comprehension, improve reading attitudes and strategy awareness of preparatory school students at tertiary level did not cause any significant difference between the experimental and control groups in this study.

KEY WORDS: Metacognitive strategies, strategy training, reading comprehension, attitude towards reading, reading strategy awareness.

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ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of explicit metacognitive strategy training on Turkish university students' reading comprehension achievement, attitudes towards reading and reading strategy awareness. The main concepts of the study are metacognitive strategies instruction and reading skill.

“Reading comprehension is specifically the basic goal for ESL/EFL students to gain an understanding of the world and of themselves” (Fan, 2009: 3). For language learners, reading is “both a means to the end of acquiring the language, as a major source of comprehensible input, and an end in itself, as the skill that many serious learners most need to employ” (Eskey, 2005: 563). Students usually learn English to carry on their academic studies, and without doubt reading is the most important skill to reach information.

However, reading, one of the most important skills in language learning, has not been given enough attention by language learners and “declines in reading interest and abilities among adolescents concerned educators worldwide” (Chiang, 2007: 169). Students tend to find reading both boring and tiring. Besides, they find texts too difficult to comprehend. This deficiency in comprehending texts can be overcome by using language learning strategies because students' difficulty in understanding texts does not stem only from their inadequate L2 knowledge, but also from a lack of strategic knowledge. Without doubt, “reading is the kind of process in which one needs to not only understand its direct meaning, but also comprehend its implied ideas” (Fan, 2009: 3). Language learning strategies help learners to find these implied ideas more easily.

Before the 60s, reading was believed to be a passive skill. Yet the 70s brought several changes to second language acquisition. With the introduction of cognitive psychology, reading was now seen as “an active, purposeful and creative mental process” (Goodman, cited in Eskey, 2005: 564).

Since reading comprehension has been very important both in the first and second/foreign language, strategies are of great interest in reading research. Recently, reading research has also shed light on metacognitive awareness of reading strategies, perception of strategies, and strategy use/training in reading comprehension. Strategy training studies have shown that intervention studies have usually resulted in improved performance of L2 reading. The first research question of this study was about the

relationship between strategy training and reading comprehension. The study aimed at investigating the effects of metacognitive strategy training on students' reading comprehension achievement.

Attitude towards reading has been shown as a prominent factor which impacts reading achievement (Kush and Watkins, 1996). Reading attitude is defined as “the tendency or disposition of students to value reading situations and reading material positively or negatively” (Houtveen and van de Grift , 2007:181). It has been mentioned in books and articles about learning strategies that strategy training has the potential of creating more autonomous and enjoying learners, thus making language learning process much easier for both learners and teachers. The second research question addressed in this study was about the effects of strategy training on students' attitudes towards reading.

Awareness and monitoring of one's comprehension are other vital aspects of skilled reading (Anastasiou and Griva, 2009), since successful reading comprehension is “not simply a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but the reader must also know how to use it successfully” (Anderson, 1991, p. 19). It is not being able to use a strategy that makes a reader successful, but it is the ability to know when and why to use a strategy that makes a reader more successful than the other readers. The third research question addressed in this study was about the effects of strategy training on students' awareness of reading strategies.

In order to answer the three research questions, this study took place at Izmir University, where the medium of instruction is English in most departments. Most of the content courses are conducted in English with the exception of a few, such as Turkish Language and Turkish History.

The School of Foreign Languages serves as the Preparatory School. Proficiency exams are held at the beginning of each year, and students who are not able to pass spend their first year at the Preparatory School.

Preparatory School aims at equipping students with the required linguistic and academic skills which will enable them to carry out their academic studies in their departments. Every level, from Elementary to Advanced, includes 3 hours' reading class each week.

The School of Foreign Languages is also responsible for providing Reading and Writing classes for the other departments at the university. In addition to these, Academic Reading classes, students are required to do a lot of reading in their courses. Reading books, articles, and other course material is the most important source of gaining knowledge.

Since reading is not just decoding the meaning of single words and realizing grammatical structures, teaching learning strategies can be of great help in improving students' comprehension.

This study aimed to contribute to the language learning strategy research, which, since the early 70's, has been welcomed enthusiastically by language teachers. The idea of putting the language learner in the centre was promising. Since then, defining and classifying strategies and teaching those strategies to students for enhancing learning have been key issues in research literature. Until the 90's, there had been little intervention studies, yet following years witnessed more research on teaching learning strategies. Though general view held by the researchers in the field is that strategies enhance learning, there have been studies which indicate no enhancement.

This 40 year research history includes a substantial number of discussions on how to define strategies and how to implement strategy instruction. Yet, there have been very few studies investigating the effects of strategy training in Turkish settings. This study, therefore, was carried out in a Turkish university setting, in two EFL classes with the belief that it could offer a useful contribution to research on learning strategy research.

Research Questions that were addressed in this study are as follows:

- 1) Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect reading comprehension achievement of EFL learners?
- 2) Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect EFL learners' attitudes towards reading?
- 3) Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect the awareness of reading strategies of EFL learners?

Conclusion

In this part, the present study and its significance were summarized briefly and the research questions were introduced. The first chapter is the Literature Review. It mentions the first studies on good language learners, which later turned into language learning strategy research. The Literature Review chapter lists the definitions of learning strategies and prominent classifications of these strategies. The chapter also explains how this study relates to the literature. The second chapter is the Methodology. The Methodology chapter describes the participants of the study, instruments that were used, the procedure of the study, and how data were analyzed. The third chapter is the Data Analysis. It presents the data and it analyses the data. The fourth chapter is the Discussion and Conclusion. In the fourth chapter, conclusions are drawn and implications of the study are discussed.

CHAPTER 1: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1.1. Communicative Competence and Learning Strategies

By the 1970s, the belief which had interested language teaching for decades started losing its strength. “Behaviourist theories had been eclipsed by the Chomskyan revolution which put forth the notion of universal grammar” (Grenfell, 2007: 10).

Hymes (1972) questioned Chomsky’s ideas and put forth a definition of communicative competence. In language teaching, there was a need to focus on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The Communicative Approach in language teaching started from a theory of language as communication. “The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as ‘communicative competence’” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 159).

Communicative competence is the “knowledge of not only if something is formally possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible, appropriate, or done in a particular speech community” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 90). It is the desired goal of language learning. The term “communicative competence” was first coined by Hymes (1972) as a response to Chomsky’s competence-performance distinction. He proposed the term to correspond to the use of language in social context, “the observance of sociolinguistic norms of appropriacy” (Savignon, 1991: 264).

Hymes (1972) considered four aspects in his definition of communicative competence:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails (Hymes, 1972: 281).

According to Hymes, communicative competence is the interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems of competence. Later, Canale and Swain (1980) advanced the term communicative competence and included three basic competencies in their theory:

1. grammatical competence: grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and semantics knowledge of a language.
2. sociolinguistic competence: appropriate use of a language.
3. strategic competence: appropriate use of communication strategies (Ellis, 2008).

Grammatical competence includes knowledge of lexical items and morphology rules, syntax rules, sentence-grammar semantics rules and phonology rules Sociolinguistic competence; on the other hand, comprises sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse. These rules are vital in order to interpret utterances for social meaning. Strategic competence includes verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are called into action “to compensate for breakdowns in communication” (Canale & Swain, 1980: 30).

Canale (1983) further added discourse competence: cohesion and coherence to the component list, yet this latest component has been controversial in that it is argued to be a part of sociolinguistic competence by some linguists.

Communicative competence is the ultimate goal that the language teacher wants his/her students to achieve. To achieve this final goal, teachers of English aim at developing students’ ability to form grammatically correct utterances in the right social contexts considering different speech acts such as requests, suggestions, invitations and the forms in which the utterances are produced. In addition, they aim to develop the strategic competence which is vital while compensating for their weaknesses. Discourse competence, which may be considered under sociolinguistic competence, too is the other target to be achieved by developing the knowledge of beginning and ending a conversation.

In communicative language teaching, the focus is on learning rather than teaching, and the learners are in the center, not the teacher. As Oxford, Lavine, Crookall (1989) put forth, the approach indirectly makes learners take more active roles for their learning.

On the way to the ultimate attainment of the language, competent communicators (students) need tools, and Oxford (1990: 1) comments that language learner strategies are the “tools for active, self directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence”. From the initial stage of language learning, towards natively like proficiency of the language, students need some strategies for understanding, recalling, analyzing, synthesizing, applying and evaluating the information.

1.2. Research on Language Learning Strategies

Since the early 70's, second/foreign language research has focused on the learner and learning rather than the teacher and teaching (Anderson, 2005; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern and Todesco, 1978; Wenden, 1987). Now students are viewed in the centre of learning process and they are responsible for handling the process themselves. Therefore, close attention has been given to the role of strategies in L2 learning (Anderson, 1991, 2005; Cohen, 1990, 1998; Hosenfeld, 1979; Naiman et al., 1975; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1993; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Wenden, 1991, 2002; Wong-Fillmore, 1979). "Right from its introduction in L2 research in the late 1970's, the notion of 'learning strategy' was intuitively very appealing to researchers and was also embraced with enthusiasm by language teachers" (Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003: 607).

Since the 1980's, there has been considerable growth in research on learner strategies. This research has attempted to explore the strategies that learners of a second language (L2) employ either when learning a language or when using a language or both (Macaro, 2006). Four often-cited books have contributed a lot to the learning strategy research (Naiman et al., 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). They all tried to provide the theoretical underpinnings for future research and showed the direct applicability of strategies into the classroom (Macaro, 2006).

Chamot (2005: 112) describes the research on language learning strategies as "sporadic". She points out that 1980's and early 1990's saw abundant descriptive research on LLS which was called "explosion of activity" by Skehan (1989: 285), yet the following years were not as productive. On the other hand, Griffiths (2004: 2) talks about the growing awareness about learning strategies. She adds "however, defining and classifying language learning strategies remains no easy task". "There is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities"; moreover, there is significant confusion about definitions of specific strategies and "about the hierarchic relationship among them" (Griffiths, 2004: 2).

With its fuzzy nature, research on language learning strategies has focused on five key issues, as Anderson (2005: 757) suggests, and these will be commented on in the following parts:

- 1- the identification, classification, and measurement of language learning strategies,
- 2- the distinction between language use and language learning strategies,

- 3- the relationship between strategies and L2 proficiency,
- 4- the transferability of strategies from first language (L1) tasks to L2 tasks, and
- 5- the explicit instruction of language learning strategies.

1.2.1. Early Research: Good Learners vs. Poor Learners

It was not in the 1970's that language learners first started using strategies. "Strategies have actually been used for thousands of years" although they were named as "strategies" in 70's (Oxford, 1990: 1). Developments in the cognitive psychology and cognitive approach to language learning paved the way for research on language learning strategies and the research on language learning strategies started in the 1960s.

Research on language learning strategies emerged from the studies defining good (also called *successful* or *efficient*) language learner characteristics. Two early studies of Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) were attempts to list the characteristics of good language learners in order to teach their poor peers what they did well in their language learning process.

"If there is one article which can be seen to have announced the birth of language learner strategy research, then it was: "What the 'Good Language Learner' Can Teach Us" by Joan Rubin in 1975 (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007: 11). Rubin (1975) set out to identify the strategies of successful learners so that these strategies would be taught "to poorer learners to enhance their success record" (Rubin, 1975: 42).

Rubin's (1975) strategies were "compiled after observing students in classrooms, talking to good language learners and second language teachers, and taking note of her own behavior" (Naiman et al., 1978: 5). Psychological, communication, social and cognitive strategies were considered in her study and the study "was viewed with great interest because it paralleled the development in cognitive literature on the mental processes of the good learner" (Nambiar, 2009: 134). In her study on good language learners' characteristics, Rubin (1975: 45-46) pointed out seven good language learner strategies, the observation of which is complicated according to her, and which involve cognitive processes that learners or teachers may not be able to specify:

1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.
 2. The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from a communication.
 3. The good language learner is often not inhibited.
- He is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results. He is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and to communicate.

4. In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form.

The good language learner is constantly looking for patterns in the language.

5. The good language learner practices.

He may practice pronouncing words or making up sentences. He will seek out opportunities to use the language by looking for native speakers, going to the movies or to cultural events.

6. The good language learner monitors his own and the speech of others.

That is, he is constantly attending to how well his speech is being received and whether his performance meets the standards he has learned

7. The good language learner attends to meaning.

He knows that in order to understand the message, it is not sufficient to pay attention to the grammar of the language or to the surface form of speech.

Most of the characteristics mentioned by Rubin (1975) above have been affirmed by later research. Yet, research has shown that “uninhibited” nature of the good language learner does not reflect the reality itself. “Because of language anxiety, many potentially excellent L2 learners are naturally inhibited; they combat inhibition by using positive self-talk, by extensive use of practicing in private, and by putting themselves in situations where they have to participate communicatively” (Oxford, 1994).

Rubin (1975: 48) did not only list the strategies of good learners in her work but also emphasized the need for more “systematic and deeper” research on the issue as there were, she believed, more “things” good language learners did that made them successful.

In the same year when Rubin listed the characteristics of good language learner, Stern (1975) defined ten strategies of good language learners:

- 1.** Planning Strategy: A personal learning style or positive learning strategy
- 2.** Active Strategy: An active approach to the learning task.
- 3.** Empathic Strategy: A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and its speakers.
- 4.** Formal Strategy: Technical know-how of how to tackle a language.
- 5.** Experimental Strategy: A methodical but flexible approach, developing the new language into an ordered system and constantly revising it.
- 6.** Semantic Strategy: Constant searching for meaning.
- 7.** Practice Strategy: Willingness to practice.
- 8.** Communication Strategy: Willingness to use the language in real communication.
- 9.** Monitoring Strategy: Self- monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
- 10.** Internalization Strategy: Developing L2 more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

Stern's list of strategies derived from three main sources: Naiman and his friends. (1978) list these sources as 1) Stern's understanding of language competence, 2) Stern's past experience as a teacher and learner and 3) Stern's reviewing of the literature of language learning, and that is the reason why Grenfell and Macaro (2007) find Stern's (1975) list "conceptual and speculative". Like Rubin's list of strategies, Stern's strategies of good language learners are "the most part intuitive" (Nambiar, 2009:135).

Another researcher, Wong-Fillmore (1976) identified the 'social strategies' used by successful language learners, and pointed out the link between strategies that contribute indirectly to learning and learning strategies. Observing Mexican and American children, Wong-Fillmore (1976) found that by using a few well-chosen formulas, these learners could converse with each other and learn the new material. "Her research was more in the area of communication strategies than within the broader definition of language learning strategies" (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007: 13), but is worth mentioning in the history of strategy research.

Both Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) proposed more research on good language learners and strategy inventories. Naiman and his colleagues (1978: 30) answered their call with an (semi-directed and directed) interview questionnaire. They had interviews with 34 language learners using Stern's list of strategies as their "initial frame of reference". Stern's list of strategies was "modified and extended according to the statements and views expressed by interviewees". What they came up with was 5 major strategies of good language learners with an additional list of techniques in "sound acquisition, grammar, vocabulary, listening comprehension, learning to talk, learning to write and learning to read".

Good Language Learner Strategies of Naiman et al. (1978: 33-37):

1. Active task approach
2. Realization of language as a system
3. Realization of language as a means of communication and interaction
4. Management of affective demands
5. Monitoring of L2 performance

What they put forth was not a complete list, either. Hardly can any learners do all these all the time. In addition, whether the strategic dimension varies according to the context and learner's linguistic competence were not considered and clearly explained in

the study. (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007). Yet, “this study anticipated many of the issues and questions that preoccupied SLA researchers in the 1980s” (Norton & Toohy, 2001: 308).

Strategy lists suggested by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975) and Naiman et al. (1978) were not theoretically grounded, yet they were seminal in that later research on language learning strategies had its source in these lists. “What we see in these seminal studies are issues concerning the epistemological core of LLS research in terms of its social and psychological aspects” (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007: 13). Most of the research in the 1970s and 80s “underlined its dual nature” (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007: 13).

All told, these studies identified the good language learner as “one who is a mentally active learner, who monitors language comprehension and production, who practices communicating in the language, who makes use of prior linguistic and general knowledge, who uses various memorization techniques, and who asks questions for clarification” (Chamot, 2005: 115).

These studies on the good language learner were “useful in providing later researchers with keen insights into the behaviors of successful language learners” (Nambiar, 2009: 135). Dörnyei and Skehan (2003: 608) summarizes this early period of language learning strategies. They think that results of all these studies in this “initial phase”, showed “in a fairly consistent manner that it was not merely a high degree of language aptitude and motivation that caused some learners to excel, but also the students’ own active and creative participation in the learning process through the application of individualized learning techniques”.

1.3. Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

There have been many attempts to define what language learning strategies are and what features and functions they have. As mentioned before, research on strategies started with studies which were concerned with defining good language learner characteristics. Research literature has offered various definitions of language learning strategies since then.

Strategy, *technique* (Stern, 1983), *tactic* (Seliger, 1984), and *move* (Sarig, 1987), among other terms have been the names given to the same kind of behavior/action/thoughts. In addition, the split between macro-strategies and micro-strategies and tactics (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991) has been mentioned in literature. “A solution to the problem would be to refer to all of these simply as strategies, while still

acknowledging that there is a continuum from the broadest categories to the most specific or low-level” (Cohen, 1998: 10). Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) prefer the term strategy since it was Rubin (1975) that used it in probably the first study in the area.

Thus, one of the early definitions belongs to Rubin (1975: 43), in her seminal work on good language learners. The definition is broad in scope: “The techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge”. Another researcher, Bialystok (1978: 76), in her article commenting on language learning model, defines learning strategies as “optional methods for exploiting available information to increase the proficiency of second language learning”.

Stern (1983: 414), whose early study is also accepted as one of the leading works in the field, later puts forth a definition of language learning strategies as “general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner”, and techniques as “particular forms of observable learning behaviour”. The definition can be listed under the definitions which are more concerned with the “observability of the strategies” (Purpura, 1999: 23). He criticizes the definition since depictions such as “general tendencies” or “approaches to learning” in Stern’s (1983) study “relate to factors that affect strategy choice or to one’s ‘learning style’”(e.g., risk-taker).

Weinstein and Mayer’s (1986: 316) definition, on the other hand, includes both observable and unobservable aspects of strategies. They define learning strategies as “the behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process”. Weinstein and Mayer’s taxonomy (1986) outlines learning strategies from a cognitive perspective. “This cognitive approach determines strategies and methods available to learners to assist them with selection, acquisition, construction, and integration of knowledge” (Filcher & Miller, 2000: 62). These strategies are rehearsal, elaboration, organizational and monitoring strategies.

While observability is an important issue in defining strategies, intentionality is another aspect to consider. Chamot’s (1987: 71) definition of strategies focuses on the intentionality issue. Strategies are “techniques, approaches or *deliberate actions* that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information” (emphasis added).

Oxford (1989: 235) defines strategies as “behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable”. Later, “steps

taken by students” replaces “behaviors or actions” in the definition (Oxford, 1990: 1). The reason of this change in the definition is the lack of mental processes in the first definition. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003: 608) posit that steps taken “accommodate both behavioral and mental steps”. Oxford (1990) wants her definition to include cognitive aspects of learning.

Hsiao and Oxford (2002: 369) emphasize the consciousness aspect. To them, “the term strategy implies conscious movement toward a goal”. They state that there have been debates on the degree of consciousness, yet “the necessity of some level of conscious intention in using L2 strategies” is agreed on by most researchers.

O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo and Küpper (1985: 557) choose to use Dansereau’s (1985) definition as the starting point of their study. They accept strategies as “operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information. O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) put forth a more specific definition: “The special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information”. Their conceptualization differs from Oxford’s since it highlights cognitive aspects of strategy use. This aspect of their definition of strategies indicates their attempt to ground learning strategy research in Anderson’s (1983) general cognitive psychological theory (Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003). O’Malley and Chamot (1990) emphasize that Anderson’s cognitive theory is of principal interest in their analysis.

In a more recent study, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999: 2) define strategies as “procedures or techniques that learners can use to facilitate a learning task”. On the observability of strategies, they comment that some strategies, such as taking notes or making graphic organizers, are observable, but most strategies are mental processes that are not directly observable (Chamot et al., 1999: 2).

According to Wenden (1987: 6), “the term learner strategies refers to language behaviours learners actually engage in to regulate the learning of a second language” , later she makes changes in her definition by replacing “language behaviors” with “mental steps or operations” (Wenden, 1991: 18).

Cohen (1996, 1998, 2003) touches on the ‘consciousness’ aspect of strategies. In his point of view, consciousness is the thing that differentiates between strategies and non-strategic behaviors. He believes that the element of choice is crucial in defining strategies because it gives the strategy its character. Therefore, Cohen (1998:4) defines learning

strategies as “processes which are consciously selected by the learner”. Later, Cohen (2003: 280) adds that those processes can be “semi-conscious” and there is an “explicit goal of improving their (students’) knowledge and understanding of a target language”. When a strategy is so habitual that it is no longer within the learner’s conscious awareness and control, it becomes a process (Cohen, 1998; Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Cohen (1996, 1998, 2003) goes further and suggests a split between *language learning* and *language use* strategies. Cohen (1998: 4) believes that these strategies can lead to the enhancement of learning and use of a second or foreign language “through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language”. He offers an umbrella term “*language learner strategies*” to cover these two kinds of strategies and defines each strategy.

Language learning strategies involve the strategies which are used for identifying the material that will be learned, “distinguishing it from other material if need be, grouping it for easier learning(...), having repeated contact with the material (...), and formally committing the material to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally (Cohen, 1998: 5).

In Cohen’s (1996, 1998, 2003) distinction, *language use strategies*, on the other hand, refer to strategies that “focus primarily on employing the language that learners have in their current interlanguage” (Cohen, 1996: 3). Retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, cover strategies, and communication strategies are among the *language use strategies*.

Hsiao and Oxford (2002: 378-379) comment on Cohen’s split between learner strategies. They think that the distinction is valuable as a reminder that L2 learning and L2 use are not the same. “However, in actual practice it is often difficult or impossible to separate learning the L2 from using the L2. Does the learner stop learning when he or she puts the language into use while writing a letter in the L2, reading L2 newspapers, or conversing with a native speaker?”. They suggest that the distinction between L2 learning and L2 use is rather related to emphasis; “that both learning and use can occur simultaneously; and that in daily reality the strategies for L2 learning and L2 use overlap considerably, especially for beginning and intermediate learners” .

In addition to the distinction between *language learning* and *use* strategies, Cohen (1998) distinguishes between cognitive, metacognitive and affective or social strategies. However, Anderson (2005) criticizes both of these classifications as follows:

According to Anderson (2005), the way that Cohen (1996) classifies strategies within these two categories (language use strategies: retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, cover strategies, and communication strategies; language learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective) suggests that employing cognitive and metacognitive strategies only occurs during the learning phase and not the use phase of language. This seems to be short-sighted. “As learners move from learning to use they free up cognitive capacity from thinking about the language to knowing how to use it. They are now in a position to implement more cognitive and metacognitive strategies” (Anderson, 2005: 762).

A recent definition of strategies comes from Anderson (2003, 2005). “Strategies are the conscious actions that learners take to improve their language learning” (Anderson, 2005: 757). They can be observable, “such as observing someone take notes during an academic lecture to recall information better”, or they can be mental, “such as thinking about what one already knows on a topic before reading a passage in a textbook”. Since strategies are conscious, there is active engagement of the L2 learner in their selection and use. Anderson (2005: 757) point out that these strategies are “not isolated actions, but rather a process of orchestrating more than one action to accomplish an L2 task”. It is helpful to accept strategy use as an orchestra.

Within second or foreign language education, various definitions of language learning strategies some of which have been mentioned above have been offered by respected scholars in the field for nearly four decades. From all these definitions, a change over time may be noted: “from the early focus on the product of language learning strategies (linguistic or sociolinguistic competence), there is now a greater emphasis on the processes and the characteristics of language learning strategies” (Lessard- Clouston, 1997: 2).

Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) review definitions of language learning strategies, and argue that a strategy cannot be either cognitive or emotional or behavioral. They ask whether a strategy is a neurological process, or a cognitive operation, or a behavioral act involving motor skills. Moreover, Dörnyei (2005: 164) points out the inability of researchers to explain the difference between "engaging in an ordinary learning activity and a strategic learning activity", a problem that has led him to question the very existence of learner strategies.

We can conclude by referring to Gu (2007: vii) who states that “30 years of research has told us that language learning strategy is a multidimensional and elusive moving target, not a straightforward construct to conceptualize and operationalize.”

1.4. Characteristics Of Language Learning Strategies

Although the definition of strategies have shown differences among researchers, characteristics of language learning strategies have not created such a controversy among researchers. Wenden (1987: 7-8) briefly describes the characteristics of the language learning strategies in their book with Rubin (1987). According to her;

- 1) Strategies refer to specific actions or techniques such as repeating a phrase to remember it
- 2) Some of these actions are observable such as asking a question and others are not observable such as a mental comparison
- 3) Strategies are problem oriented-learners utilize them to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information.
- 4) Strategies refer to language learning behaviours that contribute directly to learning and those which contribute indirectly to learning, like Rubin put forth earlier.
- 5) Sometimes strategies may be consciously deployed, and sometimes they can become automatized and remain below consciousness
- 6) Strategies are behaviours that are amenable to change.

Oxford (1990: 9) list characteristics of language learning strategies. According to Oxford, they

1. contribute to the main goal; communicative competence.
2. allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. expand the role of language teachers.
4. are problem-oriented.
5. are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. involve many aspects, not just the cognitive.
7. support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. are not always observable.
9. are often conscious.
10. can be taught.
11. are flexible.
12. are influenced by a variety of factors.

In an attempt to clarify elusive debates in language learning research, Cohen and Macaro (2007) edit a book in which leading researchers in the field share their ideas.

Grenfell and Macaro (2007), two of those respected researchers, summarize claims of authors made until the 2000's in a chapter:

1. The strategies that learners use are accessible and can be documented.
2. A strategy is a construct that can be defined, and what it is and what it does can be described in practical terms.
3. Strategies are important because they are associated with successful learning.
4. Some learner types are more likely to use strategies or use them more successfully than other learner types.
5. Strategies can be taught and learners, as a result, can develop more effective strategic behaviour.

1.5. Purposes of Language Learning Strategies

Although the definition of strategies has remained to be a fuzzy issue, researchers have agreed upon the purposes of strategies in language learning. Cohen (2007) devotes a chapter to the survey questionnaire results administered to an international group of strategy experts to come to an agreement and he sums up the ideas of the respected scholars in the field.

Firstly, there is a general agreement that strategies aim at *enhancing learning*. According to Cohen (1998), their purpose is to enhance not only learning of a L2 but also the use of the L2. Similarly, Oxford and Crookall (1989) set purposes of strategies as aiding the acquisition, storing, and retrieving of information. Oxford (1989) states that strategies aim at more successful language learning. Weinstein and Mayer's (1986) point of view is similar: facilitation of learning is the goal of the learner.

Another purpose of strategies agreed on by most researchers in Cohen's (2007) survey is *performing specific tasks*. Many researchers point out that selection of learning strategies depend on the task. Whereas one strategy is suitable for a specific task, it does not work for another. Oxford (1990: 3) has a similar point of view. She states that "certain strategies or clusters of strategies are linked to particular language skills or tasks". For instance, strategies of planning, self-monitoring, deduction, and substitution are appropriate for L2 writing, like L1 writing, In L2 speaking; risk-taking, paraphrasing, circumlocution, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation strategies are preferred. However, strategies of elaboration, inferencing, selective attention, and self-monitoring are more suitable for L2 listening while in reading students prefer to use strategies such as reading aloud, guessing, deduction, and summarizing.

The third purpose of learning strategies is listed as *solving specific problems* (Cohen, 2007). Since the nature of language learning is somehow problematic (Oxford, 1990), strategies are used for problem solving in language learning. Gu (2005) proposes that the core of a strategy is problem solving as its central aim. “From selectively attending to a problem, (...) to the execution, and evaluation of a plan (...), every step is an integral link of the strategy chain; and every step involves the strategic choice on the part of the problem solver” (Gu, 2005: 6).

To make learning easier, faster, and more enjoyable is another purpose of learning strategies (Cohen, 2007; Oxford, 1990; Hsiao and Oxford, 1989;). Learning or being aware of strategies make the language learner more aware of himself. It is this self-awareness aspect that makes language learning more “satisfying and enriching” (Cohen, 2007: 39).

Strategies aim *at compensating for a deficit in learning* (Cohen, 2007). The last purpose which receives half disagreement of the respondents in the expert survey is related to deficits in language learning. While some of the researchers agree that strategies are used for counterbalancing deficits in language learning, others oppose the idea by putting forth that not all highly strategic behavior indicates a deficit or a problem.

1.6. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Since the 70's there have been several attempts to define who ‘good language learner’ is and what s/he does in order to be successful in learning a language. This is where research on language learning strategies was born in the 1970's, as mentioned before (Naimann et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975;). These studies offer characteristics of successful language learners on which later classifications are based.

Five primary strategies were consistently addressed in these early studies: (1) memorization strategies, (2) clarification strategies, (3) communication strategies, (4) monitoring strategies, and (5) prior knowledge strategies (Anderson, 2005: 758).

Comprehensive classification systems of learner strategies have been developed to classify the information derived from descriptive studies that seek to chart the subtle permutations and often imprecise definitions of learners’ self-reported strategies (Chamot, 2004). While earlier classifications were mostly based on observations, “more recently, strategy identification and classification have been data-driven through think-aloud protocol analysis” (Chamot, 2004: 17). Many classification systems have been tried by researchers in order to group individual strategies within larger categories.

Language learning strategies have been classified into seven major categories: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, mnemonic or memory related strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies, social strategies, and self-motivating strategies (Anderson, 2003). Oxford (1990) mentions the first six of these categories, while other researchers (Chamot, O'Malley, 1990; Chamot et al, 1999; Cohen, 1998) use a smaller number.

A comparatively recent research article provides empirical data into how to classify language learning strategies best. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) compare three prominent classification theories of language learning strategies. Fifteen strategy classifications were developed and tested based on the classification systems proposed by Oxford (1990), Rubin (1981) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990). Before revealing the results of their study, the above mentioned classifications need to be explained in detail. Below are those language learning classifications and the comparisons between classifications.

1.6.1. Rubin's (1981) Classification of Learning Strategies

Rubin (1981) distinguishes between direct strategies and indirect strategies, the former referring to the strategies that directly contribute to learning, and the latter referring to the ones that affect learning indirectly. Under direct strategies, she lists *clarification /verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning* and *practice*. The indirect strategies are *creating opportunities for practice* and *production tricks*. In addition to these strategies, every single strategy includes specific sub-strategies (Rubin, 1981).

1.6.2. Oxford's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford's (1990) classification has been accepted as one of the most prominent in the field (see Table 1). "Rubin's (1981) direct/indirect dichotomy, along with the non-L2 work of Dansereau (1985) and others, led to Oxford's (1990)" division of language learning strategies into two groups; direct and indirect, which are divided into six sub-classes (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 370).

Table 1. Oxford's (1990) Language Learning Strategies

OXFORD's (1990) STRATEGY CLASSIFICATION	
I) DIRECT STRATEGIES	II) INDIRECT STRATEGIES
I. Memory Strategies	I. Metacognitive Strategies
A. Creating mental linkages	A. Centering your learning
B. Applying images and sounds	B. Arranging and planning your learning
C. Reviewing well	C. Evaluating your learning
D. Employing action	II. Affective Strategies
II. Cognitive Strategies	A. Lowering your anxiety
A. Practising	B. Encouraging yourself
B. Receiving and sending messages	C. Taking your emotional temperature
C. Analysing and reasoning	III. Social Strategies
D. Creating structure for input and output	A. Asking questions
III. Compensation strategies	B. Cooperating with others
A. Guessing intelligently	C. Emphathizing with others

Source: (adapted from Oxford, 1990: 17)

Although direct / indirect dichotomies of Rubin (1981) and Oxford (1990) are alike, there are some striking differences between them. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) point out the first difference between taxonomies as the different understandings of direct and indirect. In addition to this understanding, specific strategies show differences in terms of their titles in the taxonomies.

Rubin's clarification/verification and monitoring, which were classified as two of the direct strategies, find their counterparts in Oxford's (1990) indirect strategies (asking questions for clarification/verification = social strategy; monitoring = metacognitive

strategy). Production tricks (one type of Rubin's indirect strategies) correspond somewhat to a subset of Oxford's compensation strategies (among the direct strategies). Further inspection of results in Rubin (1981) shows that Rubin's classification results in overlapping of strategies (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 370-371).

In Oxford's taxonomy, *direct strategies* are the ones which involve mental processing of the language and the three direct strategies (*memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies*) play different roles in the system and perform mental processing differently. These strategies can be defined briefly: *memory strategies* help learners store and retrieve new information; *cognitive strategies* "enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different means; *compensation strategies* allow learners to use the language despite their often large gaps in knowledge" (Oxford, 1990: 37).

Direct strategy classification receives criticism from Dörnyei and Skehan (2003: 608) who believe that the division brings about questions to discuss. One of their criticisms is related to "compensation" (i.e, communication) strategies. They are of the opinion that "compensation strategies are primarily related to language use rather than language learning (and were included on the basis that language use leads to language acquisition)". Another point they mention involves cognitive and memory strategies which, they think, "are treated as separate categories of equal status, even though the latter is obviously a sub-class of the former".

Indirect strategies (metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, social strategies) in Oxford's (1990: 135) taxonomy are described as the strategies "that underpin the business of language learning". *Metacognitive strategies* are "actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process" (Oxford, 1990: 136). *Affective strategies* are the ones by which learners are able to gain control over affective factors such as emotions, attitudes, motivation and values. *Social strategies* are "actions involving other people in the language learning process" (Oxford & Crookall, 1989: 404).

In her book, Oxford (1990) warns the reader that "any current understanding of language learning strategies is necessarily in its infancy, and any existing system of strategies is only a proposal to be tested through practical classroom use and through research" (Oxford, 1990: 17). However, she defends her classification by pointing out

many teachers who find the strategy system useful. Another advantage mentioned by Oxford (1990) is the presence of affective and social strategies which, according to her, are not considered by other researchers and teachers.

Although this classification is not without criticisms, a recent study by Hsiao and Oxford (2002) has proven that Oxford's (1990) type of classification is the most reliable type among other classification theories.

1.6.3. O'Malley et al. (1985) – O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

When there was an unmet need to take strategy research beyond what was practised, a theory came from John Anderson (1983), a cognitive psychologist. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) put the learning strategy research in the cognitive frame derived from Anderson's work. Grenfell and Macaro (2007: 16) summarize what Anderson's (1983) theory offers:

In brief, Anderson had posited a fundamental dichotomy between two sorts of information processing- declarative and procedural- which might best be summed up respectively as knowledge *of* and knowledge *how*. In other words, declarative knowledge is about facts; procedural knowledge is about how to perform actions.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 19) explain the reasons why they use Anderson's (1983) work as a framework:

1. Anderson's work integrates numerous concepts from prevailing notions of cognitive processing that give the theory generality and currency with regard to existing views in the field.
2. Theoretical developments in production systems cover a broader range of behavior than other theories, including comprehension and production of oral and written texts as well as comprehension, problem solving, and verbal learning.
3. The theory distinguishes between factual knowledge and procedural skills in both memory representation and learning.
4. The theory can be expanded to incorporate strategic processing as part of the description of how information is learned.
5. The theory has been continually updated, expanded, and revised in a number of recent publications (e.g., Anderson 1983).

O'Malley and his colleagues created a taxonomy of 26 strategies which they divided into three categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social strategies. "The metacognitive and cognitive categories correspond approximately to Rubin's indirect and direct strategies. However, the addition of the social mediation

category was an important step in the direction of acknowledging the importance of interactional strategies in language learning” (Griffiths, 2004: 4). They classify strategies as Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies and Socioaffective (O’Malley et al., 1985) - Social and Affective (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990) Strategies. (see Table 2)

Table 2. O’Malley and Chamot’s Classification of Language Learning Strategies

O’MALLEY AND CHAMOT’s (1990) LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES		
Metacognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Social and Affective Strategies

Source: (adapted from O’Malley and Chamot, 1990)

1.6.3.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning after the language activity is completed (O’Malley et al., 1985; O’Malley&Chamot, 1990).

In order to list the sub-categories for foreign language learning, the results of O’Malley and Chamot’s longitudinal study should be considered. Due to the results of the study, some refinements were made to the early definitions of strategies. Metacognitive strategies used by foreign language learners are listed as follows;

Table 3. O'Malley and Chamot's Metacognitive Strategies

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Planning2. Directed attention3. Selective attention4. Self-management5. Self-monitoring<ul style="list-style-type: none">- comprehension monitoring- production monitoring- auditory monitoring- visual monitoring- style monitoring- strategy monitoring- plan monitoring- double-check monitoring6. Problem identification7. Self-evaluation<ul style="list-style-type: none">- production evaluation- performance evaluation- ability evaluation- strategy evaluation- language repertoire evaluation
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Source: (adapted from O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.137)

O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) metacognitive strategies generally match those of Oxford (1990). The general function of this category is planning, organizing, and evaluating one's own learning (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

1.6.3.2. Cognitive Strategies

These strategies involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically "by reorganization and grouping, elaboration or relating one new idea to another and relating new ideas to existing knowledge" (Chamot, Dale, O'Malley, Spanos, 1992: 4), or applying a specific technique to a learning task (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 138). O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) foreign language longitudinal study on language learning strategies indicates eleven cognitive strategies: *repetition*,

resourcing, grouping, note taking, deduction/induction, elaboration, summarization, translation, transfer, and inferencing (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 138).

The cognitive strategies of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) approximately correspond to Oxford's combination of memory and cognitive strategies. However, Oxford's (1990) strategy of guessing from context (inferencing), which is listed as a compensation strategy to make up for missing knowledge, is part of O'Malley and Chamot's cognitive category. Unlike O'Malley and Chamot, Oxford separates memory strategies from the category of cognitive strategies because memory strategies appear to have a very clear, specific function that distinguishes them from many cognitive strategies. Naturally, memory strategies serve cognition. However, the actions included as memory strategies are particular mnemonic devices that aid learners in moving information to long-term memory for storage purposes and in retrieving it from long-term memory when needed for use. Most of the memory devices do not tend to contribute to deep processing of language information, although cognitive strategies do contribute to deep processing (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

1.6.3.3. Socioaffective (O'Malley et al., 1985) - Social and Affective (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) Strategies

Socioaffective / social and affective strategies are related to interacting with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 139). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) adapt a list of social and affective strategies from Chamot, Küpper & Impink-Hernandez (1988): *questioning for clarification, cooperation, self-talk, and self-reinforcement*.

To sum up, Rubin's (1981), Oxford's (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classifications have been frequently referred to and cited in literature so far and this led Hsiao and Oxford (2002) to hold research on the comparison of classification theories of language learning strategies. Their research involved 517 college students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) from Taiwan. Participants took the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Fifteen strategy classifications were developed and tested based on the above mentioned classifications. The research findings support the classification of L2 learning strategies into six distinct categories: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, memory strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies,

and social strategies. These six categories correspond to Oxford's six dimensions of strategy classification (Anderson, 2005; Chamot, 2004).

1.7. The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Proficiency

As mentioned before, language learning strategy research has focused on five key points, one of which is the relationship between strategies and L2 proficiency (Anderson, 2005). Descriptive research on strategies has focused on the link between strategy use and proficiency level of the student. It was what early research on learning strategies aimed at. Researchers wanted to list the characteristics of good language learners and teach poor students what their successful peers did.

Students with higher proficiency levels use a greater variety and often a greater number of learning strategies (Anderson, 2005; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Differences between more and less proficient language learners have been found in the number and range of strategies used, in how the strategies are applied to the task, and in the appropriateness of the strategies for the task (Chamot, 2004: 18). "More effective L2 learners intentionally, systematically select and combine strategies relevant to the language task at hand and to their own learning style preferences" (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990).

Anderson (2005) states that the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency is so strong; however, there is one thing for researchers and teachers to keep in mind. "There are no good or bad strategies; there is good or bad application of strategies"(Anderson, 2005: 762 ; Cohen, 1998). He points out his research held in 1991, which put forth that effective and less effective learners used the same kinds of strategies. According to him, the difference is in how the strategies are executed and orchestrated, not the range. That is where metacognitive strategies play a vital role; in the orchestration of all language learning strategies. It is the way in which an effective learner uses strategies and combines them that makes the distinction between him and a less effective learner.

Cohen (1998: 8) supports Anderson (2005). Although there are exceptions, "strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used effectively". Macaro's (2006) views show similarities with Anderson (2005) and Cohen (1998) in terms of success and strategy use of language learners. In addition, he adds that there is also a relationship between generally high strategy use and motivation; a link between success and a preference for certain kinds of strategies. He also emphasizes the

importance of metacognition by pointing out some studies which show a link between success and combinations of strategies.

There are also opposing ideas about the link between proficiency and strategy use in literature. For instance, Gillette (1994) studied three effective and three ineffective learners and the results of the study indicated that learning strategies can not fully explain the success of language learners. She thinks that this concept does not take motivation and personal background into consideration.

Rees-Miller (1993) mentions various unsuccessful intervention studies and states that there is no proven causal relationship between strategy awareness and L2 learning success, that only few strategies are transferable beyond a specific task, and that not all strategy users are, or will become, good learners of the L2.

Bremner (1997) and Macaro (2006) mention Rees-Miller's (1993) opposing ideas and indicate others and other studies which have pointed out that the existence of correlation between the two does not necessarily suggest causality in a particular direction.

Archibald (2006: 65) conveys McDonough's ideas in an interview on strategy-proficiency relationship and the direction of causality between them. According to McDonough "there is lots of evidence that strategy use is dependent upon proficiency" and "proficiency is dependent upon strategy use as well". Increasing somebody's strategic repertoire may help them actually learn more language. Thus, it is not obvious which way the answer lies.

Despite opposing ideas, there is a tendency in literature to accept that strategy usage brings success in language learning. A great deal of research has been done to prove it and many instruction frameworks have been developed to teach language learning strategies to students in various tasks.

1.8. Learning Strategy Instruction

Believing in the value of strategy instruction, Oxford (1990) explains the need in foreign language education since "language learning requires active self-direction on the part of learners; they cannot be spoon-fed if they desire and expect to reach an acceptable level of communicative competence" (Oxford, 1990: 201).

Intervention studies have been seeking to teach language learning strategies and to measure their effects on students. These experimental and quasi-experimental studies have

taken place in classrooms in which teachers and/or researchers have provided more or less direct strategy instruction to students to help them become better language learners. “The effects investigated include performance on language tests, increase in reported use of learning strategies, attitudes, and self-efficacy” (Chamot et al., 1999: 167).

Oxford (1990: 202- 203) defines 3 types of strategy training:

Awareness training (consciousness-raising or familiarization training): In this type of strategy training, participants become aware of the idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various tasks. They do not have to use the strategies in this type. It serves as an introduction to language learning strategies and as Oxford (1990) states, it is fun and motivating.

One-time strategy training: This type includes learning and practising one or more strategies with actual language tasks. It gives the learner information on the value of the strategies, when they can be used, how to use them, and how to evaluate the success of the strategies. However, it is not connected to a long-term sequence of strategy training (Oxford, 1990: 203).

Long-term strategy training: It involves learning and practising strategies with actual language tasks, like in one-time training. Students are taught the significance of particular strategies, when and how to use them, and how to monitor and evaluate their own performance. This type of training is more prolonged than one time, and covers a greater number of strategies; therefore, it is likely to be more effective than other types of training (Oxford, 1990: 203).

“The underlying premise is that language learning will be facilitated if students become more aware of the range of possible strategies that they can consciously select during language learning and language use” (Cohen, 1998: 65). The more aware the learner is, the better results the intervention studies will produce. Nunan (1996: 41) is another researcher supporting the idea. He answers the question “Why integrating explicit instruction?”: “Language classrooms should have a dual focus, not only teaching language content but also on developing learning processes as well”.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) touch on the issue of awareness in strategy training with their “direct versus embedded instruction” dichotomy, and support direct strategy training rather than embedded. They state that early research which included embedded

instruction found little transfer of strategies to new tasks and this is a disadvantage. The only advantage of embedded instruction, according to them, is the less time needed for teacher training. However, studies which added a metacognitive component to training by informing students about the purpose and importance of the strategies (e.g. Brown's (1986) study) have revealed maintained strategy use over time and transferred strategy use to new tasks.

Another controversial issue in strategy training is whether to use separate or integrated instruction. Researchers who support separate instruction propose that since strategies are generalizable to many contexts, "students will learn strategies better if they can focus all their attention on developing strategic processing skills rather than try to learn content at the same time" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 152). Others, who are for integrated instruction, maintain the idea that learning the language in context is more effective than learning separate skills. Research consistently shows that the most effective strategy instruction occurs when it is integrated into regular classroom instruction (Anderson, 2005: 763).

However, Eslinger's (2000, cited in Anderson, 2005) suggests in her thesis study that there can be a natural tendency to grow in strategy use without explicit instruction. She suggests that implicit strategy learning should be given closer attention by the researchers.

On the other hand, Danserau (1985) reports in his study that students found it difficult to adapt strategies they learned before. He recommends that future studies include both content-independent strategies and content-dependent ones.

The present study uses an explicit instruction model since "the goal of learning strategies instruction is to assist students in developing awareness of their own metacognition and thus control of their own learning" (Chamot et al., 1999: 2-3). (See Appendix A for a table of strategy instruction models). (See the Procedure Part for the Instruction Model used in this study).

1.9. Metacognition and Reading

Though a "fuzzy concept" (Flavell, 1981: 37), metacognition which is the "notion of thinking about one's own thoughts" (Hacker, 1998: 3) has an important role in today's learning. It is "to control, adjust and monitor activities of cognition and make some revisions" (Wenjie, 2009, cited in Hacker, 1998), and this makes metacognition a necessary part of autonomous learning. Metacognition is thinking of a) what one knows

(i.e., metacognitive knowledge) b) what one is currently doing (i.e., metacognitive skill) c) what one's current cognitive or affective state is (i.e., metacognitive experience) (Hacker, 1998).

Sources of metacognitive thinking are not from a person's immediate external reality, but are tied to the person's own internal mental representations of that reality, which can include: a) what one knows about that internal representation b) how it works and c) how one feels about it (Hacker, 1998: 3). In Flavell's (1979) words, one of the pioneers in the field, "metacognition is thinking about thinking; cognition of cognition and knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena" (Flavell, 1979: 906).

A person's ability to control "a wide variety of cognitive enterprises occurs through the actions and interactions among four classes of phenomena: (a) metacognitive knowledge, (b) metacognitive experiences, (c) goals (or tasks), and (d) actions (or strategies)" (Flavell, 1979: 906).

On the importance of metacognition in education, researchers would agree that in order to enhance learning, learners should become aware of themselves as self-regulatory individuals who consciously and deliberately achieve specific goals (Kluwe, 1982).

Metacognition - reflecting on one's own thinking and learning- is the thing that distinguishes the successful learners from the unsuccessful. Learners who are aware of their own learning processes, strategies, and preferences are able to regulate their learning endeavours to meet their own goals (Chamot et al., 1999: 2-3).

However, metacognition is not attained in a short period. It takes a long time. Presley (2002: 292) explains why in terms of metacognition in reading: Metacognition, which is needed to use comprehension strategies well (in reading), "can begin during direct teacher explanations and modeling of strategies but develops most completely when students practice using comprehension strategies as they read". It is specifically helpful if such practice involves opportunities to explain one's strategy use and reflect on the use of strategies over the course of time.

Metacognition is a key element for reading comprehension for all students. Research has shown that advanced native English-speaking readers have metacognitive awareness and apply a variety of reading strategies while reading (Iwai, 2009). Metacognition is also considered an essential component for ESL students' reading

abilities (Anderson, 2005). Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001: 445) state that “skilled readers (. . .) are more able to reflect on and monitor their cognitive processes while reading”.

Anderson (2003) refers to McDonough’s (1999) question of whether there is a hierarchy of strategies for language learning, and he answers the question. He hypothesizes that the “metacognitive strategies play a more significant role because once a learner understands how to regulate his/her own learning through the use of strategies, language acquisition should proceed at a faster rate”(Anderson, 2003: 10). O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 8) emphasize the importance of metacognitive strategies by stating that “students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning directions”.

According to Law (2009: 81), “knowing when and how to use appropriate strategies during the reading process will help readers to solve reading problems and construct meaning from the text at lexical, syntactic and semantic levels”.

Besides its effect on language success, metacognition is expected to play some role on attitude of students. “If students are capable of comprehending what they are reading through a variety of strategies, they will create an interested and self-regulative attitude toward the path of academic achievement” (Fan, 2009: 3).

Hosenfeld (1977) used a think-aloud procedure with over 200 bilingual English-French speakers, English-German speakers and English-Spanish speakers of different abilities and described what successful and unsuccessful readers did. Hosenfeld’s successful reader: 1) kept the meaning of the passage in mind during reading; 2) read in "broad phrases"; 3) skipped words viewed as unimportant to total phrase meaning; and 4) had a positive self-concept as a reader. On the contrary, Hosenfeld’s unsuccessful reader: 1) lost the meaning of sentences as soon as they were decoded; 2) read in short phrases; 3) seldom skipped unimportant words as unimportant, viewing words as "equal" in terms of their contribution to total phrase meaning; and 4) had a negative self-concept as a reader.

Houtveen and van de Grift (2007) advice that reading comprehension is not a matter of unchangeable and innate abilities. Teachers can teach their students metacognitive knowledge such as activating prior knowledge; using the title, subheadings, the summary, punctuation, and layout to predict the content of the text; making frequent predictions about what is to come; reading selectively and making decisions about the

reading process (what to read carefully, what to read quickly, what not to read, what to reread, and so on); drawing from, comparing, and integrating prior knowledge with material in the text; monitoring their understanding of the text; checking their understanding of the content.

1.10. Conclusion

In this chapter, research on language learning strategies was summarized; definitions, characteristics and purposes of learning strategies were mentioned, mostly cited classifications of strategies were presented, the value of strategy training and on-the-agenda discussions about strategy instruction were commented on. In addition, metacognition and its value in reading and reading research were mentioned as well as its possible role on the attitude of learner.

CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGY

2.1. Introduction

This study aimed at exploring the effects of explicit metacognitive strategy instruction on students' reading comprehension achievement, reading attitude, and awareness and perceived use of reading strategies in the School of Foreign Languages, at Izmir University. The concern of the study was the effects of explicit strategy training in reading class.

As suggested by many scholars in literature (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Weinstein and Mayer, 1986; Wenden, 1987), explicit strategy training is the most prolific form of strategy instruction since its metacognitive component makes students more aware and autonomous in their language learning processes, and strategy transfer is more likely to occur than in implicit strategy training. Like other strategy training, metacognitive strategies need to be modelled and integrated into the curriculum.

This study is quantitative in nature, though it also has aspects of qualitative study. Quantification is defined as “ a numerical method of describing observations of materials or characteristics” (Best and Kahn, 2006:289). On the other hand, qualitative studies “ are those in which description of observations is not ordinarily expressed in quantitative terms” (Best and Kahn, 2006:291).

The current study has a quasi-experimental research design with pre- and posttests based on the determination of reading comprehension level, reading attitude and awareness of reading strategies of preparatory class students. Quasi-experiment research design has “some but not all of the characteristics of a true experiment. The element most frequently missing is random assignment of subjects to the control and experimental conditions”(Sociologyindex, n.d). Quasi-experimental research design was used because the researcher had little control over the other factors in the study. Quasi-experimental research design “provides control of when and to whom the measurement is applied, but because random assignment to experimental and control treatments has not been applied, the equivalence of the groups is not assured” (Best and Kahn, 2006:183).

The current study is an intervention study. The intervention took 6 weeks. Each week, students had 3 hours of reading class, and the strategy instruction was explicitly provided in those reading class hours in addition to the reading instruction offered by the books, Reading Explorer 1 & 2, published by HEINLE CENGAGE Learning. The intervention study started with the eighth unit of the book 1, and finished after the first chapter of the second book was completed. During the intervention, both experimental and control groups studied a total of six units, with two texts in each unit.

Control group received no explicit strategy instruction, yet some exercises in the book included some metacognitive strategies. However, as Cohen (1998) indicates, if there is no awareness factor in training, if students are not told the value and significance of the strategies, we cannot talk about strategy training. This study adopted Cohen's ideas in this respect and the control group was accepted as not to receive any strategy training. It must be clarified that although control group students were exposed to some exercises which included metacognitive thinking, neither the book nor the teacher explained anything about strategies. They were also not told when and why to use those strategies, which are necessary questions to be answered in strategy training.

The study attempted to answer three research questions:

1. Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect EFL students' reading comprehension achievement?
2. Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect EFL students' attitudes towards reading?
3. Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect EFL students' awareness of reading strategies?

2.2. Participants

This study was designed to involve 2 preparatory school classes; one control and one experimental, and it aimed at having a total of 35 students at the very beginning. However, 2 students' data in the control group were excluded due to their absences on the day of pre-tests of reading comprehension and reading attitude and reading strategy awareness. Likewise, two students' data in the experimental group were excluded because of their irregular attendances in classes. 31 participants, who attended both pre and post

tests and who attended classes regularly, are prep class students in two Intermediate level classes, studying English in the School of Foreign Languages, at Izmir University.

Ages of the participants range from 17 to 22 and they have similar educational backgrounds. Their proficiency levels were also similar and it was the reason why the institution had placed them in two subsequent classes after the regular level exams. The experimental group was randomly selected from these two classes.

Participants of the study had completed Pre-Intermediate level successfully and had a term holiday. The study started at the beginning of the second term, at Intermediate level.

During the six-week strategy training, most students in the experimental and control groups attended classes regularly although some students missed a few class hours, but it was thought not to affect the results of the study because of the recursive nature of the strategy training in the current study. Following classes were able to compensate for the instruction given in the hour when students were absent. Moreover, the same strategies were mentioned and practiced more than once during the study in order for the students to internalize the strategies.

In addition to the samples of the study, the teacher needs to be mentioned here. The same teacher taught both experimental and control classes. That was an important aspect of the study because different teachers would have different effects on students' attitudes towards reading. In order to avoid this, the same teacher taught both experimental and control classes.

2.3. Procedure

As mentioned above, participants in this study attended reading classes as part of their preparatory class education. They had 3 hours' reading instruction each week and the experimental group received explicit strategy training during these hours. Intermediate level took 7 weeks at İzmir University, yet the intervention study lasted 6 weeks. It is because no strategy instruction took place in the first week in order for the teacher and students to meet and the teacher to introduce the course and the value and significance of strategy training to the students in the experimental group. This first week of the Intermediate level was also the time in which students took the pre-tests on reading comprehension, reading attitude and reading strategy awareness.

In the first week of the study, students in the experimental and control groups met their teachers on different days. In the experimental group, a mini discussion about the ‘techniques, strategies, tactics’ (whatever students named them) that students make use of before, during and after reading followed the introduction part. Some students mentioned using metacognitive strategies without referring to the names of the strategies. Then, a brief summary of the value of strategies, especially of the metacognitive ones, was made by the teacher, and students were asked whether they would like to learn those strategies in order to enhance their reading comprehension. All the students agreed to participate in the study.

The explicit strategy training started in the 2nd week of the Intermediate level. A total of 18 strategies were included in the study (see Table 4). Most of the strategies included in the study were adapted from Chamot et al. (1999: 15-16-17) and some others are among the ones which are mostly referred to in literature and which are used in intervention studies.

Table 4. Strategies included in the current study

STRATEGY	DEFINITION	OTHER POSSIBLE TERMS
Using Captions / Graphics/ Titles and Photos	Get the information offered by the titles, captions and photos	Make use of other features in the material
Setting Goals	Develop personal objectives	Establish a purpose Plan objectives
Activating Background Knowledge	Think about what you already know	Elaborate on prior knowledge
Directing your Attention	Decide what to focus on and what to ignore	Pay attention
Predicting	Anticipate information	Guess outcome
Generating Questions to be Answered in the Text	Write questions that you think the material will answer	Create your questions for the material

Asking If It Makes Sense	Check understanding to keep track of progress	Monitor comprehension
Personalizing / Conceptualizing	Relate information to personal experiences	Relate information to your experiences
Using Imagery	Create an image to represent information	Visualizing Draw a picture
Grouping /Classifying	Put the information into groups	Sort the information Put the information in order
Making Connections	Relate the information to the information offered previously in the material	Relate information to other information
Highlighting / Underlying Important Parts	Try to focus your attention on specific parts	Mark the important parts
Rereading for Meaning	Check understanding, if needed read again	Repeat if needed
Verifying Predictions and Guesses	Check whether your predictions/guesses are correct	Verification Test your predictions
Summarizing	Create a mental, oral, or written summary of information	Make a summary
Checking Goals	Decide whether goal was met	Reflect on progress
Evaluating Yourself	Judge how well you learned the material / did on the task	Self-evaluate Check yourself
Evaluating Your Strategies	Judge how you applied strategies and the effectiveness of strategies	Assessing techniques

Source: (adapted from Chamot et al., 1999)

2.4. Instructional Framework for Strategy Instruction

For the frame of the explicit strategy instruction, the study employed Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach). "This framework provides for explicit learning strategies instruction through a progression from teacher-guided activities to students' independent use of strategies"(Chamot et al., 1999: 43). CALLA has five phases:

1. Preparation: Students prepare for strategy training.
2. Presentation: The teacher introduces the strategy, explains why and when to use it.
3. Practice: Students practice strategies with activities.
4. Evaluation: Students evaluate their strategy use.
5. Expansion: Students expand their strategy use and transfer their strategy use to other tasks.

Although every phase of the framework was considered and held carefully, the last phase (Expansion) was out of the control of the researcher. The teacher recommended using strategies taught in the reading class in other classes (Listening and Speaking, Main Course, Writing) and tasks as well as outside the class; however, it was not possible to control strategy use outside the reading class except for giving advice to the students.

Each week, 3 strategies were introduced to the students in the first hour of the reading class (Presentation Phase). In the presentation phase, each strategy was integrated into the reading text in the book. Reading Explorer, the coursebook followed in the reading class, was very suitable for using in strategy training in that it includes two texts in one unit which made it easier and less time consuming to teach students strategies and to follow the pace of reading course set by the institution. After learning the strategies presented, when and why to use them, the students were asked to use the same strategies in the second text of the unit (Practice Phase). Sometimes, a student was asked to think aloud to reflect what she was doing while practicing strategies. In addition, some strategies, such as making predictions, were appropriate for pair/group work and some, such as visualizing, were appropriate for working alone. Having learned and studied the target strategies, the students were asked to assess their strategy use, performance and the strategies either by writing or orally as the whole class (Evaluation Phase). The teacher usually suggested using the strategies in the other courses such as writing, listening and speaking (Expansion

Phase). In the following weeks, strategies which were taught before were mentioned and used again in order to make students internalize the strategies.

Table 5 shows the strategies taught each week and the reading text titles in the coursebooks, Reading Explorer 1 & 2.

Table 5. Weeks and Strategies Taught and Practised

Week	Presented text (teacher)	Explicitly Focused Strategies	Practiced text (students)
1st	The Brothers Grimm	1.Using Captions / Graphics/ Titles and Photos 2.Setting Goals 3.Activating Background Knowledge	The Tale of the Seven Ravens
2nd	Tornado Chasers	4.Directing your Attention 5.Predicting 6.Creating Questions to be Answered in the Text	Smokejumpers
3rd	Mexico's Pyramid of the Moon	7.Asking If It Makes Sense 8.Personalizing/Conceptualizing 9.Using Imagery	Who Built Giza's Pyramids?
4th	Pirates: Romance and Reality	10.Grouping/Classifying 11.Making Connections 12.Highlighting/Underlying Important Parts	Women of the Waves
5th	Mystery on Everest	13.Rereading for Meaning 14.Verifying Predictions and Guesses 15.Summarizing	The Missing Pilot

6th	An Oil for Life	16.Checking Goals 17.Evaluating Yourself 18.Evaluating Your Strategies	Sofrito Sensation
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2.4.1. Sample Strategy Instruction: 1st Week

In the first session of the explicit metacognitive strategy instruction, the teacher, briefly, mentioned the value and significance of strategy training to the students in the experimental group, who had been informed about the details of strategy training the previous week. The explicit strategy instruction started with the teacher’s writing ‘PLAN-MONITOR-EVALUATE’ on the board. The teacher told the students that all the strategies they were going to learn would fall under one of those headings. Some strategies were going to be learned in order to plan before reading, some were going to be studied in order to monitor while reading, and some were for students to evaluate themselves after they read. After informing the students about the importance of planning, monitoring and evaluating in reading, the teacher wrote three strategies on the board: using captions/graphics/titles/photos; setting goals and activating background knowledge. Those strategies were under planning part which was necessary before reading.

Both the teacher and the students opened their books for the text they were going to read that day. The title was ‘The Brothers Grimm’. Before reading the text, the teacher told the students to watch her while she was studying the text with the help of strategies. The teacher read the title and thought aloud what it offered about the text and decided that the text was going to be about brothers. Then, the photos and captions in the book were studied by the teacher. There were photos of Little Red Riding Hood, Hansel and Gretel and two middle-aged men in the book. By thinking aloud, the teacher listed some options. According to the teacher, the text was either about another story about two brothers since there was a photo of two men in the book, or about the writers of those stories. The teacher asked students if they thought she was right, and the students told her that they agreed with her.

For the next strategy , setting goals, the teacher asked herself why she would read the text, what she expected to find in the text. She set three goals:

- “I am going to learn about the writers of these stories.”
- “I am going to learn about the reasons why they wrote those popular stories.”
- “I am going to learn about the period in which these writers lived.”

For the third strategy, activating background knowledge, the teacher thought aloud about the stories she had read or been read in her childhood. She thought aloud about those popular stories, the characters in those stories, the setting and plot of the stories. Then, she asked the students whether they had known anything about those stories. The students told the teacher what they remember about those stories. The teacher asked whether they knew about Grimm Brothers. Some students answered that Grimm Brothers were the writers of the stories. The teacher asked the students if they knew any other writers of stories, and this small talk took about twenty minutes.

The teacher erased the names of the strategies and asked the students to name the strategies again. After renaming the strategies, the students were told why to use those strategies in the reading class. Finally, the teacher asked the students to use the same strategies while reading the second text in the book. To check whether the students were using the strategies correctly, the teacher walked around the class to assist and lead them.

In some classes, one of the students modelled the use of a strategy. Some strategy work was done as a class. For example, after the teacher modelled the ‘using the imagery’ strategy, and the students read their text, the teacher asked the students to draw pictures about what they had read.

The following reading classes were similar in terms of scope and sequence. In each class, the teacher modelled the strategy use first, then the students practised the same strategies with another text.

2.5. Instruments

This study employed three instruments to collect the necessary data for the research questions. The instruments used in this study are Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), Adult Survey of Reading Attitude (ASRA) by Smith (1991), and Reading Comprehension Test developed by the present researcher.

2.5.1. Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS)

The *Survey Of Reading Strategies (SORS)* was developed by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) and it collects information about EFL/ESL learners' awareness and use of reading strategies (see Appendix B). In this study, data on students' awareness and use of reading strategies while reading academic materials was collected through the SORS, an instrument which was "intended to measure the type and frequency of reading strategies that adolescent and adult ESL students perceive they use while reading academic materials in English" (Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002: 4). It consists of 30 items, each accompanied by a 5-point Likert-type scale. 1 means "I never do this", and 5 means "I always do this", the higher numbers indicate higher strategy use and awareness. The 30 items in the SORS are divided into 3 categories, which are: *Global*, *Problem Solving*, and *Support strategies*. *Global reading strategies* (13 items) are "intentional, carefully planned techniques" (Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002: 4) which readers apply to monitor their reading. *Problem solving strategies* (8 items) are used when readers "work directly with texts" (Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002: 4). *Support strategies* (9 items) are "basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text" (Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002: 4).

SORS was translated into Turkish and the reliability of its translated form was tested with 93 Intermediate level students at Izmir Institute of Technology (see Appendix C). 2 questions in the translated form of the SORS had low reliability values, so those 2 questions were excluded. The final form of the translated questionnaire was shown to have reliability of ,847 in this study (see Table 6).

Table 6. Reliability Statistics for SORS in Turkish

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,847	,852	28

2.5.2. Adult Survey of Reading Attitude (ASRA)

Another instrument employed by this study was the Adult Survey of Reading Attitudes. The ASRA was developed by Smith (1991) (see Appendix D). It is based on the work of Smith (1991). It is a 5 point Likert-type scale and consists of 40 statements (where

5=Strongly Agree and 1=Strongly Disagree). ASRA assesses attitudes towards reading. 40 statements in the questionnaire are divided into three sections. The first section, The Anxiety and Difficulty scale contains eleven items and measures the extent to which the person experiences problems or confusion when reading. The second section, The Social Reinforcement Scale contains six items and assesses the extent to which the person's reading activities are recognised and reinforced by others, for example family and friends. The third section, The Modalities Scale contains six items and measures the extent to which the individual prefers to use sources other than reading when faced with a learning task (Tercanlıoğlu, 2004). ASRA was translated into Turkish and its reliability was tested with 93 Intermediate level students at Izmir Institute of Technology (see Appendix E). The translated form of the Adult Survey of Reading Attitude (ASRA) was shown to have a reliability of ,923 in this study.

Table 7. Reliability Statistics for ASRA in Turkish

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,923	40

2.5.3. Reading Comprehension Test

A reading comprehension test was developed by the researcher for the study (see Appendix F). The test has 16 short paragraphs and includes 47 multiple choice questions. When it was given to 100 students at Izmir Institute of Technology, the results were assessed in TAP (Test Analysis Program v. 6.65) for achievement tests. As the assessment of the test required, 6 questions were excluded because of low reliability values, and 1 question was excluded by the researcher for the sake of easier grading (see Appendix G for Item and Test Analysis). At the end of the reliability assessment of the test, there were 40 questions in the Reading Comprehension Test. The test was shown to have reliability of .905. Table 8 shows the assessment results of the test.

Table 8. TAP results for Reading Comprehension Achievement

Reading Comprehension Test	
Number of Items Analyzed:	47
Mean Item Difficulty:	0.522
Mean Item Discrimination:	0.507
Mean Point Biserial:	0.426
Mean Adj. Point Biserial:	0.387
<i>(Kuder- Richardson)KR20 (Alpha):</i>	0.905
(Kuder- Richardson)KR21:	0.890
SEM (from KR20):	2.940
# Potential Problem Items:	6

2.6. Data Collection Procedures

Before the participants took the two questionnaires on reading attitude and strategy awareness and the test on reading comprehension, questionnaires were translated into Turkish. The questionnaires and the test were given to students at Izmir Institute of Technology in order to test their reliability. After making some adjustments according to the reliability study results, the two questionnaires and comprehension test were given to the experimental group and control group students as pretests in the same session. Students were asked to complete the questionnaires and the test in 90 minutes. The same procedure was followed for the posttest after the intervention study finished.

2.7. Data Analysis Techniques

The results of the study were analyzed quantitatively. Results of the questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, V. 10.0). Means and standard deviations were calculated. The results of the Reading Comprehension Test were calculated using TAP and were analyzed using SPSS. The statistical techniques of Cronbach's Alpha, Item Analysis, T-test were also used to interpret the data collected during the study.

CHAPTER 3: DATA ANALYSIS

3.1. Overview of the Study

This study aimed at investigating the effects of explicit metacognitive strategy training on students' reading comprehension success, reading attitude and strategy awareness. In order to answer the research questions, a quasi-experimental research design was adopted. Participants were 31 preparatory class students at Izmir University. There were 16 students in the control group, 15 students in the experimental group. All the students took SORS (The Survey of Reading Strategies) and ASRA (Adult Survey of Reading Attitude) questionnaires and the Reading Comprehension Test as pre and posttests. The results of the questionnaires and comprehension test were analyzed quantitatively using SPSS.

3.2. Data Analysis

In order to interpret the results of the analysis, each research question will be held separately in the data analysis part.

3.2.1. Research Question 1: Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect students' reading comprehension achievement?

In order to see the the basic features of the data, which are the results of the pre- and posttests, descriptive statistics were used. Table 9 shows the findings of the descriptive statistics for Reading Comprehension Test. The results reveal the mean of each group on the test, minimum and maximum scores of the students in both experimental and control groups, and also the standard deviations.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Comprehension Test

Group		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	Read.comp.pre	16	32,50	82,50	56,0937	15,24710
	Read.comp.post	16	32,50	92,50	61,4063	18,37046
	Valid N (listwise)	16				
experimental	Read.comp. pre	15	40,00	92,50	70,1667	14,25115
	Read.comp.post	15	42,50	92,50	72,1667	17,34283
	Valid N (listwise)	15				

16 students in the control group and 15 students in the experimental group took both pre- and posttest for reading comprehension. The mean for the correct answers in the control group is 56,09 in the pretest, and 61,40 in the posttest. On the other hand, the mean for the correct answers in the experimental group is 70,16 in the pretest, and 72,16 in the posttest. The highest achiever in the pretest in the control group gets 82,50, while the highest achiever in the same test in the eperimental group gets 92,50.

To answer the *Research Question 1*, whether explicit strategy training affects reading comprehension achievement, independent samples t-test was used. Independent samples *t*-test is used to find differences between the experimental group receiving explicit strategy training and the control group receiving no strategy instruction. Table 10 shows the results of the independent samples t-test for Reading Comprehension Test.

Table 10. Independent Samples T-test results for Reading Comprehension Test

	Groups	N	\bar{x}	SD	t Test		
					t	df	p
Read.comp. pre	Control	16	56,09	15,24	-2,650	29	,013
	experimental	15	70,16	14,25			
Read.comp. post	Control	16	61,40	18,37	-1,674	29	,105
	Experimental	15	72,16	17,34			

When the pre and post test results of the experimental and control groups are compared, the p value for the pretest is ,013 and ,105 for the posttest. There is difference between the control and experimental groups in the pre- and posttests, but there is no significant difference between the groups in the posttests.

In addition, paired samples t -test was used to find differences within groups. Table 11 shows the results of the paired samples test for reading comprehension. There is difference between pre- and post tests in the control group, yet this difference is not statistically significant. Also, there is a small difference between pre- and posttests in the experimental group, but this difference is not statistically significant.

Table 11. Paired Samples Test for Reading Comprehension Test

	Groups	N	\bar{x}	SD	t Test		
					t	df	p
Control	Pre	16	56,09	15,24	-1,703	12,47915	,109
	Post	16	61,40	18,37			
Experimental	Pre	15	70,16	14,25	-,564	13,73213	,582
	Post	15	72,16	17,34			

Based on the results of the descriptive statistics, independent samples t-test and paired samples t-test for reading comprehension, there is difference between the control group and the experimental group, but the difference is not statistically significant.

3.2.2. Research Question 2: Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect attitudes towards reading?

3.2.2.1. Quantitative Data: In order to see the the basic features of data, and the results of the pre- and posttests, descriptive statistics were carried out. Table 12 shows the results of the descriptive statistics. The results reveal the mean of each group on the test and also the standard deviation.

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Attitude Questionnaire

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	Read. Attit. Pre	16	2,9703	,07203
	Read. Attit. Post	16	2,9672	,06389
	Valid N (listwise)	16		
experimental	Read. Attit. Pre	15	2,8767	,07414
	Read. Attit. Post	15	2,8633	,06431
	Valid N (listwise)	15		

16 students in the control group and 15 students in the experimental group answered both pre and post reading attitude questionnaire. The mean for control group is 2,97 in the pretest, and 2,96 in the posttest. On the other hand, the mean for the experimental group is 2,87 in the pretest, and 2,86 in the posttest.

To answer the *Research Question 2*, whether or not explicit strategy training affects reading attitude, independent samples t-test was used. Table 13 shows the results of the independent samples *t*-test. It was used to find differences between experimental group receiving explicit strategy training and control group receiving no strategy instruction.

Table 13. Independent Samples Test for Reading Attitude Questionnaire

	Groups	N	\bar{x}	SD	t Test		
					t	df	p
Read.Attit.pre	Control	16	2,9703	,07203	,906	29	,372
	Experimental	15	2,8767	,07414			
Read.Attit.post	Control	16	2,9672	,06389	1,145	29	,262
	Experimental	15	2,8633	,06431			

When the pre- and posttest results of experimental and control groups are compared, the *p* value for the pretest is ,372 and ,262 for the posttest. There is a difference between control and experimental groups in the pre- and posttests, but the difference is not significant.

As a summary, the results of the descriptive statistics and t-tests reveal that there is no statistically significant difference between the control group and experimental group in terms of attitudes towards reading.

3.2.2.2. Qualitative Data:

Students' reflections about the reading instruction that they received in the second term of the 2009-2010 educational year provided the qualitative data for students' attitudes towards reading in this study. The qualitative data enabled the researcher to see the changes in some students' attitudes towards reading, though this difference was not statistically significant in the quantitative data.

Reflections of the students in the control group reveal that the emphasis is on the vocabulary that had been taught and practised during the course.

Informant 1 (control group): ... It has contributed to me a lot in terms of *vocabulary*.

Informant 2 (control group): I have learned so many helpful *words* I can use in reading class...

Informant 3 (control group): I can find *words* for the blanks in a better way and we have learned a lot of *vocabulary*. ...

Informant 4 (control group): ... *vocabulary knowledge* and our experienced teachers, everything was perfect....

Informant 5 (control group): ...We have learned many *new words* and....

Informant 7 (control group): ...Particularly, she contributed to our *vocabulary knowledge* a lot....

Informant 10 (control group): ...Because I think I have improved my *vocabulary* a lot, ...

Informant 11 (control group): I learned so many *new words* that I can use in daily life in reading classes...

Informant 12 (experimental group): ...have learned so much *vocabulary* in the reading class...

Informant 13 (control group): learned a lot of *vocabulary*....

Informant 14 (control group): It is a beneficial lesson in terms of *vocabulary knowledge*. It has enabled us to learn more *vocabulary* than we can learn in the main course and other lessons.....

Informant 15 (control group): a different way of learning the *vocabulary* best....

Informant 16 (control group): ... the biggest contribution of the reading class this term is its teaching a lot of *vocabulary*.....

On the other hand, students in the experimental group, who were trained in metacognitive strategies, emphasize the benefits of strategy training and their improved attitude towards reading in their reflections.

Informant 20 (experimental group): ... I have learned that thinking back and visualizing the text in my mind while reading is *helpful*....

Informant 21 (experimental group): reading even the most irrelevant texts *without getting bored*, being able to answer the questions.....

Informant 22 (experimental group): strategies helped us understand what we read *better*

Informant 23 (experimental group): ... have *improved our understanding* of the text with the help of reading strategies...

Informant 24 (experimental group): ... Strategy training has enhanced my understanding in reading with using my imagination. I have learned how to explain the things I got confused with.....

Informant 25 (experimental group): ...According to me, it [reading class] was more enjoyable and comprehensible....

Informant 27 (experimental group):We comprehended what we had read better and it was more enjoyable....

Informant 28 (experimental group): I think reading class was more fast-moving and enjoyable.... The lesson was much more interesting due to our contributions....

Informant 29 (experimental group): ... it [reading class] was a bit more enjoyable.... lessons became different with this strategy, it colored the lessons.....

Informant 31 (experimental group): ... I did not use to stop and think while reading because I thought it was a waste of time but I have learned that it is helpful. Now, I can understand what I read in a shorter time. As a lesson, it was enjoyable. The activities we did were good. We learned by enjoying ourselves!!

Informant 32 (experimental group): Reading classes have been more enjoyable. Subjects were interesting and this made me participate in the classes, and made me understand better while participating. Another reason for this was the reading strategies I used consciously. It was because I mastered the subject with the help of pictures and captions. The most enjoyable part was drawing pictures.....

Informant 34 (experimental group): ... now I can easily understand a text that I want to read....

Informant 35 (experimental group): Reading the text silently on our own before reading it aloud has been very beneficial. Stopping and thinking about what we have read during reading is very helpful....

Although quantitative data reveals that there is no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of reading attitude, qualitative data reveals that there are students whose attitudes towards reading changed after receiving explicit metacognitive strategy training.

3.2.3. Research Question 3: Does explicit metacognitive strategy training affect students' awareness of reading strategies?

In order to see the the basic features of the data, descriptive statistics were carried out. Table 14 shows the results of the descriptive statistics. The results reveal the mean of each group on the test and also the standard deviation.

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics for Strategy Awareness

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
control	Str. Awar. Pre	16	3,5333	,45363
	Str. Awar. Post	16	3,7479	,51897
	Valid N (listwise)	16		
experimental	Str. Awar. Pre	15	3,5889	,43033
	Str. Awar. Post	15	3,5889	,50662
	Valid N (listwise)	15		

16 students in the control group and 15 students in the experimental group answered both pre- and post reading strategy awareness questionnaire. The mean for control group is 3,53 in the pretest, and 3,74 in the posttest. On the other hand, the mean for the experimental group is 3,58 in the pretest, and 3,58 in the posttest.

To answer the *Research Question 3*, whether or not explicit strategy training affects reading strategy awareness, independent samples t-test was used (see Table 15). Independent samples *t*-test is used to find differences between the experimental group receiving explicit strategy training and the control group receiving no strategy instruction.

Table 15. Independent Samples t-Test for Reading Strategy Awareness Questionnaire

	Groups	N	\bar{x}	SD	t Test		
					t	df	p
Str. Awar. Pre	control	16	3,5333	,45363	-,349	29	,729
	experimental	15	3,5889	,43033			
Str. Awar. Post	control	16	3,7479	,51897	-,463	29	,647
	experimental	15	3,8333	,50662			

When the pre- and post test results of experimental and control groups are compared, the p value for the pretest is ,729 and ,647 for the post. There is difference between control and experimental groups in the pre and posttests, but there is no significant difference.

Briefly, the results of the descriptive statistics and t-tests indicate that the difference between the control and experimental groups is not statistically significant.

3.3. Conclusion

This data analysis showed the results of the descriptive and t-test analysis in terms of three research questions. Results indicate that although there are differences between control and experimental groups in terms of 1st and 3rd research questions, there is no statistically significant difference between control and experimental groups in terms of 1st, 2nd and 3rd research question: There is no statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of reading comprehension (Research Question 1), reading attitude (Research Question 2) and reading strategy awareness (Research Question 3).

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

In this part, the findings obtained in the study will be discussed. First discussion will be related to the relationship between strategy training reading comprehension achievement (1st research question). The second discussion will be related to the relationship between strategy training and reading attitude (2nd research question). The last discussion will be related to the relationship between strategy training and strategy awareness (3rd research question).

4.1. Discussion of Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore whether teaching metacognitive strategies can improve EFL reading comprehension of students, whether teaching metacognitive strategies can improve reading attitude, and whether teaching metacognitive strategies can raise awareness of reading strategies.

The research experiment conducted at Izmir University in the second term of the 2009-2010 educational year yielded debatable results. As in the data analysis part, each research question will be interpreted separately in this discussion.

4.1.1. Research Question 1: The literature review of language learning strategies and their instruction has shown that most of the strategy instruction studies so far have revealed positive relationship between strategy instruction and reading comprehension achievement. Yet, there have also been some studies indicating no positive results. This controversy has been the subject of debate among researchers. Especially Rees-Miller's (1993) ideas were mentioned in the literature review part of this study. She points out many unsuccessful intervention studies and states that the causal relationship between strategy awareness and L2 learning success has not been proven, only a few strategies are transferable to other tasks, and that not every strategy user is, or will become, good learners of the L2. Yet, the dominant idea in research literature is not like Rees-Miller's. Most of the researchers have believed in the benefit of strategy training.

In this study, there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the beginning. The experimental group outperformed the control group in the pre-reading comprehension test like in the posttest. Yet, although both groups achieved

higher levels in terms of reading comprehension, the control group went much further than its initial point than the experimental group did. The mean of the control group increased about 6 points at the end of the intervention study; however, the mean of the experimental group only increased about 2 points.

In terms of reading comprehension, there was no statistically significant difference between the experimental group that received explicit metacognitive strategy training and the group that received no metacognitive strategy training. Explicit metacognitive strategy instruction did not enhance reading comprehension in this study.

In contrast to Çubukçu (2008), whose study revealed that “the experimental group achieved significantly better results than the control group”, and Fan’s (2009) PhD thesis study, the present study does not confirm that reading comprehension can be developed through instruction in metacognitive strategies.

Both experimental and control groups attained a higher level of achievement at the end of the study. Thus, a closer look at the control group can help to interpret the results. As mentioned before, the control group received no explicit strategy instruction, yet there were some activities which implicitly reinforced metacognitive thinking. It is thought that the instruction that the control group received cannot be named as ‘implicit strategy training’ because there was no intention of teaching strategies and no systematic and regular exposure to metacognitive strategies. It is possible to conclude that explicit strategy training does not produce better results when compared to a few metacognitive strategy exercises (irregularly) offered in the reading books.

This may also question Cohen’s (1998) ideas. As mentioned before, he believes that it is impossible to talk about strategy training without the awareness factor. Other researchers (Oxford, 1990; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990) also share similar ideas. Yet, strategies offered irregularly in the book may have served as facilitators when we consider the results of this study.

4.1.2. Research Question 2: The second purpose of the study was to see whether or not explicit metacognitive strategy instruction improves reading attitude. The researcher had not been able to find any studies analyzing the effect strategy training on attitude in foreign language learning. Rather, there have been some comments on the possible effects of attitude on selecting strategies to use. Yet, the inspiration for the research question came from Oxford (1990) who believed that learning strategies would make learning more fun.

Although observations of the researcher have yielded opposing results, there was no statistically significant difference between the experimental group receiving explicit strategy training and the control group receiving no strategy training. Since observations indicated some change in the positive direction in reading attitudes of some students, the data collection instrument (ASRA) can be questioned here. It is possible to think that ASRA is not a very suitable instrument for Turkish preparatory class students, but of course it is difficult to confirm this with a single research including 31 participants.

On the other hand, qualitative data revealed that explicit strategy training improved some students' attitudes towards reading. Though it is not directly stated by the students that explicit metacognitive strategy training improved their attitude towards reading, their reflections show that they benefited from strategy training. Many students in the experimental group mentioned in their reflections that reading was more enjoyable and less difficult with the help of metacognitive strategies. Also, the teacher-researcher noticed improvements in students' attitudes towards reading during and after the explicit strategy instruction.

4.1.3. Research Question 3: For the third research question, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) identify three levels of strategy use. High is identified for means of 3.5 or higher; moderate for 2.5 to 3.4; and low for 2.4 or lower. Both the experimental and control group students had high levels of strategy use both in the pretests and posttests. The results indicated that high strategy users developed a higher strategy use at the end of the study in both control and experimental groups, yet like in other research questions addressed in this study, there is no statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups. Explicit metacognitive strategy training does not cause a higher level of awareness of reading strategies in this study. We can comment that explicit metacognitive strategy training does not affect students' reading strategy awareness significantly when students have already high awareness levels. Explicit strategy training might have revealed higher strategy awareness levels if training had been provided to students with low awareness levels.

4.2. Limitations of the Study

Teaching learning strategies takes a long time. Internalising metacognition takes longer. Yet, this study was limited to 18 hours (6 weeks * 3 hours), and this is the first limitation. The second limitation is the concern of the teacher for following the pace of the

reading class. Since strategy training was implemented into regular class hours, there was a concern to catch up with other classes in the pacing determined by the institution. Another limitation of the study is the questionnaires. The two questionnaires which were used in this study were translated from English into Turkish. Thus, the originality of the questions may have been affected by translation.

4.3. Conclusion

This study did not bring very encouraging results to instructional training of metacognitive strategies in enhancing reading comprehension, improving reading attitude, and raising strategy awareness of Turkish preparatory school students at tertiary level. From the first day of the study, students gained an understanding of the value of strategies, and developed a more positive attitude. The researcher's observations and students' reflections showed that explicit strategy training made reading easier and more interesting for the students, yet no statistically significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups in terms of reading comprehension achievement, reading attitude and strategy awareness.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A comparison of Strategy Instruction Steps				
	O'Malley and Chamot (1990)	Oxford (1990)	Chamot et al. (1999)	Grenfell and Harris (1999)
1	Students identify their current learning strategies	Learners do a task without any strategy training	Preparation	<i>Awareness raising.</i> Learners do a task “cold”
		They discuss how they did it and the teacher asks them to reflect on how their strategies may have facilitated their learning		They brainstorm the strategies used. Class shares strategies that work for them
2	Teacher explains additional strategies	Teacher demonstrates other helpful strategies, stressing the potential benefits	Presentation	<i>Modelling.</i> Teacher demonstrates new strategies, emphasises their value and draws up a checklist of strategies for subsequent use
	Teacher provides opportunities for practice	Learners are provided with opportunities to practise the new strategies	Practice	<i>General practice</i> Learners are given a range of tasks to deploy new strategies

3		Learners are shown how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks	Expansion	
		Learners are provided with further tasks and asked to make choices about which strategies they will use		<i>Action planning</i> Learners are guided to select strategies that will help them address their particular difficulties <i>Further practice and fading out of reminders</i> to use strategies
4	Teacher assists learners in evaluating their success with the new strategies	Teacher helps learners to understand the success of their strategy use and assess their progress towards more self-directed learning	Evaluation	<i>Evaluation</i> Teacher guides learners to evaluate progress and strategy use and to set selves new goals.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF READING STRATEGIES (SORS)

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the various techniques you use when you read **academic materials in English** (e.g. reading textbooks for homework or examinations, reading journal articles, etc.)

All the items below refer to your reading of **college-related academic materials (such as textbooks, not newspapers or magazines)**.

Each statement is followed by five numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, and each number means the following:

“1” means that “I **never or almost never** do this”.

“2” means that “I do this **only occasionally**”.

“3” means that “I **sometimes** do this”. (About **50%** of the time.)

“4” means that “I **usually** do this”.

“5” means that “I **always or almost always** do this”.

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which applies to you. Note that there are **no right or wrong responses** to any of the items in this survey.

Statements		Never Always				
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
5	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
12	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
14	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5

19	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
25	When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
28	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	1	2	3	4	5
29	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	1	2	3	4	5
30	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

OKUMA STRATEJİLERİ ANKETİ (OSA)

Bu anketin amacı **İngilizce akademik materyalleri** (örneğin ödev, için ders kitabı, makale okuma gibi) okurken kullandığımız çeşitli teknikler hakkında bilgi toplamaktır.

Aşağıdaki maddelerin hepsi okuldaki (ders kitabı gibi, gazete gibi **DEĞİL**) okumalarla ilgilidir.

Her ifadeden sonra 1'den 5'e kadar sayılar vardır ve şu anlama gelirler:

“1” “Ben bunu **hiçbir zaman ya da neredeyse hiçbir zaman** yapmam”.

“2” “Ben bunu **sadece nadiren** yaparım”.

“3” “Ben bunu **bazen** yaparım”. (%50)

“4” “Ben bunu **genelde** yaparım”.

“5” “Ben bunu **her zaman ya da neredeyse her zaman** yaparım”.

Her ifadeyi okuduktan sonra size uyan rakamı (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) **yuvarlak içine alınız**. Lütfen **doğru ya da yanlış cevap olmadığını** unutmayınız.

İfadeler		Hiçbir Zaman					Her Zaman				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Okurken bir amacım vardır.	1	2	3	4	5					
2	Okurken anlamama yardımcı olsun diye notlar alırım.	1	2	3	4	5					
3	Okuduğumu anlamama yardımcı olsun diye önceden bildiklerimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5					
4	Okumadan önce ana fikri anlamak için metni genel olarak gözden geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5					
5	Metin zorlaştığında, anlamama yardımcı olması için sesli okuma yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5					
6	Metnin içeriğinin okuma amacıma uyup uymadığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5					
7	Okuduğumu anladığımdan emin olmak için yavaş ve dikkatlice okurum.	1	2	3	4	5					
8	Metni önce uzunluk ve organizasyon gibi özelliklerine dikkat ederek gözden geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5					
9	Konsantrasyonumu kaybettiğimde dikkatimi toplamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5					
10	Hatırlamamda yardımcı olması için metindeki bilgilerin altını çizer ya da yuvarlak içine alırım.	1	2	3	4	5					
11	Okuma hızımı okuduğum şeye göre ayarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5					
12	Okurken, neyi dikkatle okuyup, neyi göz ardı edeceğime karar veririm.	1	2	3	4	5					
13	Okuduğumu anlamama yardımcı olması için referans materyaller (örneğin sözlük) kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5					
14	Metin zorlaştığında okuduğum şeye daha da dikkat ederim.	1	2	3	4	5					
15	Kavramamı arttırması için tablolar, şekiller ve resimler kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5					
16	Okurken ara ara durur okuduklarım hakkında düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5					
17	Okuduğumu daha iyi anlamak için metindeki ipuçlarını kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5					

18	Okuduğumu daha iyi anlamak için cümleleri kendi sözcüklerimle tekrar kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Okuduğumu anlamama yardımcı olması için metindeki bilgiyi gözümde canlandırmaya, kafamda bir resim oluşturmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Anahtar bilgiyi belirlemek için kalın harf (bold), <i>italik harf</i> gibi baskı özelliklerini kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Parçada sunulan bilgiyi eleştirel olarak analiz eder ve değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Parçadaki fikirler hakkında bağ kurmak için parça içinde ileri ve geri giderim.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Yeni bir bilgiyle karşılaştığımda kavrayışımı kontrol ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Okuduğumda metnin içeriğini tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Metin zorlaştığında kavrayışımı arttırmak için yeniden okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Kendime metinde cevaplanmasını isteyeceğim sorular sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Metinle ilgili tahminlerim doğru mu yanlış mı diye kontrol ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Okurken bilmediğim kelime ve ibareler hakkında tahminde bulunurum.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Okuma yaparken İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviriler yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Okuma yaparken hem anadilimi hem de İngilizcedeki bilgimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D
ADULT SURVEY OF READING ATTITUDES

DIRECTIONS:

The statements in this survey are concerned with the way you feel about reading.

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS because people have different opinions and feelings about reading. For example, if I say, "reading is a source of pleasure for me" I'm sure many people would say that this statement is not true for them.

Therefore, it is important that you indicate how **YOU** really feel.

Please read each of the statements carefully. After you read each statement, decide if you agree or disagree with the statement.

Following each statement is a scale from 5 to 1:

- Circle 5 if you **STRONGLY AGREE** with the statement.
- Circle 4 if you **AGREE** with the statement.
- Circle 3 if you are **UNCERTAIN** how you feel about the statement.
- Circle 2 if you **DISAGREE** with the statement.
- Circle 1 if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** with the statement.

THERE ARE 40 STATEMENTS. PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH ONE.

Use a pencil to mark your answers.

Please respond to all of the items.

This portion will be detached so you will not be identified.

NAME:

SS#: _____ - _____ - _____

AGE: _____

Level of Education:

No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I learn better when someone shows me what to do than if I just read what to do.	5	4	3	2	1
2	I need a lot of help in reading.	5	4	3	2	1
3	I get a lot of satisfaction when I help other people with their reading problems, or when I read to others.	5	4	3	2	1
4	I get upset when I think about having to read.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Whenever my friends read a good book, they usually tell me about it.	5	4	3	2	1
6	I can read but I don't understand what I've read.	5	4	3	2	1
7	There are better ways to learn new things than by reading a book.	5	4	3	2	1
8	I am a good reader.	5	4	3	2	1
9	My friends enjoy having me tell them about the books that I read.	5	4	3	2	1
10	When I am at home I read a lot.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Reading is one of the best ways for me to learn things.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Most books in the public library are too difficult for me.	5	4	3	2	1
13	Reading is one of my favorite activities.	5	4	3	2	1
14	I want to have more books of my own.	5	4	3	2	1
15	I would rather have someone explain something to me than to try to learn it from a book.	5	4	3	2	1
16	I often feel anxious when I have a lot of reading to do.	5	4	3	2	1
17	I read when I have the time to enjoy it.	5	4	3	2	1
18	I try very hard, but I just can't read very well.	5	4	3	2	1
19	I quickly forget what I have read even if I have just read it.	5	4	3	2	1
20	I get nervous if I have to read a lot of information for my job or for some social activity.	5	4	3	2	1
21	Encountering unfamiliar words is the hardest part of reading.	5	4	3	2	1
22	My friends and I often discuss the books we have read.	5	4	3	2	1
23	I get a lot of enjoyment from reading.	5	4	3	2	1
24	I would rather read what to do than to have someone tell me what to do.	5	4	3	2	1
25	I remember the things people tell me better than the things I read.	5	4	3	2	1
26	I worry a lot about my reading.	5	4	3	2	1
27	I like going to the library for books.	5	4	3	2	1
28	When I read an interesting book, story, or article I like to tell my friends about it.	5	4	3	2	1

29	It is easier for me to understand what I am reading if pictures, charts, and diagrams are included.	5	4	3	2	1
30	I like to listen to other people talk about the books they have read.	5	4	3	2	1
31	Reading is one of the most interesting things which I do.	5	4	3	2	1
32	When I read I usually get tired and sleepy.	5	4	3	2	1
33	I'm the kind of person who enjoys a good book.	5	4	3	2	1
34	I have a lot in common with people who are poor readers.	5	4	3	2	1
35	I enjoy it when someone asks me to explain unfamiliar words or ideas to them.	5	4	3	2	1
36	I try to avoid reading because it makes me feel anxious.	5	4	3	2	1
37	I have trouble understanding what I read.	5	4	3	2	1
38	I'm afraid that people may find out what a poor reader I am.	5	4	3	2	1
39	I spend a lot of my spare time reading.	5	4	3	2	1
40	I enjoy receiving books as gifts.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX E
OKUMA DAVRANIŐI YETİŐKİN ANKETİ

AÇIKLAMALAR:

Anketteki ifadeler okumayla ilgili ne hissettiđinizle alakalıdır. İnsanların okumayla ilgili deđiŐik his ve dűŐünceleri olduđundan **DOĐRU YA DA YANLIŐ YANIT YOKTUR**. Örneđin; eđer ben “okumak benim için bir eđlence / zevk kaynađıdır” dersem, kuŐku yok ki pek çok insan bu ifadenin kendileri için dođru olmadıđını söyleyecektir. Bu sebeptendir ki, gerçekten **SİZİN** neler hissettiđinizi belirtmeniz önemlidir.

Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz. Daha sonar katılıp katılmadıđımıza karar veriniz. AŐađıda, ifadeler için verilmiŐ 5-1 arası deđerlendirme ölçeđi yer almaktadır.

Eđer ifadeye,

KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM diyorsanız 5,
KATILYORUM diyorsanız 4,
KARARSIZIM diyorsanız 3,
KATILMIYORUM diyorsanız 2,
KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM diyorsanız 1 rakamını yuvarlak içine alınız.

ANKETTE 40 ADET İFADE VARDIR. LÜTFEN HER BİRİNE YANIT VERİNİZ.

Yanıtlarınızı işaretlemek için kurŐun kalem kullanınız.
Bütün ifadeleri yanıt veriniz (**hiçbir ifadeyi yanıtıŐ bırakmayınız**).

ADINIZ:

ÖĐRENCİ NUMARANIZ: _____ - _____ - _____

YAŐINIZ: _____

Eđitim Dűzeyiniz:

Soru No	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	Birisi bana ne yapmam gerektiğini gösterdiğinde tek başıma okuyarak anladığımdan daha iyi anlıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2	Okurken çok fazla yardıma ihtiyaç duyuyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3	Başkalarına okuma sorunlarıyla ilgili yardım etmekten veya onlara sesli okuma yapmaktan memnun oluyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4	Okumak zorunda olduğum aklıma geldiğinde mutsuz oluyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Arkadaşlarım iyi bir kitap okuduklarında bana bundan sık sık söz ederler.	5	4	3	2	1
6	Okuyabiliyorum ama okuduğumu anlamıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Yeni şeyler öğrenmenin okumaktan daha iyi yolları vardır.	5	4	3	2	1
8	İyi bir okuyucuyum.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Arkadaşlarım okuduğum kitapları onlara anlatmamdan keyif alırlar.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Evdeyken çok okurum.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Bence okumak en iyi öğrenme yollarından biridir.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Kaynak odasındaki, kütüphanedeki çoğu kitap benim için çok zor.	5	4	3	2	1
13	Okumak en sevdiğim etkinliklerden biridir.	5	4	3	2	1
14	Kendime ait daha çok kitabımın olmasını isterdim.	5	4	3	2	1
15	Bir şeyi kitaplardan öğrenmeye çalışmaktansa birinin açıklamalarını dinlemeyi tercih ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
16	Çok fazla şey okumam gerektiğinde mutsuz olurum.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Keyfini çıkararak okurum.	5	4	3	2	1
18	Ne kadar çalışsam daha iyi okuyamıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
19	Okuduğum şeyi kısa süre önce görmüş olsam da çabucak unutuyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
20	Okul veya sosyal bir etkinlik için çok fazla şey okumak zorunda olmak beni huzursuz ediyor.	5	4	3	2	1
21	Bilmediğim sözcüklerle karşılaşmak okumanın en zor yanındır.	5	4	3	2	1
22	Çoğunlukla arkadaşlarımla okuduğumuz kitapları tartışırız.	5	4	3	2	1
23	Okumaktan büyük keyif alırım.	5	4	3	2	1
24	Birinin bana ne yapacağımı söylemesi yerine bunu kendim okumayı tercih ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
25	İnsanların bana anlattıkları şeyler okuduklarımdan daha çok aklımda kalır.	5	4	3	2	1
26	Okumamdan büyük endişe duyuyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

27	Kitap almak için kütüphaneye / kaynak odasına gitmeyi severim.	5	4	3	2	1
28	İlginç bir kitap, öykü veya makale okuduğumda bundan arkadaşlarıma bahsetmeyi severim.	5	4	3	2	1
29	Okuduğum bir parçada resimler, tablolar veya diyagramlar olduğunda parçayı daha rahat anlarım.	5	4	3	2	1
30	İnsanların okudukları kitapları anlatırken onları dinlemeyi severim.	5	4	3	2	1
31	Okumak yaptığım en ilgi çekici işlerden biridir.	5	4	3	2	1
32	Okurken çoğunlukla yorulurum ve uykum gelir.	5	4	3	2	1
33	İyi bir kitaptan keyif alan biriyim.	5	4	3	2	1
34	Okuması iyi olmayan kişilerle aramda pek çok ortak nokta vardır.	5	4	3	2	1
35	Birine bilinmeyen sözcükler veya yabancı gelen fikirler açıklamam istendiğinde mutlu olurum.	5	4	3	2	1
36	Okumaktan kaçınıyorum çünkü kendimi huzursuz hissettiriyor.	5	4	3	2	1
37	Okuduğumu anlamakta güçlük çekiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
38	İnsanların okumada kötü olduğumu anlamalarından çekiniyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
39	Boş vaktimin çoğunu okumakla geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
40	Bana kitap hediye edildiğinde mutlu olurum.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX F

READING COMPREHENSION TEST

NAME: _____

CLASS: _____

NUMBER: _____

POPULOUS COUNTRIES

The government of India encourages married men and women to be sterilized so they cannot have more children. In China, families can be punished for having more than one child. Both of these countries have very large populations, and if the number of people continues to increase, there will not be enough food, houses or jobs for the people. As a result, India, China, and other populous countries are following a family-planning policy- they want families to limit the number of children they will have. Teachers, doctors and social workers are explaining to the people why they should have fewer children by using birth control methods such as contraception and sterilization.

1- The passage is mainly about

- a) India and China
- b) sterilization
- c) family planning
- d) population explosion

2- What is the main idea of the paragraph?

- a) Some populous countries are following a family-planning policy.
- b) India and China have very large populations.
- c) The government of India encourages sterilization.
- d) In China, families can be punished for having more than one child.

3- We can understand from the passage that

- a) The world's population is increasing.
- b) People of India and China are all aware of the danger of having more than one child.

c) If a country has a lot of citizens, it becomes more difficult to raise the standard of living in that country.

d) World poverty has become one of the important issues of our time.

MEDAL, GLORY and HONOUR

During the twentieth century, the Olympic Games have grown. Now, thousands of athletes from more than 120 countries take part in hundreds of events; the Olympic Games are the most important sporting event in the world. The greatest ambition for athletes is to win a medal or simply take part in the Olympic Games, but there have been many problems. The games were interrupted during the two world wars, and since then, many countries have boycotted the games for political reasons.

The spirit of the Olympics has also changed in another way. In the modern world, the games are a great commercial event. Television companies and sponsors pay enormous sums of money. So the games were called 'The Capitalistic Olympics'. Original ideas were forgotten. Despite the problems, the history of the Olympics is full of great athletes , exciting competitions and incredible records. Thousands of courageous and distinguished men and women have competed in the original spirit of Olympism.

4- According to the passage, some countries refused to join the games

- a) just because of the political reasons.
- b) because there had been two World Wars.
- c) due to commercial events.
- d) because of the fact that the games were interrupted.

5- Now thousands of dedicated athletes from more than 120 countries take part in hundreds of events even though

- a) the Olympics are called as a great commercial event.
 - b) many countries have boycotted the games.
 - c) there are some political and commercial problems.
 - d) the spirit of the Olympics has become to win a medal since the World War II.
- 6- The spirit of the Olympics can be
- a) to win a medal and money.
 - b) to compete for glory and for the honour of their country.
 - c) to be seen in the TV commercials.
 - d) to represent a poor country.

THE WHITE HOUSE

The White House, the official home of the United States President, was not built in time for George Washington to live in it. It was begun in 1792 and was ready for its first inhabitants, President and Mrs. John Adams, in 1800. When the Adamses moved in, the White House was not yet complete, and the Adamses suffered many inconveniences. Thomas Jefferson, the third president, improved the comfort of the White House in many respects and added new architectural features such as the terraces on the east and west ends. When British forces burned the White House on August, 24, 1814, President Madison was forced to leave, and it was not until 1817 that then President James Monroe was able to return to a rebuilt residence. since then the White House has been occupied by each US President.

7- Why did Geroge Washington NOT live in the White House?

- a) It had been burned by the British.
- b) He did not like the architectural features.
- c) He did not want to suffer the inconvenience that the Adamses had suffered.
- d) Construction had not yet been completed.

8- One can understand from the passage that John Adams was

- a) the first President of the United States.
- b) the last President of the United States.
- c) the second President of the United States.
- d) the third President of the United States.

9- According to the passage, which of the following best describes Thomas Jefferson's period in the White House?,

- a) He had to run away from the White House because of the war with the British.
- b) He accepted the inconveniences.
- c) He removed the terraces that had been added by Adams.
- d) He worked to improve the appearance and convenience of the White House.

BOOKWORMS

A bookworm is one of those people who cannot stop reading. They always have their nose in a book and read for pleasure. They can walk along a street with a book in front of them and not notice the world go by. When they go to bed, their lights stay on for ages because they cannot go to sleep until they have finished their latest novel or biography. They have books with them and around them wherever they go. Quite simply, they just love reading. There used to be a lot of them, but now they are a dying breed.

Television, video and the wide range of social and recreational opportunities which are now available have taken the place of books in many homes. School children and students still have to read but they usually read because they have to, rather than because they enjoy it. Once they have left school or college, many feel that they never want to open a book again, and according to a recent survey, many do not. In Australia, 80 % of university graduates never read another book from the beginning to the end. In England, 44 % of the population say that they

never buy a book and a further 1% buy only one book a year.

10- Bookworms are people who....

- a) are interested in the things that are happening around them when they are reading.
- b) keep their books only in one place in their house.
- c) can stay awake for a long time to finish the book they are reading.
- d) enjoy reading and whose number is increasing.

11- Which of the following is NOT true?

- a) Most students read because they have to.
- b) The wide range of social and recreational activities have had a negative effect on reading.
- c) Students don't usually read for pleasure.
- d) There used to be fewer people who loved reading.

12- Statistics show us that

- a) in Britain, 44 % of the population don't read anything at all.
- b) in Australia, most university graduates do not like reading.
- c) in Australia, only 20 % of the population finish reading a whole book.
- d) in Britain, everybody buys at least one book a year.

BOREDOM

One way to fight off boredom is to alternate one subject with another when you study. There is no rule that you have to spend a four-hour block of time on one subject. Another way to reduce boredom is to take study breaks every hour or so. Try to do something different for five or ten minutes. When you are in the middle of writing a paper, a break to write a letter may not be as relaxing as a break in which you walk the dog. Taking a break is better than staring at a book without absorbing anything. Not only does the staring stop you from resting, but it also

establishes the habit of nonconcentration while studying.

13-The topic for the paragraph could be ...

- a) different kinds of boredom
- b) how to study
- c) how to avoid boredom
- d) when to rest

14- The writer advises

- a) to stare at a book without understanding it
- b) to stop resting while studying
- c) to take short breaks now and then to get rid of boredom
- d) to write a letter from time to time

15- In the paragraph 'To alternate one subject with another' means ...

- a) to write different things.
- b) to distinguish one subject from the another.
- c) to confuse one subject with another.
- d) to study different subjects one after the other.

HISTORY

Many students regard history as a dull, boring study of facts and dates. Instead, it is an account of the true-life drama of humankind. The study of history helps you understand the present and anticipate the future analyzing and explaining what happened in the past. Humans have always had a desire to know something about their past. Before history was recorded and preserved, historical events were passed down from generation to generation by word of mouth and through the art and music of the people. Today historians provide accurate information in beautifully bound and illustrated books that are a pleasure to read and study.

16- The writer thinks

- a) history is a dull subject.
- b) history is the study of the past of man.
- c) history changes from generation to generation.
- d) historians are good writers.

17- Many students find history dull because ...

- a) they don't like it.
- b) they are not interested in the past.
- c) it is a difficult subject.
- d) they are supposed to remember only facts and dates.

18- The writer ...

- a) thinks history helps us to understand the future.
- b) criticizes the present state of history.
- c) explains historical facts and dates.
- d) suggests new ways of writing history books.

LANGUAGE LEARNING

Most children are excellent language learners. They can learn a second language quickly and easily. Most adults, on the other hand, find learning a second language difficult. They must study hard, and it usually takes them a long time to master the language. Adults usually try to learn a second language the same way they learn mathematics, science, history, or other subjects, but children learn a second language the same way they learned their first language. The child language learner has all the necessary skills to learn another language, but the adult language learner often has to relearn these skills in order to learn a second language.

19- The passage is mainly concerned with ...

- a) mother tongue learning
- b) adult language learners
- c) child language learners
- d) child and adult language learners

20- One can conclude from the passage that ...

- a) children are excellent language learners.
- b) adults find language learning rather difficult.
- c) children are better language learners than adults.
- d) language learning is like science, maths and history learning.

VITAMIN CONSUMPTION

Excessive vitamin consumption is a potential problem. Some people take unnecessarily large quantities of vitamins and minerals for years, assuming that if a little is good for them, a lot must be better. There is no evidence to support their convictions. In fact, a study released last month in a public health journal says that people who take supplements are not healthier and do not live longer. According to researchers, almost no one needs to take them. Vitamin deficiencies are almost non-existent in the West except for among some elderly people who don't eat properly as their diets do not usually include sufficient fresh fruit and vegetables.

21- The writer thinks that a higher level of vitamin consumption ...

- a) should be avoided by the elderly.
- b) makes one live much longer.
- c) has been proved to be beneficial for health.
- d) does not cause better health.

22- It is pointed out in the passage that Western societies ...

- a) do not generally suffer from any serious vitamin deficiency.
- b) have to rely heavily on vitamins to supplement their diet.
- c) do not have adequate fruit and vegetables in their diet.
- d) disregard the health problems of the elderly.

23- According to the passage research has shown the fact that ...

- a) excessive amounts of vitamins should not be consumed by the elderly.
- b) vitamin supplements are not needed by healthy people.
- c) vitamin consumption is no longer popular in the West.

- d) the consumption of minerals is more necessary than vitamins.

DEPRESSION

What makes you feel alone in the world is depression. Particularly when you are with people who think depression is all in your mind. Well, it is not. It is a real illness with real causes. Depression can occur suddenly, for no apparent reason. Or it can be caused by stressful life happenings, such as having a chronic illness or losing a job. Some people think you can get rid of depression yourself. But that's not true. Most doctors believe that one of things that may lead to depression is an imbalance of a chemical in your body called serotonin. If this happens, you may have trouble sleeping. You will find it difficult to concentrate, feel unusually sad or irritable. You may even lose your appetite, lack energy. These are some of the symptoms that indicate that a person is suffering from depression. In order to fight depression, doctors now prescribe a medicine called Prozac which is not a tranquilizer.

24- According to the passage....

- a) depression is widely spread through our society and people of all ages are under threat.
- b) depression can make you feel lonely.
- c) this illness is very easy to overcome as there are many modern drugs.
- d) depression is the most common disease in the world.

25- We learn from the passage that a person who suffers from depression

- a) does not have sleeping problems.
- b) can easily concentrate on what he or she is doing.
- c) does not suffer from lack of appetite, but wants to eat a lot.

- d) has less energy than a normal person.

26- We can understand from the passage that

...

- a) depression is not an illness although it looks like one.
- b) there is no cure or treatment for depression.
- c) depression is sometimes caused by the imbalance of serotonin in the body.
- d) depression is also known as drowsiness.

MARCO POLO

Marco Polo was born in 1254 in the Venetian Republic. The city of Venice, Italy was at the center of the Venetian Republic. When he was 17 years old, he went to China with his father, Niccolo, and his uncle, Maffeo. Pope Gregory X sent them to visit Kublai Khan, the emperor of China. Kublai Khan liked Marco Polo. He enjoyed Marco Polo's stories about many lands. Kublai Khan gave Marco Polo a job. He sent Polo on diplomatic missions. He also made him governor of Yangzhou, an important trading city. When Marco Polo went back to the Venetian Republic, he talked about his life in China. Few believed his stories. In 1298, he went to jail during a war between Venice and Genoa. While he was a prisoner in jail, he dictated his stories about China to another man in jail. The man wrote down the stories. The stories became the book, "The Travels of Marco Polo." Each chapter of the book covers a specific region of China. Each chapter is about the military, farming, religion, and culture of a certain area. The book was translated into many languages. Marco Polo got out of jail in 1299. He went back to Venice to join his father and uncle. He became very rich. In 1300 he got married, and he and his wife had three children. Marco Polo died in 1324. He was almost 70 years old.

27- Marco Polo went to China when he was 17 because ...

- a) Kublai Khan was a family member.
- b) he was appointed to visit the emperor there.
- c) Kublai Khan liked him so much and invited him.
- d) he wanted to find a job there.

28- In China, Marco Polo

- a) was put into prison.
- b) told stories about Yangzhou.
- c) was sent on diplomatic missions by the emperor.
- d) became the new emperor.

29- Marco Polo's stories

- a) were written down by himself in the jail.
- b) were written down by a prisoner.
- c) were mainly about military.
- d) were translated into a few languages.

NASREDDIN AND THE POOR MAN

One day, Nasreddin was up on the roof of his house, mending a hole in the tiles. He had nearly finished, and he was pleased with his work. Suddenly, he heard a voice below call "Hello!" When he looked down, Nasreddin saw an old man in dirty clothes standing below. "What do you want?" asked Nasreddin. "Come down and I'll tell you," called the man. Nasreddin was annoyed, but he was a polite man, so he put down his tools. Carefully, he climbed all the way down to the ground. "What do you want?" he asked, when he reached the ground. "Could you spare a little money for an old beggar?" asked the old man. Nasreddin thought for a minute. Then he said, "Come with me." He began climbing the ladder again. The old man followed him all the way to the top. When they were both sitting on the roof, Nasreddin turned to the beggar. "No," he said.

30- Why was Nasreddin on the roof of his house?

- a) He was looking at the view.

b) He was waiting for the old man.

c) He was fixing the roof.

d) He was begging.

31- Why was Nasreddin angry at the man?

a) It was a hot day.

b) It was a long way to go down the ladder.

c) He knew the beggar only wanted money.

d) The man didn't help him with his work.

32- Why did Nasreddin make the beggar climb up the ladder?

a) He wanted to get his revenge on the beggar.

b) He wanted to show him the view from the roof.

c) He wanted the beggar to help him fix the roof.

d) He wanted to give him some money.

PLAY THE STATE LOTTERY ... WIN YOUR DREAMS!

Yesterday, the state lottery made two new millionaires. The total jackpot was \$ 4,600,000; each will take home half that amount. The first winner is Lisa Morton, age 45, of Santa Rosa. Ms. Morton says she plans to spend \$ 475,000 right away to buy the house that she has always wanted. The other winner is Winston Yu, age 62, of Bakersfield. Mr. Yu plans to quit his job, give each of his children \$ 125,000, and spend \$ 8,500 fixing his house. Next Tuesday's lottery jackpot is now set at \$ 1,200,000. You could become a millionaire, and make your dreams come true!

33- One winner of yesterday's lottery will get

a) \$ 4,600,000

b) \$ 2,300,000

c) \$ 475,000

d) \$ 1,200,000

34- We understand from the passage that ...

a) Ms. Morton has been dreaming of a house for a long time.

b) Ms. Morton will spend all her money right away.

- c) Ms. Morton has no children.
- d) Ms. Morton doesn't work.

35- Which of the following is true?

- a) Mr. Yu has a lot of children.
- b) His house is in a bad state of repair.
- c) Mr. Yu has a tiring job.
- d) He's decided to give up working.

HEALTH NEWS

A report published today in a leading medical journal claims that working out can be harmful to your health. For many years doctors have told people that exercising regularly is good for your health. However, they have found proof that exercising too much can have damaging effects on the body. When we exercise, chemicals called endorphins are released into the brain. These endorphins energize the body, and give us a lift or high. It is this 'high' that people who exercise too much become addicted to. Although scientists say that experiencing this lift regularly is good for health, evidence shows that too much of it is damaging. People who are addicted to exercise should not quit altogether. Doctors advise them just to stop exercising too often.

36- We understand from the passage that

- a) exercising is not beneficial to our body.
- b) we have been wrong about sports
- c) exercising is good, but exercising too much is not.
- d) endorphin is harmful to our health.

37- When we exercise ...

- a) endorphin release makes us energetic.
- b) endorphin helps us to jump high.
- c) our brain produces endorphin.
- d) we become drug addicts.

38- Scientists believe that ...

- a) exercising is harmful.
- b) exercising regularly makes people unhealthy.
- c) endorphin addicts should not stop exercising at once.

- d) exercising too often is what people need to stay healthy.

I LOVE LUCY

I Love Lucy was a popular American TV show during the 1950s. It was created by a married couple, Desi Arnaz and Lucille Ball. It was the first television show with a live audience. The star of this show was a housewife named Lucy Ricardo. She was always doing funny things and getting into trouble. Lucy's type of comedy, based on funny physical movements, is called 'slapstick'. Lucy's husband, Ricky Ricardo, was an immigrant from Cuba who spoke English with an accent. At times, he got angry or excited and spoke Spanish on the show. I Love Lucy became the highest-rated show in North America, and people still watch it on cable television today. It seems that people who enjoy comedy will always love Lucy.

39- I Love Lucy was ...

- a) the motto of a popular American TV channel.
- b) the first American TV show.
- c) created by Lucy and Ricky Ricardo.
- d) watched by people in the studio.

40- I Love Lucy ...

- a) has been watched by people since 1950.
- b) is the highest-rated show now.
- c) is not preferred by people who like comedy.
- d) was a show about immigrants from Spain.

41- What is a 'slapstick'?

- a) a character type.
- b) Lucy's nickname.
- c) a type of humorous acting.
- d) funny appearance.

LEOPOLD AND LOEB

The story of Leopold and Loeb is one of guilt, not innocence. Everyone knew that they had murdered a young boy for no reason. But their parents were able to pay for their services of a good lawyer because they belonged to the highest

level of society. The lawyer succeeded in stopping the execution of Leopold and Loeb. Some citizens were angry about this because of the cruelty of the murder. For the family of the murdered boy, this was not an example of fairness. Instead, it was an example of the fact that wealthy people are often able to avoid punishment. No one knows if the relatives of the murdered boy were ever able to offer their forgiveness to Leopold and Loeb. But it was a well-known fact that Leopold and Loeb were sorry for what they had done. Leopold spent the rest of his life caring for sick people after his immigration to another land. Loeb showed good citizenship by following all the rules in prison and helping other prisoners learn to read.

42- Leopold and Loeb were not executed because ...

- a) Nobody knew they were guilty.
- b) Everyone knew that they were innocent.
- c) Their families were wealthy enough to hire good lawyers.
- d) Their parents were highly respected in the society.

43- Which of the following is **NOT** true?

- a) The lawyers avoided the deaths of the boys.
- b) There were citizens in the country who were furious with the boys.
- c) Leopold and Loeb killed the young boy for some reason.
- d) Nobody knows whether the murdered boy's relatives could forgive the murderers.

44- Leopold and Loeb ...

- a) were cruel murderers.
- b) have poor families.
- c) do not regret having killed the boy.
- d) spent the rest of their lives caring for the poor.

THE WOODSTOCK FESTIVAL

Pop and Rock music festivals have been taking place for many years, but probably the most famous one of them all took place over thirty years ago. It is known as Woodstock because it was held near a place of that name in New York State in the U.S. It took place in August 1969 and nothing like it had ever happened before. About half a million young people came from all over the US- as the festival was going on, more and more people heard about it and decided to go there. Beforehand, the organizers had not been expecting so many people and both the field where the festival was happening and the roads around it became very crowded. Lots of famous singers and bands performed. It rained a lot during the festival but people were having such a good time that they didn't care. When it was over, it became a legendary event in the history of popular culture and a film of the event was later released. Then, there have been lots of other big festivals all over the world.

45- Pop and Rock Festival ...

- a) in Woodstock was the least popular one of all.
- b) first took place in 1969.
- c) in Woodstock was the most popular one of all.
- d) in Woodstock was named after a man in New York State.

46- Woodstock Pop and Rock Festival had

- a) a million visitors in 1969.
- b) over a million visitors in 1969.
- c) more than 500,000 visitors in 1969.
- d) a few visitors in 1969.

47- Which of the following is true ?

- a) Famous singers and actors played in a film in the festival field.
- b) The festival was a film scenario.
- c) The festival was the first in history.
- d) A film was shot about the festival.

APPENDIX G

Reading Comprehension Test

Item and Test Analysis

Item	Key	Number Correct	Item Diff.	Disc. Index	# Correct in High Grp	# Correct in Low Grp	Point Biser.	Adj. Pt Bis
Item 01	(3)	68	0.68	0.34	22 (0.79)	12 (0.44)	0.28	0.23
Item 02	(1)	86	0.86	0.34	26 (0.93)	16 (0.59)	0.40	0.36
Item 03	(3) #	47	0.47	0.27	18 (0.64)	10 (0.37)	0.18	0.13
Item 04	(1)	62	0.62	0.31	20 (0.71)	11 (0.41)	0.28	0.24
Item 05	(1) #	16	0.16	-0.19	3 (0.11)	8 (0.30)	-0.23	-0.26
Item 06	(2)	39	0.39	0.42	18 (0.64)	6 (0.22)	0.31	0.26
Item 07	(4)	75	0.75	0.56	27 (0.96)	11 (0.41)	0.50	0.46
Item 08	(1) #	15	0.15	-0.04	2 (0.07)	3 (0.11)	-0.04	-0.08
Item 09	(4)	73	0.73	0.45	25 (0.89)	12 (0.44)	0.44	0.40
Item 10	(3)	66	0.66	0.49	24 (0.86)	10 (0.37)	0.46	0.42
Item 11	(4)	30	0.30	0.60	20 (0.71)	3 (0.11)	0.41	0.37
Item 12	(2) #	36	0.36	0.24	12 (0.43)	5 (0.19)	0.22	0.17
Item 13	(3)	77	0.77	0.56	26 (0.93)	10 (0.37)	0.55	0.51
Item 14	(3)	79	0.79	0.59	27 (0.96)	10 (0.37)	0.57	0.54
Item 15	(2)	46	0.46	0.78	24 (0.86)	2 (0.07)	0.55	0.51
Item 16	(2)	36	0.36	0.21	12 (0.43)	6 (0.22)	0.26	0.21
Item 17	(4)	53	0.53	0.46	20 (0.71)	7 (0.26)	0.35	0.31
Item 18	(1)	45	0.45	0.53	20 (0.71)	5 (0.19)	0.40	0.35
Item 19	(4)	69	0.69	0.45	24 (0.86)	11 (0.41)	0.38	0.33
Item 20	(4)	69	0.69	0.74	28 (1.00)	7 (0.26)	0.61	0.58
Item 21	(4)	62	0.62	0.71	26 (0.93)	6 (0.22)	0.57	0.54
Item 22	(1) #	31	0.31	0.28	14 (0.50)	6 (0.22)	0.22	0.17
Item 23	(2)	46	0.46	0.53	22 (0.79)	7 (0.26)	0.40	0.35
Item 24	(2)	48	0.48	0.38	17 (0.61)	6 (0.22)	0.32	0.27
Item 25	(4)	61	0.61	0.63	24 (0.86)	6 (0.22)	0.56	0.53
Item 26	(3)	72	0.72	0.56	27 (0.96)	11 (0.41)	0.52	0.49
Item 27	(2)	64	0.64	0.71	24 (0.86)	4 (0.15)	0.63	0.59
Item 28	(3)	70	0.70	0.74	28 (1.00)	7 (0.26)	0.68	0.66
Item 29	(2)	47	0.47	0.24	17 (0.61)	10 (0.37)	0.25	0.20
Item 30	(3)	71	0.71	0.74	28 (1.00)	7 (0.26)	0.67	0.64
Item 31	(2)	54	0.54	0.63	24 (0.86)	6 (0.22)	0.51	0.47
Item 32	(1)	63	0.63	0.78	26 (0.93)	4 (0.15)	0.67	0.64
Item 33	(2)	56	0.56	0.93	26 (0.93)	0 (0.00)	0.73	0.71
Item 34	(1)	63	0.63	0.81	28 (1.00)	5 (0.19)	0.70	0.67
Item 35	(4)	41	0.41	0.53	21 (0.75)	6 (0.22)	0.33	0.28
Item 36	(3)	60	0.60	0.74	25 (0.89)	4 (0.15)	0.64	0.60
Item 37	(1)	40	0.40	0.64	22 (0.79)	4 (0.15)	0.47	0.43
Item 38	(3)	56	0.56	0.71	25 (0.89)	5 (0.19)	0.58	0.54
Item 39	(4)	23	0.23	0.35	14 (0.50)	4 (0.15)	0.29	0.25
Item 40	(1)	49	0.49	0.60	23 (0.82)	6 (0.22)	0.47	0.43
Item 41	(3)	42	0.42	0.71	22 (0.79)	2 (0.07)	0.55	0.51
Item 42	(3)	42	0.42	0.56	21 (0.75)	5 (0.19)	0.48	0.44
Item 43	(3)	37	0.37	0.50	16 (0.57)	2 (0.07)	0.42	0.38
Item 44	(1)	37	0.37	0.31	14 (0.50)	5 (0.19)	0.31	0.27
Item 45	(3)	48	0.48	0.46	18 (0.64)	5 (0.19)	0.41	0.36
Item 46	(3)	60	0.60	0.78	26 (0.93)	4 (0.15)	0.66	0.63
Item 47	(4) #	25	0.25	0.17	11 (0.39)	6 (0.22)	0.13	0.08

=====

marks potential problems (p<0.2 or p>0.9, D<0.2, pbis<0.2, adjpbis<0.2)

These results have been sorted by item number

APPENDIX H

Öğrencilerin Okuma Dersi Değerlendirmeleri

Kontrol Grubu

Öğrenci 1 (kontrol grubu)

Geçen dönemki reading dersi eğlenceliydi. Kitaptaki konular gayet eğlenceliydi ve ilgi çekiciydi. Bana kelime açısından çok şey kattığını düşünüyorum.

Öğrenci 2 (kontrol grubu)

Reading dersinde, kullanabileceğim çok fazla faydalı kelime öğrendim. En büyük faydası o oldu. Onun dışında sizinle derste her an soru sorabilme ihtimalinize karşı tetikte olmamız da öğrenme seviyemizi arttırdı. Bunun dışında biraz daha oyun veya değişik aktiviteli bir ders daha eğlenceli olabilir.

Öğrenci 3 (kontrol grubu)

Reading dersinde boşluklara daha iyi kelime bulabiliyorum ve çok fazla kelime öğrendik. Main idea, inference gibi şeyleri daha kolay bulabiliyoruz. Kitaptaki konular da ilgi çekici ve değişik olduğundan daha zevkli oluyor.

Öğrenci 4 (kontrol grubu)

Reading dersi tam anlamıyla formatına uygun olarak işlendi. Gerek kelime bilgisi, gerekse seçimi tamamen doğru yapılmış bir National Geographic serisinden kitap olsun, işe deneyimli hocalarımız da girince her şey daha da mükemmeldi. Her şey için teşekkürler.

Öğrenci 5 (kontrol grubu)

Geçen dönemki reading dersi çok yararlı, eğlenceli ve eğiticiydi. Birçok yeni, günlük hayatta kullanabileceğimiz kelimeler, konular öğrendik. Konuların ilgi çekici olması ve öğretmenin güzel anlatımıyla birlikte ders aklımda kaldı. Hatta bu konuları okul dışında arkadaşlarımla da paylaştım ve onların da ilgilerini çekti.

Öğrenci 6 (kontrol grubu)

Genelde skill derslerinde çok sıkıldığım için bu ders de bazen sıkıcı geliyor bana. Ama konular sıkılmayınca güzel olabiliyor. Tek parçada çok fazla bilinmeyen kelime olması işimizi zorlaştırıyor. Anında ezberlemeyip birikince kur sınavı öncesine kadar çok kötü oluyor, şimdi olduğu gibi.

Öğrenci 7 (kontrol grubu)

Değerli Hocam X'in dersi bir arkadaş ortamı yaratarak işleyişi, gülen yüzü sayesinde dersler çok zevkli geçti. Özellikle kelime haznemizin gelişmesine çok önemli katkıda bulundu. Kendisine teşekkürlerimi sunuyorum.

Öğrenci 8 (kontrol grubu)

Reading dersi benim için çok faydalı oldu. Daha önceki okul yıllarında hiç İngilizce metinler okumamıştım. Bir metin okuduğumda ve anladığımda çok mutlu oluyorum.

Öğrenci 9 (kontrol grubu)

Dersler çok iyi geçiyor. Özellikle hocamızın gülyüzlü olması dersin zevkli geçmesini sağlıyor. Öğrencilerin sürekli ders dinleyip, eğlenmeden bir şey öğrenmesi çok zor. Reading dersinin zevkli geçmesi hocamızın sayesinde. Diğer kurlarda bu kadar eğlenceli değildi. Hocamız gülyüzlü olunca daha çok şey öğrenebiliyorum. Ayrıca aklımda kalıyor öğrendiklerim. Ders işleyiş tarzı da çok iyi.

Öğrenci 10 (kontrol grubu)

Bence reading dersi gerçekten yararlıydı. Çünkü kelime anlamında gerçekten kendimi geliştirdiğimi düşünüyorum. Özellikle X adlı hocamın bu konuda desteği büyük oldu.

Öğrenci 11 (kontrol grubu)

Reading derslerinde günlük hayatta kullanabileceğim birçok kelime öğrendim. Bunun yanında seçilmiş olan Reading Explorer kitabından genel kültür açısından çok şey kazandığımızı düşünüyorum. Dersler de oldukça verimli işlendi ve negatif hiçbir fikrim yok. Saygılarımla.

Öğrenci 12 (kontrol grubu)

Reading dersinde çok fazla kelime öğrendik. Dersler eğlenceli geçti. Daha fazla oyun oynasaydık daha güzel olurdu. Dersin ortasında yaklaşık 5 dakika ara verilseydi daha verimli olabilirdi. Aynı ders içinde birden çok text yapmak yorucuydu. Bu yüzden 2 text arasında 2-3 dakika ara vermek iyi olabilirdi.

Öğrenci 13 (kontrol grubu)

Birçok faydası oldu. Kitabımız farklı konular anlatıyor. Hem onlar hakkında bilgimiz oldu hem de birçok kelime öğrendik. Bazen çok uzun, anlamsız konular oluyor bu da dersi sıkıcı hale getiriyor. Bazen hocamızla kelime oyunu oynuyoruz. Bu kelimelerin aklımızda kalması açısından önemli.

Öğrenci 14 (kontrol grubu)

Kelime dağarcığımız açısından çok yararlı ve faydalı bir ders olduğunu düşünüyorum. Main course ve diğer derslerde öğrenemeyeceğimiz kadar çok kelime öğrenmemizi sağladı. Bizim okuma ve konuşma yeteneğimizi de arttırdı. Fakat haftada 3 saat yerine en az 6 saat olmalıydı. Teşekkürler.

Öğrenci 15 (kontrol grubu)

Bence reading dersi diğer derslere göre daha yararlı oldu. Özellikle kelimeleri en iyi şekilde öğrenebilmenin ilginç bir yolu reading dersi.

Öğrenci 16 (kontrol grubu)

Reading dersinin bu dönemde bana göre en büyük katkısı oldukça fazla derecede kelime öğretmesidir. Ayrıca, reading kitabındaki konular sıkıcı olmayıp, çok faydalı bilgiler içeriyordu. En azından genel kültürü arttıracak bilgiler vardı. Reading dersindeki aktiviteler, egzersizler oldukça iyiydi.

Deney Grubu

Öğrenci 19 (deney grubu)

İkinci dönemden itibaren readingteki kelimeleri daha iyi öğrendim çünkü hem hocamız benzerleriyle birlikte öğretiyor [kelimeleri] hem de dersi daha aktif ve güzel işliyoruz. Benim tek sıkıntım ünitelerin yetişmesi konusunda vaktimiz daha bol olsaydı daha fazla konsantre olmuş şekilde işleyebiliriz dersi.

Öğrenci 20 (deney grubu)

Farklı, ilginç şeyler öğrendim. Konular güzeldi, sıkılmadım. Konuyu okumadan önce araştırma yaptığımız için birşeyler öğrenmiş oldum. Okurken geri dönüp düşündüğümde beynimde canlanmasının daha faydalı olduğunu gördüm.

Öğrenci 21 (deney grubu)

- 1- strateji eğitimi okuma,okuduğunu anlama, anlayarak okuma.
- 2- Daha rahat ders dinleme, dersten kopmama
- 3- En ilgisiz, alakasız konuları bayılmadan okuyup soruları cevaplayabilme.
- 4- Eşanlımlılardan oluşan kelime listesi

Öğrenci 22 (deney grubu)

Bence geçen dönemki reading dersi çok verimli geçti. Özellikle kelime açısından. Bunun yanında yeni reading stratejileri öğrendik ve bu reading stratejileri okuduğumuzu daha iyi anlamamızı sağladı ve en önemlisi okumadan önce parçayla ilgili daha kolay bilgi edinmemizi sağladı.

Öğrenci 23 (deney grubu)

Reading dersiyle ilgili en önemli şey reading stratejileri ile okuduğumuzu daha iyi anlayabilme yeteneğimizin gelişmiş olmasıdır. Bence, yapılan sınavların olumsuz etkisinden başka bir getirisi yoktur. Bu karara da gerek sınıfta gerek kantinde duyduklarımdaydım.

Öğrenci 24 (deney grubu)

Strateji eğitimi hayalgücünü de kullanarak okuduğumu anlamamı geliştirdi. Takıldığım yerleri nasıl anlamlandıracağımı anladım. Kendi kendime soru sormayı öğrendim.

Öğrenci 25 (deney grubu)

Reading dersi ilk dönemden farklı olarak işlendi ikinci dönemde. Daha eğlenceli, daha anlaşılabilir oldu bana göre. Kelimelerin eşanlamlı olanlarıyla açıklanması çok daha akılda kalıcı hale getirdi onları. Okumadan önceki sorular okuduktan sonra tekrar gözden geçirilince, aslında neyi nasıl beklememiz gerektiğini öğrendik.

Öğrenci 26 (deney grubu)

Önceden yaptığımız şeyleri şimdi ders olarak işledik. Böylece ayrıntılı olarak gördük. Okumadan önce ne yapmamız gerektiğini öğrendik. Bazıları gereklidir ve işe yaradığını da söyleyebilirim ama gereksiz şeyler de vardı bana göre. Örneğin soru çıkarmak ve cevaplamak. Belki neler beklediğimizi söylemek için önemli olabilir ama gerekli olduğunu sanmıyorum ne de olsa sonuçta okuyacağız. Ama diğerleri güzeldi. Teşekkürler!

Öğrenci 27 (deney grubu)

İlk başlarda çok sevdim. Okuduğumuzu daha iyi anladık, daha eğlenceliydi. Okuyacağımız konu hakkında soru yazmak ve internette bilgi edinmek, konuya daha bilinçli yaklaşmamızı sağladı. Fakat her hafta tekrar tekrar soru yazmak son zamanlarda biraz sıkılaşmaya başladı. Aynı şeyi hep tekrar ederim gibi. Bu sınavı ilk olduğum zaman daha çok zorlanmıştım ama şimdi daha hızlı ve anlayarak yaptım. Çalışmalarımızın bizi geliştirdiğini farkettim.

Öğrenci 28 (deney grubu)

Bana göre bu dönem reading dersi daha eğlenceli ve akıcı geçti. Kitaba körü körüne bağlı kalarak değil kendimizden de birşeyler katarak dersi işlemek, dersi daha çekici kıldı.

Öğrenci 29 (deney grubu)

Reading dersini sevmiyorum ama biraz eğlenceli hale geldi geçen dönem. Yine de adım adım ilerleyeceğiz diye durakladığımız zamanlarda sınıfta gürültü oluyordu ve öğrenmem gereken kelimeleri kaçırıyordum. Resim çizmemiz çok saçmaydı, bir yararı olduğunu düşünmüyorum ama yine de bu stratejiyle değişik hale geldi, renk kattı derse.

Öğrenci 31 (deney grubu)

Bence reading dersi çok başarılıydı. Eskiden okurken çok durup düşünmezdim, zaman kaybı olarak düşünürdüm ama faydalı olduğunu öğrendim. Artık daha kısa zamanda anlayarak okuyabildiğimi düşünüyorum. Ders olarak eğlenceli geçti. Yaptığımız aktiviteler güzeldi. Eğlenerek öğrendik!!

Öğrenci 32 (deney grubu)

Reading dersleri bu kur daha eğlenceliydi. Konular ilgimi çekti, bu da katılmamı, katılırken de daha iyi öğrenmemi sağladı. Bunun diğer bir nedeni de reading stratejilerini farkında olarak uygulamamdı. Resimler, captionlar derken konuya daha hakim olduğumdaydı. Resim çizmek en eğlenceli kısımdaydı. Bir de bu kur, kelimeleri tahtada gördük, çok kelime çalışmadığımdan bu çok yararlı oldu. Başta soru yazmak sıkıcı geldi derste ama yararını gördükçe her şey yolundaydı.

Öğrenci 34 (deney grubu)

Reading dersleri hiç sıkıcı geçmedi. Okumaktan sıkıldığım zamanlar oluyor fakat artık isteyerek okuduğum bir metni rahatça anlayabiliyorum.

Öğrenci 35 (deney grubu)

Sesli okumadan önce kendi başımıza içten okumamız çok yararlı. Okurken durup okuduklarımızı tekrardan düşünmenin yararı çok fazla. Böylece konunun sonundayken başını kaçırmıyorduk. Videoların kitaptaki parçalarla ilgisi olmadığını düşündüğüm için yararı olduğunu düşünmüyorum. Ama internetten konuyla ilgili araştırma yapmak anlamada etkiliydi.

APPENDIX I

Students' Reflections on the Reading Class

Control Group

Informant 1 (control group)

Reading class was enjoyable. The subjects in the book were very enjoyable and interesting. It has contributed to me a lot in terms of vocabulary.

Informant 2 (control group)

I have learned so many helpful words I can use in reading class. That is the most efficient thing. In addition, to be on the Outlook for your questions has increased our learning level. Apart from this, a lesson with some more games and interesting activities would be more enjoyable.

Informant 3 (control group)

I can find words for the blanks in a better way and we have learned a lot of vocabulary. We can find things like main idea and inference more easily. And it is more enjoyable since the subjects in the book are more interesting and different .

Informant 4 (control group)

Reading class has been performed exactly according to its format. With the book which was selected well among National Geographic series, vocabulary knowledge and our experienced teachers, everything was perfect. Thanks for everything.

Informant 5 (control group)

The reading lesson was so beneficial, enjoyable and educating. We have learned many new words and subjects that we can make use of in our daily lives. Due to interesting subjects and good lecturing, the lesson has had an impact on me. I even shared this information with my friends out of school and they were interested, too.

Informant 6 (control group)

Since I usually get bored in skill classes, this lesson is sometimes boring for me. Yet, when texts do not bore, it may be good. It makes our work more difficult when there are too many unknown words in a text. When we do not memorize the words immediately, and when they form masses, it is too bad for us, like it is now.

Informant 7 (control group)

We enjoyed our lessons thanks to my Dear Teacher X's friendly manner. Particularly, she contributed to our vocabulary knowledge a lot. I thank her.

Informant 8 (control group)

Reading class has been very beneficial to me. I never read English texts in my previous school years. When I read and understand a text, I feel very happy.

Informant 9 (control group)

Our lessons are very good. Especially our teacher's friendly manner makes the lesson enjoyable. It is so difficult for students to learn something while listening to the teacher continuously without enjoying. Our reading classes are enjoyable thanks to our teacher. It was not this enjoyable in other levels. I can learn more when our teacher is friendly. In addition, I can retain what I have learned. And her performance during the class is so good.

Informant 10 (control group)

I think reading class was really beneficial. Because I think I have improved my vocabulary a lot, especially my X teacher supported me a lot.

Informant 11 (control group)

I learned so many new words that I can use in daily life in reading classes. Besides, I think, we have gained lots of things in terms of general knowledge from the book Reading Explorer. Our lessons were very efficient and I don't have any negative ideas. Best Regards.

Informant 12 (experimental group)

We have learned so much vocabulary in the reading class. Our lessons were fun, but if we had played more games, lessons would have been better. If we had had 5 minutes' break in the middle of the lessons, lessons would have been more efficient. Reading more than one text was tiring. We could have had 2-3 minutes' break.

Informant 13 (control group)

It [reading class] has had many benefits. Our book includes different subjects. We not only learned about those subjects but also learned a lot of vocabulary. Sometimes, there are too long and meaningless subjects and this makes the lesson boring. We sometimes play word games with our teacher. This is important in terms of retaining the new vocabulary.

Informant 14 (control group)

It is a beneficial lesson in terms of vocabulary knowledge. It has enabled us to learn more vocabulary than we can learn in the main course and other lessons. It has improved our reading and speaking abilities. Yet, it should have been 6 hours rather than 3 hours a week.

Informant 15 (control group)

I think, reading class has been more helpful when compared to the other courses. Reading class is especially has been a different way of learning the vocabulary best.

Informant 16 (control group)

According to me, the biggest contribution of the reading class this term is its teaching a lot of vocabulary. Besides, the texts in the reading book were not boring but included a lot of helpful information. At least the information was helpful in increasing general knowledge. Activities and exercises in the reading class were quite good.

Experimental Group

Informant 19 (experimental group)

I have learned the vocabulary in reading better since the start of the 2nd term because our teacher teaches the words with their similar ones and we are more active in the lesson. My only concern is that if we had more time to finish the units on time, we would be able to have lessons in which we are more concentrated.

Informant 20 (experimental group)

I have learned different and interesting things. Subjects were good, I didn't get bored. I have learned something due to our searching before reading. I have learned that thinking back and visualizing the text in my mind while reading is helpful.

Informant 21 (experimental group)

- 1- strategy training- understanding what you read
- 2- listening to the lesson more comfortably, not losing track of the lesson
- 3- reading even the most irrelevant texts without getting bored, being able to answer the questions
- 4- a list of synonyms

Informant 22 (experimental group)

I think the reading lesson was very efficient, especially in terms of vocabulary. Besides, we have learned new reading strategies and these strategies helped us understand what we read better. Above all, they enabled us to get information about the text before reading it.

Informant 23 (experimental group)

The most important thing about the reading class is that we have improved our understanding of the text with the help of reading strategies. I think, exams do not have any contributions except for their negative effect.

Informant 24 (experimental group)

Strategy training has enhanced my understanding in reading with using my imagination. I have learned how to explain the things I got confused with. I have learned to ask questions to myself.

Informant 25 (experimental group)

Reading class was different from the reading class in the first term. According to me, it was more enjoyable and comprehensible. Teaching the vocabulary with their synonyms made the retention of the words easier. When the questions written down before reading are reviewed after reading, we learned what and how to expect.

Informant 26 (experimental group)

We had the things that we had done [on our own] as part of the lesson. Therefore we learned them detailly. We have learned what to do before reading. Some of them are necessary and I can say that they work, but I think there was something unnecessary, too. For example; making questions and answering them. Maybe it is necessary for expressing what we expect [from the text] but I don't think they are necessary because after all we will read it finally. Yet, the others were good. Thanks!

Informant 27 (experimental group)

In the beginning, I liked it a lot (strategy training). We comprehended what we had read better and it was more enjoyable. Writing questions about the text to be read and gathering information on the net enabled us to approach the subject more consciously. However, writing questions every week bored me towards the end of the level. It was like repeating the same thing again and again. When I first took this exam I had great difficulty but now (the second time) I did it faster and with a better understanding. I have realized that our studies have improved us.

Informant 28 (experimental group)

I think reading class was more fast-moving and enjoyable. We were not dependent on the book. The lesson was much more interesting due to our contributions.

Informant 29 (experimental group)

I don't like reading classes but last term it was a bit more enjoyable. To go further step by step, we stopped and when we stopped there was noise in the class and I missed the vocabulary I had to learn. Drawing pictures was nonsense, I don't think it has a benefit but the lessons became different with this strategy, it coloured the lessons.

Informant 31 (experimental group)

I think reading class was very successful. In the past, I did not use to stop and think while reading because I thought it was a waste of time but I have learned that it is helpful. Now, I can understand what I read in a shorter time. As a lesson, it was enjoyable. The activities we did were good. We learned by enjoying ourselves!!

Informant 32 (experimental group)

Reading classes have been more enjoyable. Subjects were interesting and this made me participate in the classess, and made me understand better while participating. Another reason for this was the reading strategies I

used consciously. It was because I mastered the subject with the help of pictures and captions. The most enjoyable part was drawing pictures. And, we saw the words on the board this term. Since we don't study vocabulary a lot, it was helpful. At first, writing questions was boring but as I understood the benefit of it, everything was fine.

Informant 34 (experimental group)

Reading classes were not boring. There are times I get bored of reading but now I can easily understand a text that I want to read.

Informant 35 (experimental group)

Reading the text silently on our own before reading it aloud has been very beneficial. Stopping and thinking about what we have read during reading is very helpful. This way, We did not lose the beginning of the story when we are at the end. Since I do not think the videos are related to the texts, they don't have any benefits for me. Yet, searching on the net about the current subject was effective.

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